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Interpreting Process Analyzed Based on the Multidirectional Reformulation Activities of New Learners

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Abstract—Aiming at a comprehensive account of interpreting processing, this paper first examines the efficacy of reformulation activities employed in interpreting classes at a university and then analyzes the reformulating products so as to explore the comprehension and the reformulation phases in line with three distinguished hypotheses. They are the meaning-based comprehension (deverbalization) and the form-based comprehension, both of which have the precedence over reformulation phase, and the TL parallel processing occurring during the SL comprehension, in which language-pair specific process is discussed by investigating multi-directional language combinations: from L1 to L1, L1 to L2, L2 to L2, and L2 to L1 reformulations. The main findings of this study suggest that the process of reformulating varies, depending on specific language pairs, which may shed light on the salient link between language combinations and the interpreting process.

Index Terms—reformulation, interpreting process, meaning-based, form-based, parallel processing

I. INTRODUCTION

To date, a substantial body of language-processing research has focused on comprehension, whereas production processes have received less attention in both cognitive science in general and, more specifically, the cognitive processing paradigm of interpreting studies (Pöschhacker, 2016). In fact, few studies may be found that analyze the methodology of the interpretation process. For example, analyzing the think-aloud method while the subject is performing a task is impossible because the interpreter cannot both interpret and verbalize about the process at the same time (Tiselius & Jensen, 2011). Another form of verbal report is immediate retrospection, in which the subjects recall and verbalize their memories of the process shortly after the interpreting task is finished by using the source text as cues; this method has been popular in expertise research (Alvstad, Hild, & Tiselius, 2011).

When discussing the interpretation process, interpreting scholars commonly invoke the Interpretive Theory of Translation (ITT; Seleskovitch, 1978), which states that the linguistic units in the original message are first converted into “deverbalized structures,” or units of sense, and subsequently reformulated in the target language. This is the most fundamental and persistent claim regarding the interpreting process that has prevailed to date. However, some scholars have presented a contrasting theory. Dam (2002) claimed that meaning representation should be qualified as verbalized because of the high degree of formal-lexical similarity observed between the source and the target texts. He argued that interpreting is based on form or “transcoding” (Gran, 1989) rather than on meaning; that is, interpreting generally proceeds on the basis of verbal representation rather than non-verbal. However, other scholars hold dissenting views regarding the sequential process of interpreting. The theoretical model of the interpreting process in ITT consists of three stages: 1) comprehension, 2) deverbalization, and 3) reformulation, which claims that language reformulation starts only after source language comprehension has been completed. However, some scholars argue that target language (TL) processing occurs during source language (SL) comprehension: in other words, that the target language and source language comprehension occur in parallel (Dong & Lin, 2013; Jin, 2010; Macizo & Bajo, 2004, 2006). In this context, the present study addresses conceptual representation in the comprehension process by examining whether SL comprehension is verbalized or deverbalized, which has precedence over the reformulation phase; otherwise, comprehension is exercised parallel to reformulation, the two being inseparable.

Language reformulation in interpreting refers to using the source language (SL) or the target language (TL) to rephrase the message spoken in the SL. First, the present study examines oral language reformulation activities administered to students in an introductory interpreting course at a university in Japan. Research participants took an English/Japanese interpreting class, held for 3 hours a week for a total of 15 lessons during a semester. During each lesson, 1 hour of oral language reformulation activities were provided to the students in four language directions—that is, from SL to SL, SL to TL, TL to TL, and TL to SL. More specifically, reformulation practices were administered from English to English, from English to Japanese, from Japanese to Japanese and from Japanese to English. Then, the students’ reformulating abilities were tested in two developmental stages: a mid-term and a final examination were implemented at the middle and end of the semester, which the present study uses to examine the efficacy of the students’ reformulation activities by comparing their reformulated products. Structural, semantic, and pragmatic comparative analyses were used to investigate students’ development in reformulation abilities over the semester. Then,

the multi-directional reformulating products were examined to analyze correlations in specific language pairs based on the compositional meaning arising from lexemes and syntax. Parallel to this analysis, the strategies that the students employed to solve specific processing problems are also discussed.

Next, the present study addresses conceptual representation in the initial comprehension process by examining whether the SL comprehension is verbalized or deverbilized, which has precedence over the reformulation phase; otherwise, comprehension is exercised in parallel with reformulation, the two being inseparable, which serves as the main signification of the present study. It is likely that various types of compensation for cognitive overload may be exercised during the process; thus, reaction time is also measured to explore the cognitive process in comprehension and reformulation. However, this is a product-oriented study, so it focuses on the reformulated products. The main purpose of this study was to shed light upon the process of consecutive interpreting based on the above-mentioned three theoretical constructs that have commonly prevailed to date.

II. BACKGROUND

The most prominent theory about the interpretation process, the Interpretive Theory of Translation (ITT), was propounded by Danica Seleskovitch in the 1970s, and it has been predominantly supported by the scholars of the so-called Paris School. It proposes that the essential mechanism of the interpreting process is deverbilization or interpreters' non-verbal understanding and expression of "sense," not "transcoding," which is limited to items with fixed correspondences, such as correct names, numbers, and specialized terms. Seleskovitch (1978a) states that "sense" is 1) "conscious," 2) "made up of the linguistic meaning aroused by speech sounds and cognitive complements of the listeners," and 3) "nonverbal," which means that is not contained in any language or text but arises from cues given by the language of oral discourse.

However, not all scholars have supported this theoretical model. Setton (1999), in his research on the cognitive-pragmatic analysis of the interpreting process, although fundamentally sympathetic to ITT, disqualifies the key notion of "sense" as essentialistic and underspecified (Pöschhacker, 2016). Currently, the idea prevails that the cognitive process uses a language of intermediate representation, but Setton (2002) suggested that it comprises a vocabulary to (meta)represent concepts, intentions, attitudes, and a syntax of deductive procedures for inference, with an unspecified influence of affect and instinct on both. Gill (2009) noted that although the Paris philosophy was predominant mainly in the 1970s and 1980s, it has little impact on present-day interpreting studies. He established effort models to explain the interpreters' processing capacity as a conceptual tool, considering performance limitations as a result of cognitive constraints. Cokely (1992a) explicitly considered the modality of input and output process of consecutive interpreting by illustrating seven major processing stages from message reception to production, as follows: message reception, preliminary processing, short-term message retention, semantic intent realization, semantic equivalence determination, syntactic message formulation, and message production.

Dam (2002) explored the process of consecutive interpreting by comparing the products of the source text and the target text, in which he presented the contrasting theory to ITT's "meaning-based interpreting." He propounded the theoretical constructs of "form-based (or word-based)" interpreting or "transcoding" (Dam, 2001; Gran, 1989), his findings suggesting that meaning representation should be qualified as verbalized because of the high degree of formal-lexical similarity observed throughout in the corpus between the source and the target texts. Dam argued that this phenomenon would be unlikely to have occurred if the interpreters had performed a complete deverbilization of the source text before note-taking and, subsequently, target text production (Dam, 2002).

Another theoretical model in the reformulation process is parallel processing of the target language during source language comprehension (Dong & Lin, 2013; Jin, 2010; Macizo & Bajo, 2004, 2006). Dong and Lin (2013) conducted an experiment to investigate reading an L1 or L2 sentence for repetition or interpreting tasks in which the sentence includes cross-linguistic features—for example, cognateness or the processing load of sentences, such as the working memory load. Then, they found that parallel processing of the TL occurred during SL comprehension; however, the TL was not always being processed during SL comprehension; rather, only in the case of L2-L1 interpretation does parallel processing occur (Dong & Lin, 2013).

In the present study, the reformulating products from the students are analyzed according to multidirectional language pairs so as to verify the above-mentioned three contradicting theoretical constructs: conceptual representation based on meaning (deverbilized form), form (verbalized form), or parallel processing, which may serve to clarify the interpreting process. In this context, the author presents the following research questions.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) Would intensive language reformulation activities, if administered to university students over a limited time span, develop their abilities in reformulation as well as in consecutive interpreting?

) Would source language comprehension and reformulation in consecutive interpreting be realized on meaning-based (deverbilization) or on form-based (word-by-word) processing, or in parallel processing with the target language?

IV. METHOD

Research Participants

The research was conducted during Spring Semester 2017 at the Japanese university where the author taught. Research participants consisted of 27 students in their third and fourth year as English majors, who were registered in English-to-Japanese interpreting introductory courses and who had never undergone interpreter training in the past.

Procedures

For the present research, intensive reformulation treatments were administered for 1 hour in a 3-hour weekly lesson, totaling 15 lessons in the whole semester. All lessons were carried out in the CALL room where the textbooks used for the reformulation activities specialized in interpreting studies. Reformulation activities entailed the following tasks, which were applied in the following order.

Training in reformulation from SL (English) to SL (English)

1) Listening

Wearing headsets, students listened to the English text throughout once with the textbook closed to learn the outline of the source text.

2) Oral representation as rehearsal and monitoring

The students were asked to listen to one to four English sentences at a time with the textbook closed while taking notes and then to reformulate verbally or recreate the message in English aloud as accurately as possible all together, using the microphones attached to the headsets. Each student's performance was monitored by the author, and instructions were given to the selected student if necessary, an interaction that could be heard only by the student and the author.

3) Oral representation on the real stage

A student was then selected and asked to perform a complete oral reformulation of the message that had been previously listened to and tried in 2). This effort was heard not only by the author but also by the other students in the classroom. If a specific student could not reformulate the sentences, another student was named. The author provided suggestions, comments, and corrections when each student's performance was finished.

4) Recording the individual student's performance

In order to identify the specific causes of reformulation problems, the students were asked to record their reformulation performances into their own computers and subsequently listen to them carefully with the text open to discover strategies for solving specific processing problems. Recordings of their output performances were repeated several times to raise the quality of their performances.

Training in reformulation from SL (English) to TL (Japanese), from SL (Japanese) to SL (Japanese), and from SL (Japanese) to TL (English) followed the same procedures as the case from SL (English) to SL (English).

Data Collection

Data were collected on two occasions: at the midterm examination, held at the end of the eighth lesson, and at the final examination, implemented after the 15th lesson was completed. The subjects consisted of 27 students. The test procedures proceeded as follows, in which the duration of the time used for 1) to 4) was 60 minutes in total for the midterm and final examinations, respectively.

The procedures of the mid-term examination or final examination

1) The students were asked to listen to one paragraph consisting of three to four sentences one at a time in the SL text narrated in English. The source text was unknown material that they had never tried to interpret before.

2) They proceeded to perform immediate verbal reformulation of the paragraph they had just heard in English, and subsequently, reformulation of the same paragraph in Japanese. The time limit depended on the length of a paragraph. The reaction time entailed by each reformulation was displayed on each student's computer. The total number of test items was three.

3) They were asked to perform consecutive interpreting for some source materials that were not relevant to the present research, which took around 30 minutes. The irrelevant test items were inserted here in order to reduce the practice effect that might be induced by the first reformulation test 1) and applied to the following reformulation test 4).

4) The students were asked to listen to the same paragraphs they had tried in 1) and 2), but this time narrated in Japanese. The Japanese version exactly matched the English one. Students performed the reformulation for it from Japanese to Japanese first, and then from Japanese to English. All performances and the reaction time were recorded in each student's computer, which were copied onto a USB flash drive and then assessed by the author.

Materials

The test items for both examinations were taken from a textbook (Mukai, Maruyama & Matsuoka, 2004) that was designed for beginners' training in interpreting, and offered bidirectional interpreting practice using the same source texts both in the English and Japanese versions, in the fields of cross-cultural communication, culture, environment, and politics. Excerpts from the test items are provided below. The difficulty levels of the source texts for both examinations in terms of intelligibility, syntactic complexity, vocabulary, and familiarity with the source text information are almost equivalent, and both speeches were recorded by the same speaker. The speech comprised 100 words for the midterm examination, and 112 words for the final examination, organized into three paragraphs for both examinations, and heard by the students for the purpose of reformulation.

Final examination

English version

Good afternoon, everyone. Thank you for having this reception party for us. My name is Robert Millar. Please call me Bob.....So during my stay here, I'd like to learn as much as possible about your lovely country and people. So, please help me in any way you can. Thank you again for your kindness and hospitality.

(Mukai, Maruyama, & Matsuoka, 2004)

Japanese version

こんにちは皆さん。私たちのために歓迎会を開いていただき、ありがとうございます。私の名前はロバートミラーです。どうぞバブと呼んでください。.....ですので、ここに滞在中に、皆様の素晴らしい国と人々について、できるだけ勉強したいと思っています。ですからどうぞ何でもご助言下さい。皆様のご親切とご好意に対してもう一度お礼申し上げます。

Measurement

The reformulating performances in four directions, namely from English to English, from English to Japanese, from Japanese to Japanese, and from Japanese to English were analyzed with reference to Viaggio's (1992) criteria.

- 1) Comprehension (Has the student understood everything and right?)
- 2) Re-expression (Did the student make any syntactic or lexical mistakes?)
- 3) Style (Could it have been expressed better?)

More specifically, according to each phrase or semantic chunk, the recorded performances were assessed in every detail, based on the scoring rubric that the author had created (Yamada, 2015), to which specific points were allocated based on the difficulty of translating each semantic chunk or phrase. In order to ascertain the difficulty level of a specific word, a "word frequency list" from an academic area was used (<http://www.wordandphrase.info/frequencyList.asp>). Using this analytic protocol, the data were analyzed using an F test and a t test.

Results

Comparative analysis was conducted on the marks obtained in reformulation between the mid-term and the final examinations, which are shown in Tables 5–8. Full marks equal 30 points.

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF MARKS OBTAINED IN REFORMULATION FROM ENGLISH TO ENGLISH ON THE MIDTERM AND THE FINAL EXAMINATION				
	N	Mean	SD	t
Mid-term (E-E)	27	21.89	5.80	-1.47
Final (E-E)	27	23.15	4.23	-1.47

Note: E-E: reformulation from English to English

TABLE 2.

COMPARISON OF MARKS OBTAINED IN REFORMULATION FROM ENGLISH TO JAPANESE ON THE MIDTERM AND THE FINAL EXAMINATION				
	N	Mean	SD	t
Mid-term (E-J)	27	20.78	6.48	-2.16
Final (E-J)	27	22.70	4.56	-2.16

Note: * $p < .05$ E-J: reformulation from English to Japanese

TABLE 3.

COMPARISON OF MARKS OBTAINED IN REFORMULATION FROM JAPANESE TO JAPANESE ON THE MIDTERM AND THE FINAL EXAMINATION				
	N	Mean	SD	t
Mid-term (J-J)	27	28.93	2.59	-1.27
Final (J-J)	27	29.52	0.76	-1.27

Note: J-J: reformulation from Japanese to Japanese

TABLE 4.

COMPARISON OF MARKS OBTAINED IN REFORMULATION FROM JAPANESE TO ENGLISH ON THE MIDTERM AND FINAL EXAMINATIONS				
	N	Mean	SD	t
Mid-term (J-E)	27	24.07	6.18	-2.60
Final (J-E)	27	26.52	2.91	-2.60

Note: * $p < .05$ J-E: reformulation from Japanese to English

As shown, when we compare the midterm examination to the final examination, the difference in the marks obtained in the reformulation from the SL to the SL—namely, from English to English and Japanese to Japanese—was not statistically significant between the midterm and the final examinations. However, with respect to the reformulations from the SL to the TL (from English to Japanese, and from Japanese to English), the difference was statistically significant in both directions: marks obtained in the final examination were significantly higher than those in the midterm examination. This finding demonstrates that the selected variables are significant predictors of marked development in students' reformulation abilities from the SL to the TL, which are equated with consecutive interpreting

skills from English to Japanese and from Japanese to English. It suggests that the intensive reformulation activities applied during a semester may be effective in consecutive training periods for interpreting, while with regard to the reformulation from the SL to the SL (English to English, and Japanese to Japanese), distinctive improvement was not observed during the semester.

Turning to the standard deviation, the value for the midterm examination is much higher than that for the final examination in every language pair, which reveals that the accuracy of students' reformulation performance varies more significantly in the midterm examination than in the final. The measurement models assume that at the initial stages of reformulation activities, the students' performances varied more in quality, which was generally quite low. Nonetheless, as the lessons proceeded, some students who had not displayed good skills in reformulation may have developed their abilities in reformulation, which resulted in less deviation in quality among the students.

Further, to explore the efficacy of the treatment of the SL to SL reformulation and the SL to TL reformulation, the causal relation in products between two language pairs was investigated. The findings showed that with respect to reformulation from English to English, and from English to Japanese, the correlation was high for the midterm examination ($r = .80^{**}$) and for the final examination ($r = .88^{**}$). In contrast, the Japanese to Japanese reformulation and its Japanese to English counterpart yielded a low correlation for the midterm examination ($r = .36$), and for the final examination ($r = .49$). This suggests that on the one hand, the students who display superior performance with English to English reformulation are also superior in English to Japanese reformulation, which reveals that reformulation activities from English to English are effective in developing consecutive interpreting abilities from English to Japanese, whereas Japanese to Japanese reformulation activity may not directly contribute to development in Japanese to English consecutive interpreting.

Though these data suggest important observations concerning the efficacy of reformulation activity in specific language pairs during interpreting training, reaction time needed to be investigated next so as to obtain further evidence of the effectiveness of the treatment. Reaction time, which was defined as the interval between stimulation and response (<http://www.dictionary.com/browse/reaction-time>), indicates cross-linguistic effects or load effects in the comprehension and reformulation phases. To examine the cross-linguistic features, the reaction times in English to Japanese and Japanese to English reformulations were measured, including the time from students' receiving the instruction to their starting the verbal production to completing their verbal output. The data was analyzed by using a *t* test and an *F* test; the results are presented in Table 9.

TABLE 5.
COMPARISON OF REACTION TIME IN REFORMULATION FROM ENGLISH TO JAPANESE ON THE MIDTERM AND THE FINAL EXAMINATION

	N	Mean (Sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
Mid-term (E-J)	27	92.26	19.01	3.96
Final (E-J)	27	75.37	10.46	3.96

Note: $***p < .001$

TABLE 6.
COMPARISON OF REACTION TIME IN REFORMULATION FROM JAPANESE TO ENGLISH ON THE MIDTERM AND THE FINAL EXAMINATION

	N	Mean (Sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
Mid-term (J-E)	27	112.33	24.98	5.37
Final (J-E)	27	86.70	13.91	5.37

Note: $***p < .001$

The results showed that the students developed markedly also in reaction time with English to Japanese reformulation ($p < .001$) as well as its Japanese to English counterpart ($p < .001$) between the mid-term and the final examination. In summary, it is most likely that the students developed their abilities of L2 to L1 and L1 to L2 reformulations in terms of not only the obtained marks but also the reaction time.

Next, ANOVAs were performed to investigate the variance of the four variables; these results are presented in Tables 11 and 12.

TABLE 7.
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REFORMULATION IN THE FOUR LANGUAGE PAIRS ON THE MIDTERM EXAMINATION.

Reformulation	Mean	SD	F
English to English	21.89	5.80	2.69***
English to Japanese	20.78	6.48	
Japanese to Japanese	28.93	2.59	
Japanese to English	24.07	6.18	

Note: $N = 27$. $***p < 0.001$

TABLE 8.
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF REFORMULATION IN THE FOUR LANGUAGE PAIRS ON THE FINAL EXAMINATION

Reformulation	Mean	SD	F
English to English	23.15	4.23	2.69***
English to Japanese	22.70	4.56	
Japanese to Japanese	29.52	0.75	
Japanese to English	26.52	2.91	

Note: $N = 27$ $***p < 0.001$

The results for the four language combinations were significantly different between the midterm examination ($F(3.10) = 2.69, p < .001$) and the final examination ($F(3.10) = 2.69, p < .001$). Interestingly, in both midterm and final examinations, the same rankings were observed: the Japanese to Japanese combination had the highest score, followed by Japanese to English, then English to English, and finally English to Japanese.

Further, to explore the multi-directional reformulation processes, an F test and t test were performed on every possible language pair to investigate how two languages in a bilingual speaker interact during a specific language process. These tests were carried out for both the mid-term and final examinations. The results are displayed in Tables 9 and 10.

TABLE 9.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MARKS OBTAINED IN REFORMULATION ON THE MIDTERM EXAMINATION (FULL MARKS ARE 30 POINTS).

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to English	27	21.89	5.80	1.47
English to Japanese	27	20.78	6.48	1.47

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to English	27	21.89	5.80	-6.87
Japanese to Japanese	27	28.93	2.59	-6.87

Note: *** $p < .001$ Full marks are 30 points.

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to English	27	21.89	5.80	-2.72
Japanese to English	27	24.07	6.18	-2.72

Note: * $p < .05$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to Japanese	27	20.78	6.48	-6.19
Japanese to Japanese	27	28.93	2.59	-6.19

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to Japanese	27	20.78	6.48	-2.80
Japanese to English	27	24.07	6.18	-2.80

Note: * $p < .05$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
Japanese to Japanese	27	28.93	2.59	4.36
Japanese to English	27	24.07	6.18	4.36

Note: *** $p < .001$

TABLE 10.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MARKS OBTAINED IN REFORMULATION ON THE FINAL EXAMINATION (FULL MARKS ARE 30 POINTS.)

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to English	27	23.15	4.23	1.05
English to Japanese	27	22.70	4.56	1.05

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to English	27	23.15	4.23	-8.52
Japanese to Japanese	27	29.52	0.75	-8.52

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to English	27	23.15	4.23	-6.76
Japanese to English	27	26.52	2.91	-6.76

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to Japanese	27	22.70	4.56	1.71
Japanese to Japanese	27	29.52	0.75	1.71

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
English to Japanese	27	22.70	4.56	-6.08
Japanese to English	27	26.52	2.91	-6.08

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reformulation	N	Mean	SD	t
Japanese to Japanese	27	29.52	0.75	5.92
Japanese to English	27	26.51	2.91	5.92

Note: *** $p < .001$

Interestingly enough, for both the midterm and final examinations, in only one instance—that is, the paired reformulations from English to English and from English to Japanese—were the results not significantly different from each other. The five other pairs were statistically different. Turning to the standard deviation, in both the midterm and final examinations, the highest values show in the reformulation from English to Japanese, and the lowest values are in the reformulation from Japanese to Japanese. This finding indicates that the students' abilities vary most significantly in English to Japanese reformulation—i.e., English to Japanese consecutive interpreting—whereas Japanese to Japanese is much more standardized among the students.

Parallel to the marks obtained, the reaction time was also measured in four language pairs, as shown in Tables 11 and 12.

TABLE 11.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF REACTION TIME FOR REFORMULATION ON THE MIDTERM EXAMINATION

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
English to English	27	95.37	17.20	0.55
English to Japanese	27	92.26	19.01	0.55

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
English to English	27	95.37	17.20	7.11
Japanese to Japanese	27	68.59	8.78	7.11

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
English to Japanese	27	92.26	19.01	7.11
Japanese to English	27	112.33	24.93	7.11

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
Japanese to Japanese	27	68.59	8.78	-8.08
Japanese to English	27	112.33	24.98	-8.08

Note: *** $p < .001$

TABLE 12.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF REACTION TIME FOR REFORMULATION ON THE FINAL EXAMINATION

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
English to English	27	74.33	10.53	-0.38
English to Japanese	27	75.37	10.46	-0.38

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
English to English	27	74.33	10.53	0.91
Japanese to Japanese	27	72.48	8.45	0.91

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
English to Japanese	27	75.37	10.46	-4.86
Japanese to English	27	86.70	13.91	-4.86

Note: *** $p < .001$

Reaction Time	N	Mean (sec)	SD	<i>t</i>
Japanese to Japanese	27	72.48	8.45	-6.00
Japanese to English	27	86.70	13.91	-6.00

Note: *** $p < .001$

Only one pair did not produce a statistical difference in reaction time in the midterm and final examination—the reformulation from English to English and from English to Japanese—thus matching the results for the tests with regard to marks obtained.

Processing Problems and Strategies

The students adopted several basic strategies to arrive at an editorially acceptable target language text. The author classified the students' processing problems into the following six categories, using Ivanova's (1999) criteria, and analyzed them by presenting the examples of the strategies that they had employed: 1) syntactic processing, 2) text integration, 3) text retrieval, 4) equivalence, 5) lexical access, and 6) TL delays.

With respect to English-to-English reformulation, the most frequent problems were associated with syntactic processing and text integration. Some students failed to recognize syntax, which induced an inability to construct a coherent representation for the SL chunk. For example, given the following sentence in the SL text, "Thank you for having this reception party for us," some of them reformulated it as "Thank you for inviting to the reception party to us." Others reformulated it as "Thank you for my reception party." Even though the sentence structure is simple, the syntactic processing seemed to be difficult for them to reproduce.

As another example, in the following sentence, "My hobby is playing baseball, and I am quite a good player, but not like Ichiro or Matsui, yet." many students did not accurately reformulate the underlined phrase in English. The most

frequent errors in syntactic structure were “I am not good at Ichiro or Matsui, yet” and “I am not good player as much as Ichiro or Matsui.” Otherwise, it was reformulated simply as “Ichiro and Matsui are better than me.” On the other hand, when reformulating it into Japanese, they appeared to carry out the syntactic processing smoothly, achieving reformulation in proper Japanese. Thus, they may have processed this phrase instantaneously on the cognitive level.

With regard to text integration, problems frequently occurred when students rendered an SL English chunk into TL English. For example, in the sentence “Please help me any way you can,” most students employed a strategy of deletion for the underlined phrase; that is, they omitted this chunk and said merely, “Please help me.” They appeared not to be able to integrate this simple phrase into the TL English text appropriately on the spot. In contrast, when the TL was Japanese, most of them reformulated this sentence into plausible Japanese. They may have employed creative interpretation to compensate for an ineptitude with text integration by guessing the meaning of this chunk, based on previous knowledge.

With respect to equivalence, some students failed to produce an automatic equivalent because they had difficulty in selecting an appropriate one when there was a choice. In such cases, they appeared to employ a strategy of compromise—namely, to lower the acceptability standards for a TL production (Ivanova, 1999). For example, with the word “hospitality” or “reception,” some of the students failed to use an appropriate Japanese equivalent, such as “omotenashi” or “gokoi,” even though they identified these words as familiar to them. In such cases, they adopted a transliteration strategy in Katakana for these words and just said “hosupitariti.”

For several proper nouns or unknown words in the SL text, they seemed to have difficulty retrieving all lexical items for reformulation. In this case, they would sometimes pause or even stop reformulating, which resulted in TL delays, during which some of them inferred the meaning of the words from the context or even invented a translation for them. When they recognized the TL delay, they sometimes seemed to have employed a strategy of overgeneralization or excessive paraphrasing by selecting a more abstract and less specific representation to compensate for the delay.

V. DISCUSSION

Testing of Research Question 1)

For the present research, intensive reformulation treatment was administered for 1 hour out of a 3-hour weekly lesson, adding up to 15 hours during a semester. This length of time was initially assumed not to be sufficient for identifying marked development in reformulation skills; nevertheless, with regard to the SL to TL reformulation, the results indicated that the difference in the marks obtained between the mid-term and final examinations was statistically significant ($p < .05$) for both English to Japanese and Japanese to English reformulation. Further, the findings showed that the students markedly developed also in reaction time on English to Japanese reformulation ($p < .001$) as well as Japanese to English ($p < .001$) between the two examinations. It seems that the students expedited their processing capacity during the administration period, demonstrating the efficacy of reformulation treatment for English to Japanese consecutive interpreting, as well as its Japanese to English counterpart.

In contrast, with respect to the language combination of SL to SL—namely, English to English and Japanese to Japanese—the development between the two examinations was not significant. Because English to English reformulation imposes a heavy burden on students to comprehend the logical structure and language components associated with syntax and style in the source text when listening, a major effort may be needed for verbal output of the equivalent products in English, which requires a fair amount of linguistic skill. The students who did not demonstrate reasonable linguistic skill when listening to English appeared not to be able to recreate the equivalent message orally in English either; this deficiency may be responsible for students’ not being able to excel in English to English reformulation during such a short span of treatment. On the other hand, with regard to Japanese to Japanese reformulation, the students, unsurprisingly, displayed a high level of reformulating skills from the initial stage of treatment, which contributed to the lack of difference in the obtained marks between the midterm and final examinations.

In terms of the verbal performance, a phenomenal change occurred in the reaction time between the midterm and final examinations. In the midterm examination, the students seemed uncertain about what to say next when they had lexical and syntactic processing problems; however, in the final examination, they appeared to have become more aware of completing their delivery in a given span of time. Their hesitation in how to reproduce the message was significantly reduced, thereby resulting in a marked reduction in reaction time.

Testing of Research Question 2)

The present research hypothesizes that for the language pairs L2 to L2 and L2 to L1, if the SL comprehension is activated based on form (word for word), the accuracy of reformulation from L2 to L2 (English to English) would be likely to exceed the accuracy of reformulation from L2 to L1 (English to Japanese) as the higher degree of formal-lexical and syntactic similarity would be observed in the L2 to the L2 products than in their L2 to the L1 counterparts (Dam, 2002). Such would contribute to obtaining higher marks for L2 to L2 products than for their L2 to L1 counterparts. In reverse, if SL comprehension is based on meaning (sense), the accuracy of reformulation from L2 to L1 (English to Japanese) is likely to surpass the accuracy of reformulation from L2 to L2 (English to English) because the non-verbal representation of the meaning of the SL would exert a more positive influence over the TL production in L1 Japanese than the one in L2.

According to the ITT, sense (meaning) arising from non-verbal representation is not contained in any language or text but arises from cues given in oral discourse plus cognitive complements from the target listener. More specifically, it states that we all experience deverbalization in everyday communication (Pöchhacker, 2016), which implies that sense is likely to be more easily modulated into the target production when reformulated in L1 as the working language rather than in L2. Hence, if comprehension stems from meaning, subsequent reformulation in L1 may be further expedited, which leads to more marks obtained through the L2 to L1 reformulation than from its L2 to L2 counterpart.

Another possibility is that there is no pronounced difference in marks obtained between the L1 to L2, and the L2 to L1 reformulation. This assumption has major implications that parallel processing of the TL would be activated during the SL comprehension, which would not have precedence over TL processing during the input phase but would rather be exercised in parallel with TL production.

Interestingly, when comparing every possible language combination, the findings indicated that only one pair out of six showed no statistical differences from each other in obtained marks. This combination is the English to English reformulation and its English to Japanese counterpart. Further, a close examination of the two products revealed that the correlation in the products of English to English reformulation and its English to Japanese counterpart was significantly high: $r = .80$ for the midterm examination and $r = .88$ for the final examination. The qualitative analysis showed that, in most cases, the specific comprehension problems in logical structure and language components that occurred in the English to English reformulation were also observed in the very same phrase or sentences in the English to Japanese consecutive interpreting; furthermore, the errors occurring in the English to English reformulation were almost identical with the ones in the English to Japanese counterpart.

Turning to reaction time, only the same pair (English to English and English to Japanese) showed no significant difference from each other in the midterm and final examinations. As reaction time, which indicates cross-linguistic effects or load effects (Dong & Lin, 2013), is positively associated with inertia in SL comprehension and TL processing, reaction time would have varied between two directions of reformulations if they had been activated by different dimensions—that is, either form or meaning. Nonetheless, neither the obtained marks nor the reaction time produced a statistical difference in this pair, which suggests that so far as English to English, and English to Japanese reformulations are concerned, SL comprehension may be activated, not by either the form-based or meaning-based conceptual representation taking precedence over the reformulating phase, but by parallel processing, in which the TL processing is likely to be integrated into SL comprehension.

Earlier studies have presented evidence that the lexical link from L2 to L1 is stronger than the one from L1 to L2; thus, it is easier for L2 words to activate their L1 counterparts than vice versa (Kroll & Stewart, 1994). This hallmark feature—the stronger lexical link from L2 to L1—is likely to have rendered possible a smooth English-to-Japanese reformulation, which may serve to co-activate SL and TL processing. This study, however, provides no further answer as to which factor renders parallel processing possible. In summary, all it suggests is that in the comprehension and reformulation phases, as long as the SL is L2, the TL parallel processing may occur during SL comprehension regardless of whether the TL is L1 or L2.

In reverse, when the SL is L1—namely, in the reformulation of Japanese to Japanese and Japanese to English—the statistical difference between the two pairs, in terms of both marks obtained and reaction time, was pronounced. As earlier studies noted, the lexical-conceptual link is stronger for L1 words than for L2 words, which results in easier mapping between form and meaning for L1 words than for L2 words (Dong, Gui, & MacWhinney, 2005, Dong & Lin, 2013; Kroll & Stewart, 1994); thus, it would seem clear that the Japanese to Japanese language link is much stronger than that for its Japanese to English counterpart. Furthermore, a close examination of the products reformulated from Japanese to Japanese reveals that lexical similarity, in which the lexical and syntactic structures in the Japanese source texts exactly matched those in the Japanese target text, is a more salient feature than lexical dissimilarity. Paraphrasing was rarely performed in the Japanese TL, but exact literal repetition of each lexical item and syntactic structure was displayed in the TL products. As lexical similarity and lexical dissimilarity can be considered as general yardsticks determining form-based or meaning-based interpreting (Dam, 1998), it is most likely that comprehension from Japanese to Japanese reformulation is based on form. Nevertheless, this observation does not in any way exclude meaning from the reformulating process. As this language pair hits the highest score by far, showing almost full marks (out of 30 points, 28.93 for the midterm and 29.52 for the final), and considering it also shows the shortest reaction time, the conceptual representation of this language combination may constitute the meaning, too. A stronger lexical-conceptual link for an L1 word than for an L2 word may suggest that the phase activated by form is probably easily modulated to the meaning phase, too. This hypothesis seems to be in line with the statement that form-based and meaning-based reformulation, rather than being mutually exclusive, may complement each other (Dam, 1998).

Next, when comparing the bidirectional language pairs—that is, English to Japanese and Japanese to English pairs—a statistical difference was observed in the marks obtained as well as in the reaction time on both examinations. More specifically, the Japanese to English combination produced higher scores than the English to Japanese counterpart; in fact, the Japanese to English pair hit the highest score of all, excluding Japanese to Japanese reformulation. Such a difference in marks obtained implies that comprehension may be activated by different conceptual representations between two combinations, either form-based or meaning-based. As aforementioned, given that the comprehension of an English to Japanese pair may be activated in parallel with TL processing, it is assumed

that comprehension in the Japanese-to-English language combination is probably based on meaning or on form. Given that form-based comprehension was exercised in the Japanese-to-English reformulation, word-for-word translation would have been extremely difficult because the morphosyntactic structure is significantly different between the two languages, as Japanese is a verb-last language and English is the reverse. If form-based comprehension had been exercised, it would have resulted in an awkward rendition, which suggests that form-based comprehension is unlikely to have occurred, given that the students obtained such high scores. In fact, in the interpreting community, there appears to be agreement that in order to optimize quality, interpreting should be performed based on meaning, not on form (word for word), because going through meaning instead of seeking direct linguistic correspondence allows for better comprehension of the speaker's intentions and better reformulation in the TL, with less linguistic interference and more idiomatic expression (Gile, 2009). In this context, high scores in reformulation from Japanese to English imply that comprehension is most likely to be activated by meaning.

In summary, the present study suggests that on the one hand, with regard to the language pair of L2 to L2 or L2 to L1, parallel processing occurs; on the other hand, in an L1 to L1 pair, form-based comprehension is likely to be exercised, which may be easily modulated into the meaning phase. With respect to an L1 to L2 pair, meaning-based comprehension may be activated. In this context, the findings of L2 to L1 research exactly matched the earlier view that only in L2-L1 interpreting does TL parallel processing occur when investigating bidirectional L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 interpreting (Dong & Lin, 2013). Concerning L1 to L2 reformulation, the findings of the present study match the serial view—that is, interpreted texts are produced mainly on the basis of non-verbal representation of source text meaning (Seleskovitch, 1978).

VI. CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was twofold. The first was to investigate the efficacy of reformulation practice for consecutive interpreting training. There was clearly a significant difference in marks obtained between the midterm and final examinations with regard to bidirectional SL and TL reformulation. More specifically, the students markedly developed their consecutive interpreting skills from L2 to L1 as well as from L1 to L2 during the administration period. However, other variables showed mixed effects. With respect to reformulation of the L2 to L2 pair, the efficacy of treatment was not pronounced. This result may arise from a deficiency in the students' processing capacity for L2 to L2 reformulation, which required the students to be highly proficient in the L2. This implies that it seems to be extremely difficult to enhance English proficiencies, which is critical in L2 to L2 reformulation, during such a short time of treatment.

Next, the present study explored the process of consecutive interpreting by invoking three distinct theoretical models. It concluded that as long as the source language is the L2, it is most likely that TL processing may occur parallel to SL comprehension. In contrast, in L1 to L2 reformulation, meaning-based comprehension would be activated, while in the L1 to L1 reformulation, form-based comprehension may be exercised, which is likely to be easily modulated into meaning. Nonetheless, these observations do not in any way exclude meaning or form or parallel processing from the respective pairs; rather, the form-based and meaning-based representations appear to be intricately intertwined and to co-occur in one language combination, from which we may conclude that the nature of the conceptual representation of the interpreting process is still uncertain. Nevertheless, the present research on multidirectional reformulation through direct contact between SL and TL linguistic products and including reaction time may provide some perspective on interpreting processing accounts, which may shed light on the salient link in the language combination.

VII. LIMITATIONS

It should be noted here that these findings concerning the reformulating process claim validity only for the data in the present research, which have limitations and weaknesses. For instance, the present study involved relatively few participants, only 27 students. Furthermore, they were all registered in introductory interpreting courses, which means that none of them had undergone interpreting training in the past. Data drawn from participants in different developmental stages of interpreting experience might produce different results from those found in the present research. This implies that it is difficult to draw a generalization concerning the interpreting process from the presented materials. Future studies may need to increase sample size and multiply replication, so as to offset, in part, the difficulties of empirical study. Nevertheless, these findings may serve to demonstrate the potential usefulness of comparative analysis between the source and the target texts when exploring the interpreting process.

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The Influence of the *CIRC* and *TTW* Learning Model and Learning Motivation toward Grade 8 Students' Report Writing Skills at SMP Muhammadiyah Padang

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Abstract—The objectives of this research are (1) to find out whether the *CIRC* and *TTW* learning models significantly influence the students' ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang, (2) to explore whether the *CIRC* and *TTW* learning models have a significant influence on the highly motivated students' ability to write reports, (3) to analyze whether the *CIRC* and *TTW* learning models have a significant influence on the ability to write reports of the students with low motivation (4) to identify whether there is influence on the interaction between the use of *CIRC* type learning model and *TTW* and learning motivation toward their ability to write the report. This study was conducted within randomized control-group pretest-posttest experimental designs whose participants were Grade 8 students of Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang. The instruments of data collection were report writing tests, questionnaires and interviews. The findings show that there is a significant influence of the use of *CIRC* and *TTW* type learning model with the students' motivation to learn the skills of writing reports. Secondly, there is a significant influence on the use of *CIRC* and *TTW* learning models on the highly motivated students' report writing skills. Thirdly, there is a significant influence on the use of *CIRC* and *TTW* learning models on the lowly motivated students' report writing skills. Finally, there is the interaction of the use of learning models of *CIR* and *TTE* types with their learning motivation on their report writing skills.

Index Terms—report writing skills, *CIRC*, *TTW*

I. INTRODUCTION

Indonesian lesson is one of the obligatory learning at all levels of education. Bahasa becomes one of the compulsory lessons for education in Indonesia as it is one of the identities of the Indonesian Nation. Therefore, Indonesian language has a strategic position in the school curriculum. The goal of Indonesian language learning in schools is not only for students to pass the exam, but the students must also be able to communicate by using good and correct Indonesian language. Therefore, the priority is given to the teaching of the four skills in order for the students to be able to gain knowledge and experience and to communicate well and correctly.

In a learning process, the main task of a teacher is to condition the environment in order to support the change of behavior for learners. The learning process needs to be done calmly and pleasantly; this of course requires the activity and creativity of teachers in creating a conducive environment. The learning process will work well if all learners are actively involved mentally, physically and socially in it. The main goal of a learning process is how to achieve the learning objectives well. Therefore, to achieve the intended purpose, the learning process must have a high quality, meaning that teachers need to utilize learning components as possible. The ability of teachers to implement the learning process depends on their accuracy in designing the lesson plans. With the right learning design, the teachers are expected to be able to present the learning materials of Indonesian language well.

In addition to the factors derived from the students' lack of strong motivation to write, there are some other factors, namely the students' lack of vocabulary which results in their difficulty in composing words to create a report, and the lack of students' desire in reading, especially when given a long text. Another thing is the low average scores obtained by students on writing study reports. The results obtained from the Indonesian language teacher of Muhammadiyah Junior High School in Padang show that there are only 9 of 35 Grade 7 students whose average scores of daily assignments of semester I Year 2016-2017 and the test conducted on August 25, 2016 are above 76, the Pre-Determined Minimum Criteria of Standard Mastery (KKM).

Based on the problems that emerged above, related to the lack of learning models used by teachers and students' low motivation, the researchers intend to apply a learning model expected to be able to improve learning outcomes of

Indonesian language, especially in enhancing the students' report writing skills. Therefore, the application of a new model of learning in report writing, CIRC (Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition) and TTW (Think-Talk-Write), is necessary to overcome the above problems. CIRC and TTW type of learning model is used as a solution in learning to write reports because it is an integrated cooperative learning composition of reading and writing, while the learning model of TTW is a learning model that can improve the students' ability of understanding and communication developed by way of thinking, speaking and writing. Therefore, the researchers want to combine the two models of learning CIRC and TTW in learning process of writing reports. This type of learning model of CIRC and TTW is expected to be able to help teachers to provide convenience to students when writing reports through group work and cooperative learning to find an idea that will be written in a report form.

It is based on the abovementioned facts that the researchers are interested in conducting research this research whose objectives are as follows:

1. to find out whether the CIRC and TTW learning models significantly influence Grade 8 students' ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang;
2. to explore whether the CIRC and TTW learning models have a significant influence on the ability to write reports of Grade 8 students with high motivation;
3. to analyze whether the CIRC and TTW learning models have a significant influence on the ability to write reports of Grade 8 students with low motivation;
4. to identify whether there is influence on the interaction between the use of CIRC type learning model and TTW and learning motivation toward Grade 8 students' ability to write the report at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Learning Model

In learning, various problems are often experienced by teachers. To overcome various problems in learning, it is necessary to have learning models that are considered to help teachers in teaching and learning process. Models are designed to represent the real reality, although the model itself is not the reality of the real world. According to Suprijono (2011, p. 45), the model is defined as a form of accurate representation as an actual process that allows a person or group of people to try to act on that model. Another opinion is that the learning model is a pattern used as a guide in planning the learning in the classroom or tutorial (Suprijono, 2011, p. 46)

One of the learning models that can be used in the learning process of Indonesian language is Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition commonly abbreviated as CIRC. Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) learning is a method where students comprehensively learn by developing reading and writing skills. Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) is a learning opportunity given to learners to work with other learners in structured tasks (Li & Lam, 2015, p. 12).

This CIRC model is a tool in cooperative learning as the latest technique that teaches practical reading, writing that can be taught in Indonesian language lesson. Stevens et al (1991, p. 9) argue that this cycle of instruction has been applied to reading and writing instruction in the elementary grades, through the development of the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) program. So it can be concluded CIRC type learning model is a learning model that can provide an effective way of learning that can improve the ability of reading and writing activities.

Li & Lam (2015, p. 20) highlight that CIRC comprises three major language activities: 1) Basal-related activities, 2) Direct instruction in reading comprehension, and 3) Integrated language arts/writing. All students are assigned to form teams composed of two pairs from two different groups. Each heterogeneous group is made up of a high ability pair and a low ability pair. In other words, while the pair is homogeneous in ability, the group is heterogeneous in ability. Different reading materials are assigned to the pairs according to their ability so that all members have an equal opportunity to succeed, irrespective of their ability. Though the pairs work on different materials, the pair with higher ability will help the low ability pair to learn. Scores will then be given to each member who has completed the three major languages activities. Each member's scores are counted towards the group's score each week. Rewards are given to the groups whose scores meet a required standard.

The think-talk-write learning model was developed by Huinker and Laughlin cited in Yamin & Ansari (2008, p. 84) built through thinking, speaking and writing. This learning model can develop students' understanding and communication skills. Think-Talk-Write model flow begins with the involvement of students in thinking or dialogue with themselves after the reading process, then talk and share ideas with friends and then write the results of the discussion. This learning model is more effective if done in heterogeneous groups with 3-5 students. In this group all students are asked to read, make small notes, explain, hear and share ideas with friends and then express it through writing.

Meanwhile, the role of teachers in the TTW learning model according to Silver and Mith (Yamin & Ansari, 2008, p. 84) are: 1) Asking questions and tasks that engage and challenge each student to think. 2) Carefully listen to student ideas. 3) Get students to express their ideas orally and in writing. 4) Decide what students are digging and carrying in the discussion. 5) Deciding when to inform, clarify problem issues, use models, guide and let students struggle with difficulties. 6) Monitor and assess student participation in the discussion and decide when and how to encourage each student to participate. So it can be concluded that this type of learning model TTW centered on students, the students in

groups work together to discuss the material given, then the teacher is only as a facilitator to guide and monitor and motivate students.

B. Motivation

Motivation is one of the important determinants of learning. Yamin & Ansari (2008, p. 157) cites the opinion of Mc. Donald defines motivation as a change of energy in a person (person) characterized by the emergence of feelings and reactions to achieve goals. This is supported by opinion Nasution (2002, p. 58) which describes that motivation is a force or energy that drives a person's behavior to move.

Furthermore, according to Yamin & Ansari (2008, p. 158) motivation to learn is the power of psychic drive from within a person to be able to do learning activities and add skills, experience. Motivation encourages and leads the learning interest to achieve a goal. Students will earnestly study because they are motivated to seek achievement, gain positions in positions, become politicians, and solve problems. Based on some opinions that have been described, it can be concluded that motivation is a force or energy that encourages a person to do something to achieve goals both positive and negative goals.

Motivated people can be seen from the characteristics that exist in the person. The characteristics of people motivated, among others, are not easily desperate in completing a job, always feel like to make his achievements are increasing. Sardiman (2011, p. 83) suggests the motivation in each person has the following characteristics: (1) Diligent to face the task; (2) Ductile facing difficulties; (3) Showing interest in various problems; (4) Preferably working independently; (5) Get bored with routine tasks; (6) Can defend his opinion; (7) It is not easy to let go of what is believed; (8) Glad to find and solve problem questions.

Based on the above characteristics it can be concluded that the motivated student's indicator is tenacious and diligent in completing the task, showing interest, always paying attention, and having the spirit and the desire to learn to get good learning outcomes.

Haryanti (2007, p. 11) explains that learning outcomes are the object of evaluation of the learning process. Learning outcomes can also be interpreted as a result of the teaching process of teachers and learners learners. Learning outcomes are often used as a measure to find out how far a person has mastered the material already taught. Learning outcomes are a change in learners' behavior.

Learning outcomes of learners can be in the form of assessment in the form of numbers as an index of achievement to determine the success of learners. The results of the assessment provide feedback information, both learners and teachers. Weakness in learning outcomes is interpreted as a lack of achievement of teaching objectives. In other words, there are a number of objectives that may not be achieved or miss the previously planned targets (Hamalik, 2003, p. 234). Thus it can be concluded that learning outcomes are scores obtained from a change process toward behavior change and attitude changes that are permanent and durable and formed as a result of interaction with the environment.

Bloom's Lessons cited by Sudjana (2008, p. 22) describe some of the aspects assessed for the classification of learning outcomes that broadly divide it into three domains, namely; 1) the cognitive domain is the domain that is related to the memory or the introduction of knowledge and information, and the development of intellectual skills, 2) the affective aspect is dealing with attitudes and values, the type of affective learning outcomes appear in learners in various behaviors such as attention to the lessons, discipline, learning motivation, respect for teachers and classmates, study habits, and social relationships, 3) psychomotor domains ie Psychomotor domains associated with motor skills, manipulation of objects or activities that require neural coordination and coordination of the body.

C. Writing

In Big Indonesian Dictionary (2008: 1098) writing is defined as (1) making letters (numbers, etc); (2) giving birth to thoughts or feelings (such as composing, making letters) with writing. Sumardjo (2007, p. 75) says that writing is a process of giving birth to writing that contains ideas. Many do spontaneously, but also repeatedly make corrections and rewrite them.

Tarigan (2008, pp. 3-4) adds that writing is an activity that is productive and expressive. In writing activities, a writer must be skilled at utilizing graphology, language structure, and vocabulary. Writing skills will not come automatically but must go through practice. Furthermore, Tarigan (2008, p. 22) argues that writing is to derive or represent graphic representations depicting a language understood by a person, so that others can read the graphic symbols if they understand the language and graphic representation. So, it can be interpreted that writing is the process of making letters that contain ideas and derived from thoughts or feelings that are then poured into the form of writing.

Hartig cited in Tarigan (2008, p. 25) mentions the Seven Writing Purposes, firstly the purpose of assignment (assignment purpose). The purpose of this assignment actually has no purpose at all. The author writes something because it is assigned, not of its own accord (eg the students assigned to summarize the book, the secretary assigned to make the report). Second, the purpose of altruistic (altruistic purpose) is to please the readers, want to help readers understand, appreciate the feelings and reasoning want to make life readers easier and more fun with his work. One can not write properly if he believes, consciously or unconsciously that the reader or the connoisseur of his work is the "enemy" or "enemy". The purpose of altruistic is the key to the readability of something written. Third, the purpose of persuasive (persuasive purpose) is writing that aims to convince the readers of the truth of the ideas expressed. Fourth, the purpose of informational purpose information (informational purpose) writing that aims to memeberikan

information or information / light to the readers. Fifth, the purpose of self-awareness (self express purpose) is for the author's self-statement to the readers. Sixth, the creative purpose of this goal is closely related to the purpose of self-revelation, but the "creative will" here outweighs the self-assertion, and engages itself with the desire to attain artistic norms, or ideal arts, the arts of art. Writings that aim to achieve artistic values, artistic values. Seventh, the purpose of problem-solving (problem-solving purpose) is to solve problems encountered. The author wants to explain, clarify, explore and examine carefully his own thoughts and ideas in order to be understood and accepted by the reader.

The main function of writing is considered as an indirect means of communication. Writing is very important for education because it makes it easy for students to think, that is critical thinking, make it easier for us to feel and enjoy relationships, deepen our responsiveness or perceptions, solve problems we face, arrange sequences for experience, writing can also help us explain mind- our minds (Tarigan, 2008, pp. 22-23).

So, writing activity is very much a benefit that is to improve thinking power, add references, and also write useful psychological, cultural, economic, and intellectual.

D. Writing Report

Hasnun (2004, p. 49) explained that the report originated from the Latin reportare, bringing back written documents compiled as a result of procedures to explain the information. A formal (formal details of a matter) notice of facts, records or results of something in a systematic way. Reports are everything that is reported. Another thing is presented by Keraf (2004, p. 324) who argues that the report is a way of communication the author conveys information to a person or a body because of the responsibilities imposed on it. While Widyamartaya (2005, p. 7) which states that the writing of the report is the delivery of information that is factual about something from one party to another party. In other words, report writing involves three things, namely (1) what is reported, (2) who is reporting, and (3) to whom the report is submitted. From various notions about the report can be concluded that the report merupakan a message or information submitted to a person, government, good institutions from one to another that provides information based on fact.

Keraf (2004, p. 327) describes the report has several forms, namely: a report in the form of a form field, which is a routine report, and often in the form of numbers. Although the figures are not writings, they should be done with care; report in the form of a letter, that is a report that is not much different from ordinary letter, unless there is a subject to be conveyed in order to be known by the recipient of the report. When the author decides to use a letter form for his report, personal tones and approaches play an important role, as do the other letters, but they are much longer than ordinary letters; memorandum-shaped reports, memorandum-shaped reports (suggestions, notes, short notes) are similar to letter-shaped reports, but are usually shorter. A memorandum-shaped report is often used for a brief report in sections of an organization, or between superiors and subordinates in an employment relationship; progress reports and state reports. Progress reports are principally different from state reports; periodic reports or periodic reports. Such reports are made within a certain timeframe; a laboratory report, one of the laboratory reports is to convey the results of experiments or activities performed in the laboratory. Therefore, this report often contains only experiments that have been done; formal and semiformal reports, formal reports are reports that meet certain requirements, for example there should be a title page, usually a submission letter, always have a table of contents, there is an overview to start the report, there are introductions, conclusions and suggestions given their own titles, the contents of the report consist of titles with different levels, the tone used is the official tone, if necessary the report is accompanied also tables and figures, whether embedded in the text of the report, or attachments, formal reports are usually specially documented.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was categorized into experimental research using quasi experimental method. Experimental research reveals the relationship between two or more variables or search for the influence of a variable on other variables (Sudjana and Ibrahim 2004, p.19). In addition, Sugiyono (2009, p. 107) argued experimental research can be interpreted as a research method used to find the effect of certain treatment against others in a controlled condition. In the experiment there are two variables that become the main concern, namely the independent variable and the dependent variable. The purpose of this research is to obtain empirical data about the relationship between X1 (CIRC and TTW type learning model) and X2 (learning motivation) with Y (writing skill report). The purpose of this research is to find out whether there is influence of CIRC and TTW type learning model (X1) on Grade 8 students' writing skill report (Y) at SMP Muhammadiyah Padang. In addition, the research aims to see whether there is influence of learning motivation (X2) on Grade 8 students' writing skill report (Y) and interaction between CIRC and TTW type learning model (X1) and learning motivation (X2).

A. Setting

This research was conducted at SMP Muhammadiyah Padang, located at Simpang Haru, Padang, West Sumatra, Indonesia.

B. Participants

There are three parallel classes in Grade 8, two of which, Class 1 and Class 3, were selected for this reseearch. The research involved 33 students of Grade 8 from Class 1 used as the experimental group and 32 students of Grade 8 from Class 3 use as a control group.

C. Instruments

The research instruments for this study are closed questionnaires and a test of report writing. The questionnaire of learning motivation used a likert-type 5-point scale: SL (always), SR (often), KD (sometimes), JR (rare), TP (never). The positive items were given points 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 and negative items were given points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

The form of the instrument used in this study is a questionnaire on motivation to learn report writings and a report writing test. The test of this research instrument is internal validity test. Internal validity includes content validity and construction validity. The validity of the constructs carried out by expert judgment, namely to seek expert opinion as suggested by Sugiono (2009, p. 172). To determine the validity of the instrument, the product moment correlation formula were used. The result of rxy calculation on the critical table r product moment with 5% significance. If $r_{xy} > r_{tabel}$ then that aspect is valid. Instrument reliability testing can be done externally or internally. Externally the test can be done by test-retest (stability), equivalent, and both combined while internally the reliability of the instrument can be tested by analyzing the consistency of the items on the instrument with a particular technique (Sugiyono, 2009: 183). The reliability of this study instrument is calculated by the alpha cronbach formula presented by Kasmadi and Sunariah (2013: 70). The result of r calculation in table rhitung with 5% significance. The criterion of reliability if rhitung $>$ rtabel then the aspect is reliable.

TABEL 3.1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.893	20

The test results seen in Table 3.1 shows that the value of alpha cronbach is 0.893. this means a reliable questionnaire because in the study obtained $\alpha > 0.05$.

Data collection techniques in this study were conducted by providing test report writing skills through pre-experimental, experimental, post-experimental stage, data analysis, and preparation of research results.

The data analysis begins with (1) the recording of the mean posttest score of the students' writing skills on the two classes, (2) comparing the posttest score of the final report writing skill on each class, (3) examining the difference in posttest class score taught by the learning model type CIRC and TTW and convensonally for groups of students who have high and low learning motivation, as well as to test the hypothesis, (4) calculate the interaction of the use of CIRC and TTW type learning models with learning motivation to report writing skills, as well as to test the hypothesis.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH

This section presents the cotrol group's result of the posttest of report writing skills intended to see their writing skill progress in which no media were used in the learning process. There were 33 students of the control group who participated in this posttest, the result of which showed that the highwst score was 84 and the lowest was 62.

In addition, the Posttest of the report writing skills involved 33 students of the experimental group and was conducted to see whether result could show the good progress of the expeiremental group of the students who were taught using CIRC and TTW type learning model.

The report writing skills were taught by using audio-visual media to the students who were highly motivated and generally the result showed a score range of 72 - 84 with the lowest score of 72 and the highest score of 84. With SPSS 17, it was found the mean score of 72.36, the mode score of 72, the median of 71.00 and its standard deviation of 5.361.

Furthermore, report writing skills were conventionally taught to the students who are also higly motivated. The result showers a score range of 60 - 79 with the lowest score of 60, the highest score of 79. Their report writing skills had the mean score of 67, 39, the mode score of 70a, the median score of 70a, the variance of 13.166 and standard deviation of 5.875

A similar treatment, namely the report writing skills, was taught by using CIRC and TTW type learning model to the students who were lowly motivated and generally the result showed a score range of 62-76 with a low score of 62 and a high score of 76. Their report writing skills had the mean score of 70, 02, the mode score of 78, the median score of 69, and standard deviation of 4.321.

The report writing skills were also conventionally taught to the lowly motivated students. The result showed a score range of 55-62 with the lowest score of 55 and the highest score of 62. With SPSS 17, it was found that their report writing skills showed the mean score of 67,00, the mode score of 68, the medin score of 69,00, and the standar deviation of 4.239.

As normality tests check if a population significantly differs from a normal distribution, the first step in this research was conducting the normality tests toward the control and experimental groups' report writing tests. The result is presented in the table below:

TABLE 4.1.

THE SUMMARY OF THE RESULT OF NORMALITY TESTS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' REPORT WRITING SKILLS

No	Data	Asymp. Sig (2- tailed)	Information
1	<i>Pretest</i> Control Grop	0.324	Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) > 0,05 = normal
2	<i>Posttest</i> Control Group	0.296	Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) > 0,05 = normal
3	<i>Pretest</i> Experimental Grop	0.452	Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) > 0,05 = normal
4	<i>Posttest</i> Experimental Group	0.254	Asymp. Sig (2-tailed) > 0,05 = normal

SPSS 17 was used to do the normality tests. The result shows that both the experimental and control groups' data of the pretest and posttest were normally distributed as both all of the tests have a p-value greater than 0.05, which indicates normal distribution of data. Therefore, the data are eligible for parametric statistical tests.

As the data were normally distributed, the next step was to conduct the homogeneity test. As the p value of the pretest (0.547) and the posttest (0.653) were greater than 0.05, which indicates homogeneous distribution of data. Therefore, the data are eligible for parametric statistical tests.

TABLE 4.2.

THE SUMMARY OF HOMOGENEITY TEST RESULTS OF VARIANT DATA OF REPORTS WRITING SKILLS

No	Data	Levene Statistics	P	Note
1	<i>Pretest</i>	0.026	0.547	Sig. 0.547 > 0,05 = homogeneous
2	<i>Posttest</i>	0.276	0.653	Sig. 0.653 > 0,05 = homogenous

The first hypothesis test, the null hypothesis (H₀), in this research is whether the CIRC and TTW learning models do not significantly influence Grade 8 students' ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang. In addition, the second hypothesis (H₁) was to see whether the CIRC and TTW learning models significantly influence Grade 8 students' ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang. The t-test calculation was performed with SPSS 17.0. to see whether data requirements are significant if p is less than 0.050.

TABLE 4.3.

THE SUMMARY OF T-TEST RESULTS BETWEEN LEARNING CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENTAL CLASS MOTIVATION.

Data	th	Db	P	Ket
Posttest Experiment and Control	1.386	63	0.000	0 < 0.05 = not significant

From the table it can be seen that F arithmetic is 1.386 with db 63 obtained p value 0.000. The p value is greater than 0.050. Thus, the t-test results show there is a significant influence between control group learning motivation and experimental group.

The second hypothesis test the null hypothesis (H₀), in this research is "There is no effect of CIRC and TTW type learning model on Grade 8 highly motivated students' ability to write report reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang Padang while the second hypothesis (H₁) is that "There is an effect of CIRC and TTW type learning model on Grade 8 highly motivated students' ability to write report reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang. The t-test calculation was performed with SPSS 17.0. and data requirements are significant if p is less than 0.050.

TABLE 4.4

SUMMARY OF T-TEST RESULTS BETWEEN THE POSTEST GROUP WRITING SKILLS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP REPORTS

Data	th	Db	P	Ket
Posttest Experimen and Control	3.985	63	0.000	P < 0.05 = significant

The Posttests of the control group and experimental group show t-value of 3.985, df 63, P 0.000, which is <0.05 = significant. From Table 4.4, the p value is less than 0.050 (p: 0.000 < 0.05). Thus, the t-test results show that there is a significant influence on the control group being taught without using the CIRC and TTW type learning models and the experimental group taught using the CIRC and TTW type learning models.

The third hypothesis test in this study, the null hypothesis (H₀), is that the CIRC and TTW learning models have no significant influence on Grade 8 lowly motivated students' ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang while the second hypothesis (H₁) is that the CIRC and TTW learning models have a significant influence on Grade 8 lowly motivated students' ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang.

Two-way anova tests were performed with SPSS 17.00. and the result shows f value of 23.49. While F-table with df of numerator 1 and df denominator 63 at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$ is known at 4.34. Based on this result, it can be concluded that if $F_h > F_t$ at the 0.05 level with dk numerator 1 and dk denominator 63, the conclusion is there is interaction.

The fourth hypothesis test, the null hypothesis (H₀), in this research is "There is no interaction between the learning model of CIRC and TTW type and Grade 8 student's learning motivation and their ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang. In addition, the second hypothesis (H₁) was" There is an interaction between the learning model of CIRC and TTW type and Grade 8 student's learning motivation and their ability to write reports at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang.

Two-way anova tests were performed with SPSS 17.00. and the result shows f value of 21,65. While F-table with df of numerator 1 and df denominator 63 at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$ is known at 3.93. Based on this result, it can be concluded that if $F_h > F_t$ at the 0.05 level with dk numerator 1 and dk denominator 63, the conclusion is there is interaction.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the analysis that has been previously presented, it can be concluded that there is a significant influence of the use of CIRC and TTW type learning models with learning motivation toward Grade 8 students' writing skill at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang. Secondly, there is a significant influence on the use of CIRC and TTW type learning models on the highly motivated students' writing skills. Thirdly, there is also a significant influence on the use of CIRC and TTW type learning models on the students' lowly motivated writing skills. Fourth, there is the interaction of the use of learning models of CIR and TTE types with students' learning motivation on the Grade 8 students' writing skills at Muhammadiyah Junior High School Padang.

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TEFL Teachers' Conceptions of Writing: A Case of China*

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Abstract—In teaching writing in English as a foreign language (EFL) context, a little information is known about teachers' knowledge base of writing. The current study, therefore, used the case of Chinese context to explore how TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) teachers understand writing and what impacts their conceptions. A questionnaire containing the natures, functions, and development of writing, and text features of good writing were developed to collect data online; items had 5-point Likert scales. 490 (female 76.3%) participants were engaged in the sample. Respondents generally identify linguistic, cultural and cognitive natures of writing, but many question its social nature, and a few are in trouble with recognizing the multifaceted concepts of writing. Participants highlight writing functions related to the self and self-expression but fail to note those targeting the addressees. The majority accede to the facilitation of other language skills and writing instruction to the development of writing, but lay the greatest stress on the transfer effects of reading. When evaluating texts, they do not seem to focus on linguistic features more relevant to foreign language learning (e.g. vocabulary, grammar). Demographic components (gender, teaching experience, school level, class size, and frequency of writing instruction) do not influence their conceptions systematically. These findings may be of interest for in-service teacher trainers.

Index Terms—EFL writing, Conceptions of writing, Chinese TEFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

In the educational system, it has been widely approved that teachers' professional knowledge directs the effectiveness of instruction and impacts student achievement. According to Schulman, pedagogical content knowledge is the key issue of the teacher knowledge base for teaching (Shulman, 1987). Its constituent element, subject matter knowledge, referring to what teachers know, is the core and prerequisite component of teacher knowledge base. In teaching writing in EFL contexts, however, limited information is known about teachers' knowledge base of writing (Lee, 2010). In the past few years, a variety of studies emerged in responding to Hirvela and Belcher's (2007) advocate of more attention to writing teachers' preparation and development. These studies encompass several research themes: Writing teacher education and training (e.g., Crutchfield, 2015; Ene & Mitrea, 2013; Lee, 2010; Lee, 2013), teachers' beliefs and practice in writing instruction (e.g., Ferede, Melese, & Tefera, 2012; Fu & Matoush, 2012; Khanalizadeh & Allami, 2012; Koros, Indoshi, & Okwach, 2013); Melketo, 2012; Yang & Gao, 2013; Yang, 2015), and other teaching behaviours (e.g., Farrell, 2006; Min, 2013). However, there still seems to be a paucity of research on teachers' knowledge base of writing. In order to address this issue, the current study used the case of Chinese context where exams are predominant regarding teaching and learning to explore how TEFL teachers understand writing. The study aimed to answer the following research questions:

- What are teachers' concepts of writing?
- How do they perceive the multiple functions of writing?
- How do they view the interventions to develop writing?
- How do they evaluate the features of a good text?
- How do their backgrounds influence their conceptions of writing?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Either learning or teaching writing in an EFL context is complex and challenging. A synthesis of literature is conducive to understanding comprehensively the research consensus on writing and recent studies on writing teachers' knowledge. In this section, a discussion about writing and teachers' learning about writing will be conducted.

A. Research Consensus on Writing

In studies of writing, a great deal of research has defined writing as linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural act. Gelb (1963) in his long immensely cited book *A Study of Writing* regarded writing as "a system of human intercommunication by means of conventional visible marks" (p. 12). This concept clarifies the communicative tool of

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writing with its linguistic, social and cultural nature. Decades later, writing was viewed as product-oriented or text-focused, i.e., writing was considered as an ultimate and perpetual written product (Coulmas, 1996). It has been commonly agreed that effective writing is an integration of the writer, the text product, and the audiences (Osterholm, 1986). Therefore, writing involves the cognitive process through which a writer expresses ideas in a text to address specific readers. Hyland (2015) perceived writing as linguistic product that a written text is logically organized with its coherent utterance of language and grammar for specific meaning-making. Accordingly, effective writing requires the mastery of knowledge of orthography, morphology, and syntax.

Undoubtedly, writers play the key role in achieving goals of constructing good texts and addressing specific audiences. Therefore, many studies have attached importance to writing activity as a cognitive process. For a long period and even till now, the most influential model of the writing process was coined by Flower and Hayes (1981). Their model gave a whole picture of the recursive process of writing: purpose, goals, audience, generating and translating ideas, evaluating and revising texts. As a self-improvement of the model, Hayes (1996) added environmental and personal factors and emphasized motivation, cognition, and working and long-term memory in writing. Afterwards, a large quantity of research has pursued the cognitive processes of writing, targeting phase-focused writing strategies. For example, Tankó (2005) treated the complex writing activity as a recursive process: pre-writing, writing and reviewing.

Apart from the individual and interactional understanding of writing, research has also shed light on writing from perspectives of social and cultural aspects. Hyland (2002) claimed that writing serves culture-bound purposes, reflects specific relationships and acknowledges an involvement in a particular community. Therefore, writing is “socially and culturally shaped and individually and socially purposeful” (Sperling, 1996, p. 55).

In general, the research community has reached a consensus on writing that learners and instructors need to bear in mind that writing involves linguistic, cognitive, social, and cultural aspects for particular communicative purposes in a specific context.

B. Recent Studies on Writing Teachers

As mentioned earlier, we know little about teachers’ knowledge of writing. An overview of research on writing teachers particularly in recent years helps to find out the new findings and tendencies, so as to contribute to the research and development of teachers in EFL contexts. Here, recent studies will be discussed from three aspects: writing teacher education and training, teachers’ beliefs and practice in writing instruction, and teaching behaviors.

Writing teacher education and training

Lee (2010) explored four EFL teachers’ perceptions of what they learned from an in-service writing teacher training programme by using qualitative research method. She found that questioning traditional approaches, teachers as inquirers, research literature as a valuable learning resource, the role of writing in teacher learning, writing teacher identity, and blending idealism and realism helped teachers to enrich their learning about writing. Further, Lee (2013) attempted to understand writing teachers’ development through the ‘identity’ lens. She conducted a qualitative research to investigate four EFL teachers’ construction of their identities as writing teachers. Her findings show that teachers constructed their new identities through shifting from language testing to writing instruction, from teacher-centered to teacher-student learning community, organizing new instructional activities and being conscious of changing. She also reported that teacher education, teachers’ reflection, and roles mediated teachers’ development of identity. Ene and Mitrea (2013) sought to examine how Romanian EFL teachers frame their knowledge base of writing. They employed a semi-structured survey to collect information from 41 teachers. Their findings indicate that self-regulated learning, participating conference and workshops are the dominant means to learn about writing.

Teachers’ beliefs and practice in writing instruction

Melketo (2012) used interviews and observations to explore three university teachers’ beliefs and practices in writing instruction. He found that teachers described writing as an intellectual, cognitive and creative activity, but their teaching practices did not echo their beliefs regarding the whole writing processes. For pre-writing, teachers believed in reading and student-oriented ideas generating but took actions in imitating and teacher-directed modeling. While writing, teachers changed scaffolding and co-working to individual composing final text for assessment. And for revision, teachers basically stepped aside for helping students with the edition. For error correction, teachers themselves simply corrected students’ errors instead of organizing peer work.

Likewise, Yang and Gao (2013) used interviews, class observations, and courses materials to examine four Chinese EFL university teachers’ beliefs and practices in teaching writing. They found that teachers believe in an integrated model of process and product of writing instruction, but they perform differently in the entire stages of teaching students to learn to write. They also found that teachers experience respectively development in beliefs and practices concerning product-oriented and process-focused views, expressive view, and a hybridization of the process- and product-oriented view of writing instruction.

Khanalizadeh and Allami (2012) investigated 122 Iranian EFL teachers’ beliefs on writing instruction through a questionnaire. They found that most teachers believe in the form-based pattern of writing among process-based, form-based, and social-based views of writing. Fu and Matoush (2012) used a survey to understand EFL teachers’ perceptions of writing instruction in China. The 123 responses from teachers in their study show three issues: a language focus on writing instruction, short of training and support for writing teachers, and an exam-focused orientation of writing

instruction. Ferede, Melese, and Tefera (2012) employed a questionnaire to examine 19 preparatory school teachers' perceptions of EFL writing and writing instruction. Their findings show that teachers generally believe that writing can be acquired by learning and instruction and intense practice. But the findings show a mismatch between teachers' claimed beliefs and practice in a real class that they put more efforts to speaking, reading, etc., but teach little writing. Yang (2016) did a small scale survey (25 participants included in a questionnaire) to investigate Chinese teachers' and students' attitudes toward writing in grades 7-9. The results show that writing instruction is neglected in English classes, but both teachers and students consider writing to be difficult and important and it can be improved.

Teaching behaviours

Farrell (2006) aimed to understand how a female writing teacher reflected her beliefs about and practice of writing. In this case study, the participant used classroom observations and oral recall to mull over her writing practice. The participant viewed writing as intellectual, communicative and social act. When reflecting her teaching, she focused on interaction in class, feedback by peers, and language medium. The findings show that the participant knew well about how to regulate her teaching to match her changing beliefs about writing. They also reveal that the methods of observation and oral recall are inductive to teachers' self-consciousness of their beliefs and practices.

In a case study, Min (2013) explored an EFL writing teacher's practice in giving written feedback. Entries of log and journals were used by the participant to reflect on her practice. Identifying students' purposes, recognizing and interpreting problems, and providing particular advice are directive principles for her giving constructive feedback. The participant experienced a change of her precedence of making feedback over one semester. She moved her preference of recognition of students' problem at an early stage of a semester to clarifying the latent intentions at the end of it.

In conclusion, recent studies have extended research realm on writing teachers. They present various facets of the contribution of an in-service training programme for teachers' learning about writing and development, multidimensional beliefs about writing, and diverse practices in writing instruction. They also report the issues in teachers' classroom actions of teaching writing. Nevertheless, these studies have primarily utilized qualitative research methods based primarily on interviews, observations, and case studies; few quantitative studies only targeted relatively small samples, even including university teachers. However, teachers' more systematic knowledge about writing is still veiled. Therefore, it merits a further survey with a larger sample to gain a more generalized picture of teachers' understanding of writing in EFL contexts.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Due to the exploratory research of the current study, snowball sampling was used to approach respondents. In total, 490 Chinese TEFL teachers participated in this survey, 23.7% of them are male, and 76.3% are female. The more detailed features of the sample are shown in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Components	Statistics
Gender	Male 23.7 %, female 76.3%
Age	M = 34.03, SD = 7.82; Min. 21, Max. 55
Work experience	M = 11.66, SD = 8.31, Min. 1, Max. 36
School level	Primary 13.3%, junior 39.4%, senior 47.3%
Class size	> 61 students, 19.6%; between 46 and 60, 51.6%; between 31 and 45, 21.2%; < 30, 7.6%
English lessons per class/week	M = 6.39, SD = 2.73; Mode = 6
Teaching time devoted to writing instruction (%)	M = 18.8, SD = 14.04
Lessons of teaching writing per class/week	M = 1.22, SD = 1.20; Mode = .60

B. Instrument

For the purpose of answering the research questions, a self-developed questionnaire was employed to gather information. The questionnaire had twenty-six items with 5-point Likert scales. It targeted writing concepts (4 items), writing functions (6 items), interventions to develop writing (4 items), and features of a good text (12 items). Background variables were also contained. The questionnaire was developed in English but was translated into the participants' mother tongue, because an English questionnaire didn't work well in an earlier study though respondents were English teachers themselves (cf., Kong, 2017).

C. Procedures

Data collected was finished in January 2017. All participants answered the questionnaire online. SPSS V 24 was used to code and analyze the data. Based on the research questions, numerous analyses were conducted, and relevant results are presented in the next section.

IV. RESULTS

A. Concepts of Writing

Writing was considered as linguistic product a century ago; then from the 1960s to 1980s, shifted to as cognitive activities (c.f., Flower & Hayes, 1981); later on, it has been regarded as a social communicative tool, and further extended to cultural understanding (e.g., Chapman, 1999; Ellis, 2016; Grabe & Kaplan, 2014; Hyland, 2003; Kucer, 2014; Miller, 1984; Norris & Damico, 1990; Prior, 2006; Swales, 1990). These natures of writing strongly correlate to each other (see Table 2). Do teachers share with them? In order to show the possible distinctions more clearly, the original five-point scales were transformed into two-point scales. That is, “strongly disagree, disagree, and uncertain” were recoded into “disagree”, and “agree and strongly agree” into “agree”. Frequencies of respondents’ acceptance of every single nature of writing are elicited (see Figure 1).

TABLE 2
CORRELATIONS AMONG THE MULTIFACETED CONCEPTS OF WRITING

	2	3	4
1. linguistic nature	.71**	.53**	.68**
2. cognitive nature	–	.62**	.65**
3. social nature		–	.63**
4. cultural nature			–

** $p < .01$

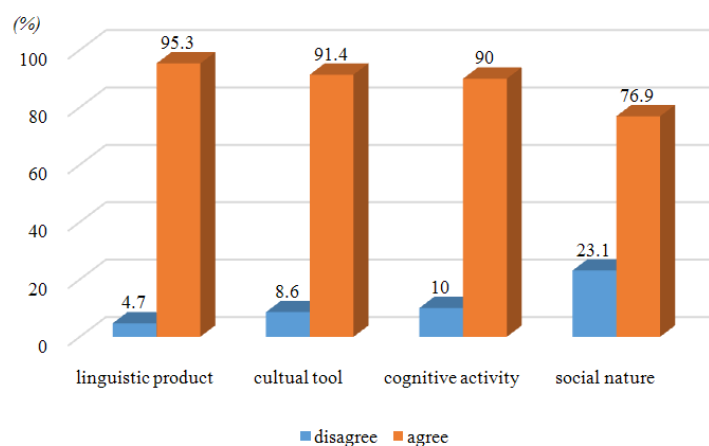


Figure 1. Frequencies of respondents’ acceptance of the individual nature of writing

One can find that the majority of participants had concepts of writing consistent with the research community. Teachers basically consider writing to be a linguistic (95.3%), cultural (91.4%), and cognitive tool (90%), however, 23.1% doubt its social nature.

Besides, Paired Sample T-tests found that the mean score for participants’ recognition on the variable of ‘writing is a linguistic activity’ ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .79$) is respectively significantly higher [$t(489) = 4.51$, $t(489) = 10.29$; $p < .05$] than that on ‘writing is a cognitive activity’ ($M = 4.21$, $SD = .78$) and ‘writing is a social activity’ ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .91$); the mean of ‘writing is a cultural activity’ ($M = 4.28$, $SD = .80$) is respectively significantly higher [$t(489) = 2.31$, $t(489) = 9.89$; $p < .05$] than on ‘writing is a cognitive activity’ and ‘writing is a social activity’; the mean of ‘writing is a cognitive activity’ is significantly higher [$t(489) = 7.83$, $p < .05$] than that of ‘writing is a social activity’; no statistically significant difference was found between the variables ‘writing is a linguistic activity’ and ‘writing is a cultural activity’.

In addition, it is also important to know how many participants accept writing as a multifaceted concept. Results are exhibited in Table 3. It is clear that most respondents (71.4%) are fully aware of the multiple natures of writing. Nevertheless, around 10% of the participants may have very different concepts of writing from the academic fields. Therefore, it would merit further effort to explore their relative neglect of certain writing natures.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCIES OF TEACHERS’ ACCEPTANCE OF THE MULTIFACETED NATURES OF WRITING

Facets of writing	Acceptance (%)
4	71.4
3	18.0
2	6.3
1	1.4
0	2.9

B. Functions of Writing

Research has shown that writing is multifunctional and can suffice diversified aims (cf., Clark, 1990; Hyland, 2013). The possible multi-functions of writing may be used as a vehicle for creation, communication, thinking, exams, career, and addressing people. What are teachers' perceptions of the functions of writing? Likewise, the original 5-point scales were recoded into 2-point as above. Results are demonstrated in Figure 2. It is obvious that respondents agree more with its function for creation, communication, and thinking, much less with addressing people, compared to their acceptance of writing for exams and career. It indicates that participants emphasize writing functions related to the self and self-expression but fail to note those targeting the addressees.

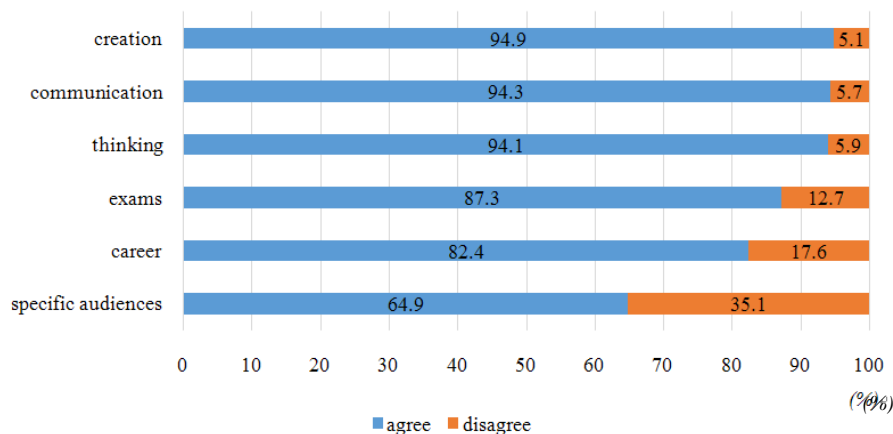


Figure 2. Frequencies of teachers' acceptance of possible functions of writing

Moreover, it is also interesting to unearth the proportion of teachers' favored functions of writing (see Table 4). It is explicit that only five out of ten of the respondents agree with the whole writing functions involved in the study, slightly more than one-fourth accept five functions, marginally over one-tenth favor four functions. It seems that a small number of participants are in trouble with accepting the possible multi-functions of writing, namely, 3.5% of the respondents accept three functions, 1% accept two functions, few participants accept one function, and 2.9% are aware of none of these functions.

TABLE 4
PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS' ACCEPTANCE OF MULTIPLE FUNCTIONS OF WRITING

Number of functions	Recognition (%)
6	54.1
5	27.3
4	11.0
3	3.5
2	1.0
1	0.2
0	2.9

So far, the findings above have suggested that teachers hold divergent concepts and functions of writing. The expectation is that participants' concepts of writing impact their acceptance of writing functions. The relationships are presented in Table 5. It is clear that writing concepts strongly relate to its function for creation, communication, and thinking ($.48 < r < .71$); moderately correlate with exams and career ($.43 < r < .55$). However, as could be expected, writing for addressing specific audiences has a weaker positive correlation to any facet of writing ($.30 < r < .42$).

TABLE 5
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CONCEPTS AND FUNCTIONS OF WRITING

	Linguistic product	Cognitive process	Social nature	Cultural tool
tool for creation	.71**	.63**	.52**	.65**
tool for communication	.70**	.65**	.54**	.66**
tool for thinking	.65**	.61**	.48**	.57**
proving one's knowledge at exams	.55**	.53**	.43**	.52**
contributing to one's career	.49**	.54**	.51**	.48**
addressing specific audiences	.35**	.42**	.39**	.30**

** $p < .01$

C. Interventions to Develop Writing

Writing could be developed through direct and indirect interventions. Direct interventions include writing activities and writing instructional activities, and indirect interventions contain reading and speaking activities (cf., Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2013; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Fullerton, McCrea-Andrews, & Robson, 2015; Scott & Windsor, 2000; Silverman, Coker, Proctor, Harring, Piantedosi, & Hartranft, 2015; Whiteman, 2013). Are teachers aware of this

relationship? Similarly, the 5-point scales were recoded into 2-point. Frequencies of respondent' acceptance of the interventions to develop writing are presented in Figure 3. In general, respondents agree with the four interventions to develop writing. They hold similar opinion toward interventional activities directly related to writing but agree more with the transfer effects of reading activities compared to that of speaking activities. It reveals that addressing people gets less attention than the others.

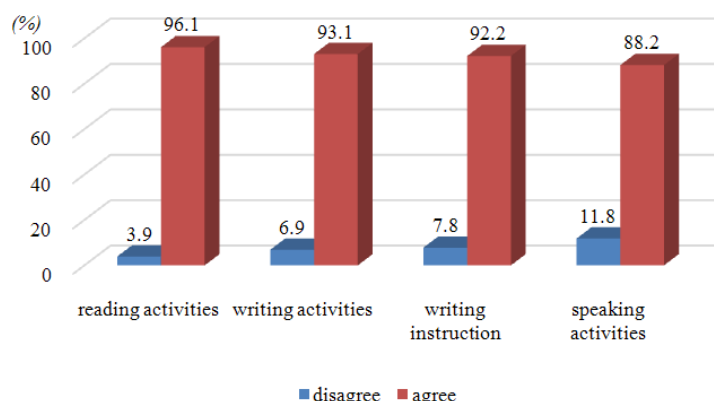


Figure 3. Frequencies of participants' agreement with the intervention to develop writing

Furthermore, Paired Sample T-tests showed that the mean for 'reading activities' ($M = 4.53$, $SD = .76$) is significantly higher [$t(489) = 7.17$, $p < .05$] than that for 'writing activities' ($M = 4.36$, $SD = .77$), higher [$t(489) = 10.41$, $p < .05$] than that for 'writing instruction' ($M = 4.25$, $SD = .76$), higher [$t(489) = 11.25$, $p < .05$] than that for 'speaking activities' ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .84$); and the mean of 'writing activities' is significantly higher [$t(489) = 4.47$, $p < .05$] than that of 'writing instruction', higher [$t(489) = 4.97$, $p < .05$] than that of 'speaking activities'. Therefore, among the four facilitators, participants attach the greatest importance to reading activities.

D. Features of a Good Text

So far, I have discussed writing as an activity (or process). Now, I will move to writing as a text (or product). A large amount of research has demonstrated that content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, style, semantics, spelling, punctuation, and so on, are basic components of good writing (e.g., Cho, 2003; Knoch, 2011; Lee, 2007, 2011). These aspects constitute the conceptual, linguistic, and coding features of a paper, which are also frequently used in evaluating a text. What is teachers' weight when evaluating a piece of EFL text?

Based on the above components of writing, a composite index was created and used as the dependent variable in a regression model with the conceptual, linguistic and coding elements of texts as independent variables. The regression analysis with the 'enter' method found that each of the items in the three levels contributes almost equally to the features of good writing, i.e., each explained nearly equivalent variance ($r^2 = .06 - .09$); while the 'stepwise' method found that 'the structure of a text, spelling, style, and punctuation' ($\Sigma r^2 = .903$) explained cumulatively more than 90% of the variance. Thus, it seems that the participants consider the structure of a text, style, and conventions as the primary characteristics of a well-written paper.

E. Influence of Demographic Information on Teachers' Conceptions

I will discuss the influence of demographic information on teachers' conceptions of writing in this section. In the study, participants' personal background encompasses gender, teaching experience, school level, class size, and lessons of teaching writing per class per week.

Effect of gender

An Independent Samples T-test analysis found that only the mean of the male participants on the variable 'Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams' ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .86$) is significantly higher [$t(488) = 1.97$, $p < .05$] than that of female respondents on the same variable ($M = 4.14$, $SD = .88$); the means for both genders on all of the other variables are not significantly different ($p > .05$). It seems that male and female teachers have similar conceptions of writing, except male teachers are more inclined to the function of writing for checking students' knowledge at exams.

Effect of teaching experience

It is assumed that teaching experience impacts teachers' conceptions of writing. There is a common classification of phases of teachers' professional development, i.e., one to five years of teaching experience: novice teachers, 6-15 years: experienced teachers, and 16 and more years: more experienced teachers (c.f., Fraga-Cañadas, 2010). The frequency of participants' work experience shows that 33.5% of them have 1-5 years of teaching experience, 35.7% have 6-15 years of teaching experience, and 30.8% have 16 or more years of teaching experience. Then, for the convenience of analyzing, participants were divided into three groups by teaching experience: Group 1: 1-5 years; Group 2: 6-15 years, and Group 3: 16 years and above.

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) found that there were significant differences among groups with different teaching

experience on several items of writing development and features of a good text. The mean for individual teacher group is presented sequentially in Table 6 and 7.

TABLE 6
MEAN FOR TEACHER GROUPS' RESPONSES TO DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING

Development of writing	1-5 years group (Mean)	6-15 years group (Mean)	16+ years group (Mean)
Engagement in speaking facilitates writing	4.04		4.38

On the construct of development of writing, a One-way ANOVA with the factor 'teaching experience' yielded a significant effect [$F(2, 487) = 6.85, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$] between participants with 1-5 years of teaching experience and those with 16 or more years on the variable 'Engagement in speaking facilitates writing'; the Tukey test found that the mean for the latter (4.38, $SD=.72$) is significantly higher than that for the former (4.04, $SD=.85$).

TABLE 7
MEANS FOR TEACHER GROUPS' RESPONSES TO FEATURES OF GOOD WRITING

Features of good writing	1-5 years group (Mean)	6-15 years group (Mean)	16+ years group (Mean)
Length of a text	3.35	3.62	
Handwriting	3.97	4.29	4.26

With respect to features of a good text, ANOVA with the factor 'teaching experience' showed a significant effect [$F(2, 487) = 3.63, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$] between participants with 1-5 years of teaching experience and those with 6-15 years regarding the item 'Length of the text'; the Dunnett's T3 test showed that the mean for the latter (3.62, $SD=.86$) is significantly higher than that for the former (3.35, $SD=1.03$). A One-way ANOVA with the factor 'teaching experience' showed a significant effect [$F(2, 487) = 8.25, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$] between participants with 1-5 years of teaching experience and those with 6-15 and 16 or more years on the variable 'Handwriting'; the Dunnett's T3 test found that the mean for 6-15 years (4.29, $SD=.71$) and 16 or more years (4.26, $SD=.72$) is respectively significantly higher than that for the 1-5 years (3.97, $SD=.94$).

Effect of school level

It is well known that language instruction is supposed to be flexible and adaptive to meeting learning needs of students at different language proficiency levels. For the teaching of EFL writing, it is possible that teachers teaching different grade levels have diverse understandings of writing. In this study, 13.3% of the teachers teach grades 1-6, 39.4% teach grades 7-9, and 47.3% teach grades 10-12. ANOVA revealed difference on features of a good text. The means for teachers at different school levels are shown respectively in Table 8.

TABLE 8
MEAN FOR GROUPS OF SCHOOL LEVEL ON FEATURES OF GOOD WRITING

Features of good writing	Teachers of grades 1-6 (Mean)	Teachers of grades 7-9 (Mean)	Teachers of grades 10-12 (Mean)
Cohesive devices	3.91		4.18

On the construct of basis of good writing, a One-way ANOVA with the factor 'school level' indicated a significant effect [$F(2, 487) = 4.45, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$] between teachers of grades 1-6 and grades 10-12 on the variable 'Cohesive devices'; the Tukey test found that the mean for teachers of grades 10-12 (4.18, $SD=.72$) is significantly higher than that for teachers of grades 1-6 (3.91, $SD=.81$). It seems that teachers at different school levels commonly tend to hold similar conceptions of writing.

Effect of class size

As a result of the huge population in China, class size in schools is accordingly quite large. In the current study, respondents basically have more than 30 students in their class. The class size is divided into four groups (see Table 1). ANOVA showed significant differences in certain items included in writing functions and features of good texts. The means are presented in Table 9 and 10.

TABLE 9
MEANS FOR GROUPS OF CLASS SIZE ON FUNCTIONS OF WRITING

Functions of writing	< 30 (Mean)	31-45 (Mean)	46-60 (Mean)	>61 (Mean)
Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	3.76	4.19	4.26	

TABLE 10
MEANS FOR GROUPS OF CLASS SIZE ON BASIS OF GOOD WRITING

Features of good writing	< 30 (Mean)	31-45 (Mean)	46-60 (Mean)	>61 (Mean)
Vocabulary	4.27		4.58	

On the construct of functions of writing, a One-way ANOVA with the factor 'class size' yielded a significant effect [$F(3, 486) = 3.84, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$] between teachers who have less than 30 students in their class and those who have 31-45 students on the variable 'Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams'; the Tukey test indicated that the mean for the latter (4.19, $SD=.84$) is significantly higher than the mean for the former (3.76, $SD=1.61$); besides, the mean for those who have 46-60 (4.26, $SD=.85$) students is significantly higher than that for teachers who have less than

30 students (3.76, SD=1.61) on the same variable.

On the construct of basis of good writing, a One-way ANOVA with the factor 'class size' showed a significant effect [$F(3, 486) = 3.33, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$] between teachers who have less than 30 students in their class and those who have 46-60 students on the item 'Vocabulary'; the Tukey test identified that the mean for the latter (4.58, SD=.60) is significantly higher than that for the former (4.27, SD=.80).

Effect of lessons of teaching writing per class per week

It is safe to say that the frequency and intensity of teaching writing influences teachers' conceptions of writing. In this study, participants were asked about the number of English lessons they teach for one class of students per week ($M = 6.39, SD = 2.73; Mode = 6$), and the percentage of their teaching time devoted to teaching writing ($M = 18.8\%, SD = 14.04\%$); then, the approximate number of lessons of teaching writing per class per week ($M=1.22, SD=1.20$) is derived from the 'number of English lessons per class/week' multiplied by the 'percentage of teaching time devoted to teaching writing'. Accordingly, based on frequencies of responses, the numbers of writing lessons were divided into three groups: Group 1: less than one lesson of writing instruction per class per week, 55.7%; Group 2: one to two lessons per class per week, 31.2%; Group 3: more than two lessons, 13.1%.

A One-way ANOVA with the factor 'lessons of teaching writing per class per week' yielded a significant effect [$F(2, 487) = 3.37, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$] between the means of Group 1 and Group 2 on the variable 'Engagement in speaking facilitates writing'; the Tukey test found that the mean for Group 2 ($M = 4.35, SD=.70$) is significantly higher than that for Group 1 ($M = 4.13, SD=.90$).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate Chinese TEFL teachers' conceptions of writing particularly in the exams predominant conventions. In the last part, discussion of the findings and matching conclusions are drawn.

In terms of the multidimensional notions of writing, respondents normally recognize the linguistic, cultural and cognitive natures of writing, however, over one-fifth of them question its social nature. Also, the majority of respondents recognize the four facets of writing, while a minority are in trouble with acknowledging the multiple natures. It reflects much or less the shortcomings of the exam-oriented language learning and instruction that the communicative nature of writing is relatively left out by teachers. Therefore, further efforts to examining teachers' inattention to some of the natures of writing are necessary.

Concerning possible functions of writing, informants report various favored functions of writing, while they stress the ones concerned with the self as well as self-expression but overlook functions addressing people. Worse still, only slightly over half of the participants agree with the six functions of writing in this study, and the others particularly a small number of them have difficulty accepting the multifunction of writing. Respondents' conceptions of writing concepts and functions reveal that they are inclined to be writer-focused and text-based, whereas considerably audience-ignored.

As far as the interventions to develop writing, respondents accept the interventions of other language skills and writing instruction to the development of writing. However, they lay the greatest stress on the transfer effects of reading on facilitating writing, which indicates that teachers rely more on the indirect interventions to facilitate students' writing ability but put to some extent insufficient emphasis on learning by doing.

In the light of features of good writing, respondents view the structure of a text, style, and conventions of writing to be the greater contributors, but relatively look over some linguistic features such as vocabulary and grammar. It, therefore, calls for further research to examine participants' relative inattention to these components of well-written texts.

Considering the above mentioned, a conclusion can be made that respondents, in the EFL context where exams are predominant, favor writing as a linguistic product as well as a cognitive process. Nevertheless, the essential social communicative nature and function of writing should also be emphasized by teachers. This might be of interest for in-service TEFL teacher trainers.

As for genders' conceptions of writing, male participants are only inclined to accept writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams, but generally, agree with female participants on all other variables of writing.

As expected, more experienced teachers have different ideas on writing from those novice teachers. The former accept more the facilitation of speaking activities to the development of writing and length and handwriting as features of good writing than the latter. However, experienced teachers' conceptions of multifaceted natures and multifunction of writing do not differ from other teachers.

Surprisingly, participants at different school levels do not report systematically different understandings of writing, except that teachers of grades 10-12 emphasize cohesive devices more as a basis for good writing than those of grades 1-6. It seems that teachers at different school levels generally maintain similar conceptions of writing.

With regard to class size, participants have normal class size with 31-60 students agree more with the function of writing for proving student's knowledge at exams than those who have smaller class size with less than 30 students. Also, participants have average class size attach more importance to vocabulary as the basis of good writing than those have smaller class size.

It is also a surprise to find out that the frequency of participants' teaching of writing does not make a systematic

change in their conceptions of writing. This definitely merits further investigation of the relationships between teachers' writing instruction and conception.

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The Effect of Dynamic Assessment on Grammar Achievement of Iranian Third Grade Secondary School EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study intends to investigate the effect of dynamic assessment (DA) on EFL learners' grammar knowledge. Based on Murphy, DA originates with the workings of the Russian psychologist and its basis is rooted in his outstanding concept of the zone of proximal development (2008). Embedding instruction and assessment through mediation, DA distinguishes learning potential and promotes development in relation to this potential (Lantolf, 2009, p.360). This study inspects the difference between applying dynamic and non-dynamic (static) assessment of Third Grade Secondary School EFL learners' grammar achievement. Therefore, 86 male and female participants (in segregated groups) were investigated to explore the purpose of the study. The consequences of applying DA on both female and male learners, i.e. an experimental and a control group for each gender, were discovered through the current research. First, a pre-test, then a post-test (it was the same as the pre-test) were administered to the applicants to show the possible changes after a period of six mediated sessions. The outcomes of the study presented that dynamic assessment had a significant improvement in participants' grammar achievement.

Index Terms—Dynamic assessment (DA), Static assessment (SA), Zone of proximal development (ZPD), mediation, grammar achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

Certainly one of the most and critical parts of language learning or any kind of learning a matter is the way the trainer evaluates the learners. According to Poehner (2008) learners and trainers continually complain about the frustration resulted from facing assessment. Changes to the improvement of language teaching, have brought about modifications to the field of language testing. As O'Loughlin (2006, p.72) claims teachers are dealing with the relationship between assessment and learning, stating that the major function of assessment is to bring progress to education. Researchers like Lantolf and Poehner (2008, p.273) have faith in a close association mingling instruction and assessment in which this bond would result from the outstanding approach known as Dynamic Assessment (DA), developed by L.S. Vygotsky. Furthermore, DA connects instruction and assessment, bringing them to a unified activity supporting learners' development through mediation.

In the present study, the researchers examine the effect of Dynamic Assessment vs. non-dynamic assessment on Iranian EFL learners' grammar achievement. Especially, the implementation of DA in this research concerns the results of EFL learners' grammar throughout a period of instruction applying teacher mediation. The researchers intends to explore the influence of embedding instruction with assessment in EFL classroom through mediating the learners.

II. BACKGROUND

A. *Origins of Dynamic Assessment*

Murphy (2008) and Poehner (2008) state that the origins of dynamic assessment are rooted in the Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) within the sociocultural theory. Vygotsky's ZPD in applied context is defined by the difference between what a child can achieve unassisted and what he/she can accomplish in cooperation with others, both in assessment and in classroom learning situations (Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, & Miller, 2003, p.3). The zone in ZPD is the distance between what a learner can do unassisted and what he/she can achieve in collaboration with a more expert one (Daniels, 2001, p.56). Furthermore, the general notion of ZPD based on Chaiklin's (2003, p.40) indication is an interaction between a more competent person and a less knowledgeable one on a task, so that the collaboration will result in the progress of the less competent one.

Bekka (2010) argues about the significant role of social dealings in language learning programs where ZPD provides a substantial insight into the focuses and practices of language assessment. Based on him the interaction between teachers/assessors and learners in DA builds their ZPD where the learners' learning potential emerges. In other words, to assess a learner's learning potential means to create his or her ZPD through this kind of interaction. On the importance of the ZPD in assessment, Poehner (2008, p.42) claims that Vygotsky proposed this idea as a means of capturing both development and developing abilities. What individuals can do in cooperation with others illustrates their future independent performance. While traditional assessments isolate learners, they should be abandoned in favor of mediated practices during the exam time in order to show their full performance. He continues that because the mediation plays a significant role in the learners' potential growth, this kind of assessment is also an instructional activity. In another study, Lantolf and Poehner (2004, a) prove that DA focuses on promoting development through mediation in ZPD; therefore, it insists on the integration of assessment and instruction.

B. DA vs. Static Assessment

“Dynamic assessment is an approach to understanding individual differences and their implications for instruction that embeds intervention within the assessment procedure.” (Lidz & Gindis, 2003, p. 99). In this regard, DA can be contrasted with traditional, or **static**, approaches to testing. The terms static assessment and dynamic assessment were both formulated by researchers working in the DA paradigm in order to distinguish their theoretical perspective from the more traditional models of assessment. The terms refer not to the assessment instruments but to the administrative procedures; any kind of assessment can be conducted in a dynamic or static way. Of course, the terms ‘static’ and ‘dynamic’ posit a clear dichotomy between assessments that include intervention and those that do not. (Poehner, 2005, p.14)

Those working in the field of assessment contrast the DA approaches and the traditional approaches to testing. This traditional approach is referred to as static assessment (SA). These terms, SA, and DA do not specifically refer to assessments themselves, but rather to the way in which an assessment is administered. The term "static test" refers to a test where "the assessor presents items to the child and records his or her response without any attempt to intervene in order to change, guide or improve the child's performance" (Tzuriel, 2001, p. 1). Based on Lidz and Gindis' discussion (2003, p.99), dynamic assessment came to the field of assessment as a way of expressing dissatisfaction with the traditional (“product oriented, static”) ways of psychological testing. A very vital alteration between DA and SA regards the focus in SA on the product of the past development while DA looks at the upcoming progress. (Poehner and Lantolf, 2003)

Currently, a dichotomous relationship exists between assessment and instruction, therefore; another noteworthy feature of dynamic assessment application is in order to integrate assessment and instruction in which it is not present in SA (Poehner, 2008, p.3). Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002, p. IX, as cited in Poehner, 2008) argue that DA offers a theoretically motivated method to the unification of assessment and instruction, something of great importance to learners. Considering this, DA procedures are crucial to teachers and students and this importance is because of providing not only scores or grades but insights into the individual's abilities which are the causes of poor performance and specific techniques for supporting development.

C. Mediation in DA

As stated above, the idea of intervention or mediation during the course of assessment significantly differentiates dynamic assessment from the so-called traditional or static assessment. Mediation, argued by Haywood and Lidz (2007, p.42), is the method applied by good teachers and parents when they promote high levels of mental functioning in their children and learners. The mediation period displays Vygotsky's ideas about instruction within the zone of proximal development, guiding the assessor in building instructional decisions by analyzing the student, the text, and the type and amount of mediation he/she needs to provide (Vygotsky, as cited in Mardani & Tavakoli, 2011).

Mediation is an inseparable component of DA procedures and the individual who provides mediation is referred to as the mediator. Vygotsky refers to the mediator as someone who provides “adult guidance” or a “more capable peer”. A mediator investigates, questions and provides hints to help a learner do a task that is within his/her ZPD, but which he/she cannot complete alone (Poehner, 2008).

The mediation process can be provided for the learners in several methods. According to Lantolf and Poehner (2004a) there are two primary approaches to DA, **Interactionist** and **Interventionist** that usually involve three stages: pre-test, mediation, and then post-test. The difference between these two approaches depends to the way the mediation occurs during the course of assessment.

1. Interactionist DA

Interactionist DA as Poehner (2008, p.18) states is rooted in Vygotsky's ZPD where assistance is derived from the interaction between the assessor and the examinee, in relation to the learners ZPD. It focuses on the development of an individual learner or a group of learners, regardless of the effort required and without concern for a predetermined endpoint (Lantolf and Poehner, 2004a). Lantolf and Poehner (2011) argue that in Interactionist DA there is no restriction on mediation and the mediator do whatever possible to aid the learner to go beyond his/her present performance. During interactionist DA leading questions, hints or prompts are not planned in advance; instead, they

come from mediated dialogue (or collaborative interaction) between the examiner and the examinee in which the examiner responds to the examinee's needs and continually changes his/her mediation.

2. Interventionist DA

In interventionist approaches, the tasks and materials are prepared with the objective of predicting the examinee's problems in which will encounter during the course of the assessment. In this approach, mediation is arranged as hints, prompts, and leading questions from implicit to explicit. The mediator follows the hints exactly and moves from hint to hint and the learner chooses the answer he/she thinks is the accurate one (Lantolf and Poehner, 2011). The mediation here can be stated as a standardized one, meaning that the mediation hints are pre-planned to the learners, therefore, all the learners receive the same kind of mediation. Two subcategories make the Interventionist DA: the “sandwich” and the “cake” formats (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002, pp. 27-28). In the sandwich format, the instruction is given all at once between the pre-test and the post-test, whereas in the cake format, the instruction is given in graded layers after each test item, as needed. The key difference between the sandwich format DA and the cake format DA is that instruction and assessment are separate in the former while combined in the latter. (Wang, 2010)

D. Empirical Studies of DA in L2 Context

The term dynamic assessment originated in research investigating children's abnormal behaviors and is currently predominantly applied in areas such as learning disabilities or adults' language impairments. However, other practitioners have started to widen the use of dynamic assessment practices to language assessment and pedagogy (e.g., Ableeva 2010, Lantolf and Poehner 2004, Poehner 2005, 2007, 2008, Poehner and Lantolf, 2005). A body of works on DA in the field of Language Learning is presented in this part.

Kozulin and Grab (2002) applied DA in an EFL area to explore the feasibility of the development of DA procedure. They administered a pre-test, mediated learning phase, and a post-test to a group of 23 academically at-risk students who didn't pass the high school English exam. The results of the research indicate that the procedure is both feasible and effective in obtaining information on students' learning potential.

In an important work, Oskoz (2005) explores the possibility of applying dynamic assessment, which focuses on process rather than product, to synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC). The study draws on the work of Antón (2003, as cited in Oskoz, 2005), who examined students' performance in oral interaction following DA techniques and on Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994 cited in Oskoz 2005) five-level scale (based on the frequency and type of assistance provided to the learner). Antón (2003 cited in Oskoz 2005), while assessing learners for placement purposes, proved that this type of assessment is practical in the L2 classroom. The five proposed levels represented different development stages: from other-regulation—when learners trust the tutor's aid to notice and correct an error—(levels 1-3) to self-regulation—in which feedback is self-generated and automatic— (level 5), passing by partial regulation—when learners are able to correct an error with minimal or no obvious feedback— (level 4). The study has applied this 5-level scale to students' interaction in SCMC, and analysis of the data showed that it was possible to observe students' potential level of development in an online chat.

Applying DA on reading comprehension by Ajideh and Nourdad (2012) revealed a significant difference between dynamic and non-dynamic assessment with a statistically observable improvement in the reading comprehension scores of the group in which was assessed dynamically. Another study by Jafary, Nordin, and Mohajeri (2012) majorly concerned to investigate the impact of dynamic assessment on learners' syntactic knowledge of Iranian EFL learners. A pre-test, a mediated period, and a post-test were administered to the participants as the three important phases of the study. The analysis of the pre-test and post-test indicated a significant difference between the experimental and control groups, proving that dynamic assessment outperformed in improving syntactic knowledge of the learners.

Nasiri and Khorshidi (2015) explored the effect of dynamic assessment of formulaic sequences in Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. The analysis of the obtained data of their study revealed statistically significant differences between the performances of the participants, who received mediated treatments. They proved that dynamic assessment could improve EFL learners' FSs production in their writing skill. The results of the investigation of the effect of dynamic assessment on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of English tenses by Abbasi and Fatemi (2015) discovered that the learners in the dynamic group did better than the other group as well as they got a positive attitude toward learning through application of DA. Malmeer and Zoghi (2014) also found significant effect of applying an interactionist model of DA on Iranian EFL adult and teenage learners' grammar performance. Later researchers also investigated the impact of using dynamic assessment on elementary EFL students' grammar learning (Sharifi and Sardareh, 2016). The results of their study proved the usefulness of applying dynamic assessment for grammar learning.

A review of literature shows the importance of using DA to the field of Language learning and bringing improvement to EFL learners' knowledge. Therefore, the present study set out to explore the effect of Dynamic Assessment on Grammar Achievement of Third Grade Secondary School EFL Learners. The main goal of the study is to find whether DA procedures enhance EFL learners Grammar achievement or not. The study is investigating this goal through addressing the following research questions:

1. Does Dynamic Assessment have any effect on the Grammar Achievement of Iranian Third Grade Secondary School EFL Learners?
2. Does the effect of Dynamic Assessment on Grammar Achievement of Iranian Third Grade Secondary School EFL Learners differ between male and female students?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study included both male and female students. The total number of subjects participating in this study was 86 Third Grade Secondary School EFL Learners in Piranshahr. The male and female groups participated in the study as completely separate groups. 43 male students and 43 female students were the subjects of the study. For the selection of the groups of the students for this study, a male school and a female school (schools are segregated in Iran) were randomly selected from all schools of Piranshahr. Then two male classes of Third Grade Secondary School EFL Learners (the researchers was the English teacher of all male and female groups) were selected and also this process took place for the selection of two female classes. The placements of the students in these classes were not altered and remained intact as the placement done by the principals of the schools at the beginning of the education year. The placement procedure of the students in these classes as implemented by the principals of both schools was based on students' grade point average (GPA) for the preceding year. In this method, every classroom is assigned an equal share of the number of students with different GPA to keep the idea of homogeneity in all classes.

To illustrate whether the groups are homogeneous or not, the teacher made test was administered as a t-test to all groups. The results of the t-test proved the homogeneity of the groups, the two male groups were homogeneous and also the two female groups had homogeneity. Table1 and Table2 present the results of t-test administration. After proving the homogeneity of classes the researchers assigned the classes randomly, to an Experimental Male Group (21students), a Control Male Group (22 students) and also an Experimental Female Group (23 students) and a Control Female Group (20 students).

TABLE 1.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST (PRE-TEST) FOR MALE GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Male Pre-test	2.120	.153	.449	41	.656	.30087	.66997	-1.05216	1.65389
			.446	37.765	.658	.30087	.67391	-1.06368	1.66541

The table represents that the significance level of Levene's test is larger than .05. In fact, the amount of p-value is $.0656 > .05$. It can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups and we can be on the safe side to claim the homogeneity of groups prior to the mediation. Therefore, the researchers was assured that there was no significant difference regarding grammar achievement between the two groups prior to the treatment. So it can be claimed that the two male groups were almost homogeneous in terms of grammar achievement.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST (PRE-TEST) FOR FEMALE GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Female pre-test	2.595	.115	1.059	41	.296	.60000	.56658	-.54424	1.74424
			1.041	35.713	.305	.60000	.57664	-.56982	1.76982

As depicted from the table2, the significance level of Levene's test is larger than .05, the amount of p-value is $.296 > .05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups and we can be on the safe side to claim the homogeneity of groups prior to the mediation and the homogeneity of the groups is assured.

B. Instruments

The instruments used in this study included the teacher made grammar test (TMG) (used both as the pre-test and post-test), and six mediation multiple choice tests. Firstly, the TMG was used to determine the homogeneity of the groups of participants. Secondly, it was used as pre-test and post-test to compare the students before and after the study (before and after the mediation period). This pre-test was a 25 multiple choice grammar test taken mostly from the previous final exams of high school 3rd grade. The test was subjected to 4 experienced EFL teachers' judgments to review them before pretesting (piloting). The test was piloted to a group of 26 EFL learners. Having considered formal

psychometric analysis — item analysis — the most effective way to increase reliability, the researchers computed item difficulty and item discrimination indices. Item analysis was run on this test and the results showed that seven items were malfunctioning; therefore, these items were deleted (table 3 shows table of specifications after deleting non-acceptable items).

1. Reliability and validity

The reliability of the TMG test was estimated through Cronbach's alpha, which turned out to be quite satisfactory (0.826). In order to investigate the validity of the test, the researchers asked for the judgment of 10 experienced EFL teachers teaching the above-mentioned English textbook. They were required to rate the test as very good, good, medium, and weak. Eight of 10 them rated the test as Very Good and only two teachers rated it as Good. Meanwhile, as this pre-test was taken mostly from the previous final exams of high school 3rd grade, it was recognizable enough to credit as it was a test of nation-wide scope.

TABLE 3.
TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE TMG TEST AFTER DELETING NON-ACCEPTABLE ITEMS

<i>Contents</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>
• Possessive Forms	1
• Objective Pronouns	3
• Quantity Expressions	2
• Verb forms	
1. Simple Past	4
2. Past Continues	2
3. Future (will)	3
• May for permission	1
• Can for ability	1
• Should for obligation	1
Total	18

The researchers of the study also prepared six mediated multiple choice grammar tests for this study. The content of these tests was completely chosen from students' text book. Each test contained 10 items. These tests were used during the mediation period of the study. The researchers used them as exercises and the scores of these tests were not gathered for the study. The experimental group took one test each session (for six sessions) with the help and mediation from the researchers.

C. Procedure

After test preparation, random selection of classes, and proving the homogeneity of all groups the researchers assigned the classes to an experimental and a control group of both the male and female students. Then there were two experimental groups (a male and a female) and two control groups (a male and a female). The male and female groups are completely separated and there is no relation among them.

There were three phases during test administration. First, the pre-test of grammar (TMG test) was administered to all the groups at the beginning of the process. The second was the mediation phase, which took 6 weeks, every week a mediated test was administered to the experimental groups. The interventionist type of mediation was used in this phase. Based on Lantolf and Poehner (2011) in interventionist approaches, the tasks and materials are prepared with the goal of predicting the examinee's problems in which will encounter during the course of the assessment. In this approach, mediation is arranged as hints, prompts, and leading questions from implicit to explicit (the hints were given in Persian, the official language in Iranian schools). The students in experimental groups took a 10-item test in which these items were accompanied by the teachers' prepared help or mediation. Group mediation was given to the students by the researchers due to the lack of time. The way the researchers helped the participants was to give some prepared points orally following the **cake format** of interventionist DA. In the cake format, the instruction is given in graded layers after each test item, as prepared by the researchers (Sternberg and Grigorenko2002). The hints that the researchers prepared before were what he had decided would be students' problems during the test. Every question was followed by three mediated hints as supposed by the teacher to target the students' needs during the mediation in approaching the correct answer. The hints were not written on students' papers but orally presented and discussed by the assessor to guide the subjects of the research. For the control group, there was no mediation period and they did not take the mediated tests.

In the third step, the post-test (i.e., the same pre-test) was administered to all the experimental and control groups to explore any differences between the experimental and control groups after treatment. As this test was developed in the form of multiple-choice type, the scoring scheme of the test was objective. The test included 18 multiple choice grammar items (each item including a stem and four choices). Every correct response was assigned a score of 1; therefore, the total (or possible highest) score of a participant on the test would be 18. The participants' mean scores on the posttest were obtained in all the experimental and control groups and comparisons between the groups were performed appropriate statistical procedures describes below.

D. Data Analysis

The data collected through the teacher made grammar test (i.e. pre-test and post-test) were analyzed using the statistical software SPSS. First, the pilot study for teacher made grammar test (multiple-choice grammar pre-test/ post-test) was carried. Then, descriptive statistics (table 4), including minimum, maximum, mode, median, mean, standard deviation, and variance were calculated. For inferential statistics, an independent samples t-test was employed. Through the application of the t-test, the mean scores of the subjects in the experimental groups were compared with the mean scores of the subjects in the control groups (both male and female groups). This was done to show any significant difference between experimental and control groups' grammar achievement. To investigate the second research question, the researchers compared the post-test mean scores of both female and male experimental groups to show whether there is any difference between male and female learners grammar achievement after implementing DA.

TABLE4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	Male Pre-test		Male Post-test		Female Pre-test		Female Post-test	
	Exp.	Control	Exp.	Control	Exp.	Control	Exp.	Control
Valid N	21	22	21	22	23	20	23	20
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	9.6190	9.3182	11.6667	9.0909	10.0000	9.4000	12.8261	9.8000
Median	9.0000	9.5000	12.0000	9.0000	10.0000	9.0000	12.0000	10.0000
Mode	8.00	9.00 ^a	12.00	8.00 ^a	10.00	8.00	12.00 ^a	10.00 ^a
Std. Deviation	2.45919	1.91203	2.86938	1.63034	1.62369	2.08756	1.58551	1.76516
Variance	6.048	3.656	8.233	2.658	2.636	4.358	2.514	3.116
Minimum	6.00	5.00	8.00	6.00	7.00	6.00	10.00	6.00
Maximum	14.00	12.00	19.00	12.00	14.00	13.00	16.00	12.00
Sum	202.00	205.00	245.00	200.00	230.00	188.00	295.00	196.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

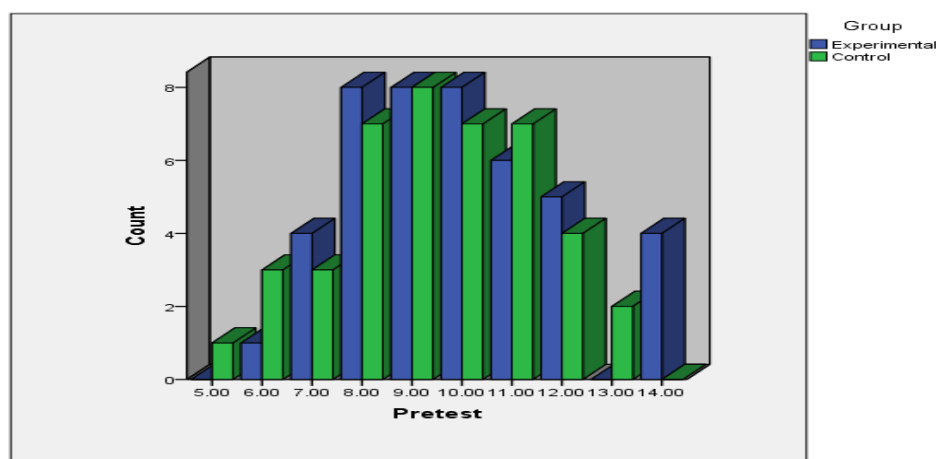


Figure1. Bar graph for the participants' performance on Pre-test

E. Results of the Analyses

The results of the study are presented in two sections. To answer the first research question, independent samples t-test analyses for both male and female groups are presented separately. Then, to investigate the second research question, the independent sample t-test analyses for two experimental groups (male and female) are conducted.

1. Independent-samples T-test results for post-test means

1.1. T-test results for male groups on post-test

To examine the data further, group statistics and t-test is utilized. Independent samples t-test is used to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control male groups post-test. In simple terms, the t-test compares the actual difference between two means in relation to the variation in the data. Here, the difference in the post-test of male participants in the experimental and control groups are compared.

TABLE5.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR MALE GROUPS POST-TEST

	M Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male post-test	Experimental Male	21	11.6667	2.86938	.62615
	Control Male	22	9.0909	1.63034	.34759

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR MALE GROUPS POST-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Male post-test	Equal variances assumed	2.298	.144	3.641	41	.001	2.57576	.70747	1.14698	4.00453
	Equal variances not assumed			3.597	31.387	.001	2.57576	.71616	1.11587	4.03564

Considering table6, the computed amount of t is 3.641 also the significance level of Levene's test (.001<.05). This shows that there is an important difference between experimental and control male groups post-test mean scores. Also based on table6, the results of the t-test showed that the experimental male group outperformed the control male group in the post-test. Therefore, we conclude that Dynamic Assessment improved male students' grammar achievement.

1.2. T-test results for female groups on post-test

To see if there was any significant difference between the mean scores of experimental and control female groups on post-test administration, an independent samples t-test was run. Considering table 8, the computed amount of t is 5.923 also the significance level of Levene's test (.0000<.05). This shows that there is a significant difference between experimental and control female groups post-test mean scores. Also based on table 8, the results of the t-test showed that the experimental female group outperformed the control female group in the post-test. Therefore, we conclude that Dynamic Assessment improved female students' grammar achievement.

TABLE7.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR FEMALE GROUPS POST-TEST

	F Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Female post-test	Experimental F	23	12.8261	1.58551	.33060
	Control F	20	9.8000	1.76516	.39470

TABLE8.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR FEMALE GROUPS POST-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	D f	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Female post-test	Equal variances assumed	.048	.828	5.923	41	.000	3.02609	.51095	1.99421	4.05796
	Equal variances not assumed			5.877	38.602	.000	3.02609	.51487	1.98433	4.06784

2. Post-Test Mean Scores of Female and Male Experimental Groups

In order to investigate if DA differs between male and female EFL learners' grammar achievement, an independent samples t-test was applied to both experimental groups. Table 10 shows that the computed t value and the significance level of Levene's test (.0000<.05) show that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental male and female. From the results, it can be concluded that Dynamic Assessment improves both female and male students' grammar achievement.

TABLE9.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL FEMALE AND MALE GROUPS POST-TEST

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test	Male	21	11.6667	2.86938	.62615
	Female	23	12.8261	1.58551	.33060

TABLE10.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL FEMALE AND MALE GROUPS POST-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	3.547	.067	-1.679	42	.101	-1.15942	.69073	-2.55338	.23454
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.637	30.547	.112	-1.15942	.70807	-2.60440	.28556

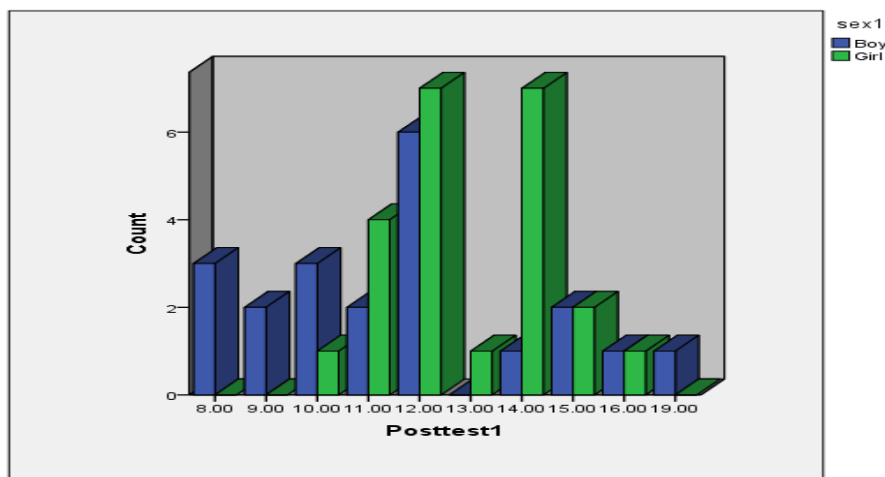


Figure 2. Bar graph for the male and female participants' performance on the posttest within the experimental group.

IV. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was first to explore the possibility of the development of DA on Iranian EFL learners, grammar achievement and it also explored whether DA improves both male and female EFL learners' grammar achievement in Iran or not. Two completely separate groups of male and female EFL learners participated in the study. A comparison of the mean score of experimental male group displayed that the mean score of the experimental male group had an increase of 2.05 score in post-test while the control male group had a decrease of -0.5. Also, the comparison of the mean score of the experimental female group showed that the mean score of the experimental female group had an increase of 2.82 scores in post-test while the control female group had only an increase of 0.4 scores. These analyses showed that both female and male learners in the experimental groups performed better in comparison with the learners in the control groups.

To explore the second research question which investigates if DA affects both male and female groups in the same direction or not, the experimental groups' mean scores proved that both experimental groups positively improved in the post-test. In addition, the implication of independent samples t-test to two experimental groups, the computed t value, and the significance level of Levene's test ($.0000 < .05$), showed that there is no significant difference between experimental male and female samples t-test (post-test) scores. Therefore, the implementation of DA to both male and female EFL learners' grammar achievement had a positive effect and results significantly in their development.

Another important finding of the study was that dynamic assessment groups and non-dynamic assessment ones from pre-test to post-test performed significantly. The results proved that all groups except control male group positively improved during the study, but the changes for experimental groups were outstanding. The comparisons of pre-test and post-test scores showed significant changes just for DA groups. These results illustrate the effectiveness of implementing DA to learners' grammar achievement. Comparing the findings of this study and other similar studies, it is concluded that findings of the present study confirm other studies as indicating that DA is an effective approach to language learning, especially in this research the grammar knowledge of students.

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to explore the effect of implementing dynamic assessment on grammar achievement of Iranian Third Grade Secondary School EFL learners. The study proved that there is a significant difference between the improvement of experimental and control groups of both male and female learners. The study administered a pre and post-test (they were the same) to the participants to show the change after a period of six mediated sessions. The mediation presented to the learners followed Sternberg and Grigorenko's (2002) cake format of interventionist approach to DA. In the interventionist cake format, the instruction, help, is given to the learners in graded layers after each test item.

To determine this implementation, the results of the groups' pre-test were compared with the results of their performance at the post-test. Application of t-test to the groups showed that there is a significant increase in the performance of male and female learners in experimental groups; this means that learners in experimental groups outperformed learners in control groups. The results indicate that DA procedure improves EFL learners' grammar achievement. The study answers two research questions; first, it proved that implementing dynamic assessment procedure significantly improves EFL learners' grammar knowledge in comparison to the so called non-dynamic (static) assessment. The study also proved that implementing dynamic assessment procedure to both male and female learners had a positive effect and improves their grammar knowledge.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Lidz and Gindis (2003) believe that DA is an approach to understanding individual differences and their implications for instruction, focusing on intervention within the assessment procedure. The major concern of the present study has been to implement dynamic assessment in the EFL classroom settings. Therefore, the findings of the study can carry some useful pedagogical implications.

Negotiated interactions in the L2 learning context can help the EFL learners solve their problems and perform better. DA was presented within the context of a pedagogical task, rather than during the administration of a formal test. This has direct implications for the EFL classroom activities, where the teacher's assessment of the learners' achievement rate often leaves them with ample problems. The study findings imply that DA principles can make EFL classroom assessment practices more effective by providing assistance to the learners in line with their needs.

Teachers, for instance, can help EFL learners to improve their grammar achievement by mediating them during the exam. Therefore, they let the learners find out their problems with these mediations and to find the best ways to reach the answers. This also helps the learners to benefit more from dynamic assessment sessions to improve their grammatical knowledge than the static assessment ones.

Additionally, using dynamic assessment can help EFL learners to feel more relaxed and comfortable during the exam session. In contrast to static assessment which puts enormous pressure and stress on the learners, dynamic assessment plays a scaffolding role during the assessment process, making the learners feel strong and assured thanks to the help and mediation provided by the EFL teacher/evaluator.

As for the EFL teacher, the study may imply that DA can help the teacher properly understand and analyze the learners' grammatical problems and difficulties; in other words, DA provides the teacher with a clearer idea of his or her students' learning. As a result, this will integrate assessment and instruction together, improving students' effective learning.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this study, the researchers only dealt with the grammar component of the target language, while further research is necessary to add more literature to the area of DA research. It is a valuable tool for those practitioners who really wish to fill the gap between teaching and testing, and link them together.

The researchers' suggestions to promote further research are summarized in the following directions:

- Replications of the present study would augment the body of literature and research on dynamic assessment in the context of an EFL classroom. This would help build up a growing body of literature relating to dynamic assessment issues in the area of grammar in particular.
- Replications of the present study with participants across other levels of education would help enrich the DA literature. This suggests that further research on a larger sample from different populations is advisable.
- This study investigated the grammar knowledge of students, while further research can open new avenues of research into other areas such as listening, writing, vocabulary acquisition and so forth.
- The present study focused on group dynamic assessment. To investigate individualized nature of DA would be another area for further research.

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A Study of Negative Language Transfer in College Students' Writing from Cultural Perspective

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Abstract—Language and culture are closely related with each other and they are inseparable. Language, as a vehicle of culture, is as well culture's manifestation. Transfer, as an important notion in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), states the situation of previously existing knowledge being extended and expanded to the gaining of new knowledge. Language transfer can be classified into positive, negative and zero transfer. As for the definition of positive transfer, it is the transfer that helps or facilitates language learning in another situation. Negative transfer is one that interferes with language learning in another situation. How to utilize the positive transfer and avoid negative transfer is of great significance in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT). Aiming to improve college students' English writing, the author tries to analyze the negative transfer from the cultural perspective. With the guidance of the theory of Language Transfer, the author carries out a research on the students' writing tasks. Based on the research, author has discovered the interference of their mother tongue in students' writings shown in idioms, cultural terms and conventions in expression. Therefore, the students are not free to use language to explain their arguments. The study also found these negative transfer are mostly generated by cultural difference. The sources of negative transfer include in the three aspects which are thinking mode, aesthetic perception and religious belief. Thus students should find some solutions and avoid negative transfer efficiently.

Index Terms—negative language transfer, culture, college students' writing

I. INTRODUCTION

With the economic development and globalization, the whole world is now called the global village. In the process of globalization, different cultures are blended together. What is more, culture blending has become a major trend in the development of today's world. In order to understand another nation's culture, we need to know its language first. The ultimate goal for foreign language learning is to communicate, especially to communicate interculturally. Owing to the huge difference among language, culture background and living habits, it is absolute for two people who are from distinct countries to make mistakes in understanding, or even get angry on some specific occasions. Thus for the sake of successful communication, the crucial point is to start to treat another nation's tradition and habits objectively after acquiring another culture and its thinking patterns carefully.

Despite the fact that English teaching in China has been developed prosperously and vigorously, it is still far from satisfactory, especially in terms of speaking and writing skills. Because of the intimate relationship between language and culture, Chinese English learners inevitably transfer its native traditions, values or thinking patterns into their English learning process. As a result, Chinese students are good at writing English compositions in English words but in Chinese thinking mode.

Therefore studying on this subject will be of great significance from both students' and teachers' aspect. Chinese English learners tend to write their compositions under the guidance of their native culture. Sometimes although there are few mistakes in their compositions, they still seem to be more or less odd when reading by native speakers. One of the main reasons is that the learners are not familiar with target culture, which will result in misunderstanding. Therefore, detecting the negative transfer of native culture and offering solutions will become an effective way to improve both our teachers' and the students' writing proficiency.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Basis

1. Language transfer

Within the field of applied linguistics, researchers and scholars are likely to define a term under their own steams. The definition of the term transfer is one among these terms. Odlin (2001) argued transfer is not simply a consequence

of habit formation. This discussion is quite different from the view of behaviorists (which will be explained in the following subchapter). They propose that language acquisition simply a “habit-formation” process. To put it simple, they see language acquisition as a process to overcome the “old habit,” and to form a “new habit.” “Transfer” is originally one of the basic terms appeared in the domain of psychology. Under the context of psychology, it states the situation of previously existing knowledge being extended and expanded to the process of gaining new knowledge, i.e. the influences that the process of acquiring and memorizing one thing occurred upon acquiring and memorizing of other things (Sajavaara, 1986). It is exactly this concept that forms the psychological basis for “language transfer.” Sharwood Smith as well as Eric Kellerman in 1986, for example, held that the term of transfer should be narrowed and restricted to the phenomenon which results in the incorporation of the same elements existing from a certain language into others.

2. *The concept of culture*

According to what Lado recorded in 1957 in his book *Linguistics across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language teachers*, maybe Kluckhohn and Kelly are those who illustrated this modern concept the best for they consider the term culture as all the created ones at any given time in history aiming for human beings to behave themselves decently under the guidance of those displayed either implicitly or explicitly, rationally, irrationally, or even non-rationally.

In 1959 Kluckhohn expressed in his book *Mirror for Man* that cultures are learned by individuals since different groups possess their own cultures; besides, culture contains those learned behaviors and performances shared among insiders. Contrary to biological inheritance, culture belongs to our social heritage which is a paramount element in making enormous amount of people to live harmoniously in organized societies, providing us with pre-existing solutions to consult to in terms of encountered problems, helping us to judge and even predict others’ intentions under their behaviors, and allowing others to tell our expectations.

3. *Contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH)*

In the 1940s and 1960s, the theory of language transfer was dominant in the research and teaching of L2 acquisition. Linguists regarded language transfer as the major obstacles of L2 acquisition and believed that the learners’ errors and difficulties could be predicted through the contrast of native and target languages. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), systematically comparing two languages, was most popular at that time. Being propelled by the possibility of distinguishing similarities and differences existing between the target language and the native language, Contemporary researchers are devoting themselves into generating a relatively more effective teaching method. Many researches still call for the need of contrasting the native language and the target language, such as Eckman (1977), James (1980) and Ellis (1994).

4. *Error analysis (EA)*

Error Analysis (EA) is the analytical method aiming to analyze errors made by those learners who attempt to acquisition a second or foreign language. Based on what Richards (2000) said, error analysis is employed so as to check to what extent a person knows about a language, the way a person used in his or her learning language processes, and find out learners’ common difficulties revealed in their language learning courses in order to better optimize teachers’ teaching methods and teaching organization. EA became the acceptable alternative to CAH by the late 1960s and got rapid development in the 1970s.

5. *Interlanguage*

The credibility of Error Analysis has been damaged seriously in the 1970s because of its obvious drawbacks. With the exploration of new theories, the emphasis of SLA is placed not on the relationship between L1 and L2 but on the learner language. Learner language can provide the researcher with insights into the process of acquisition. For many researchers, although not all, learner language constitutes the most important source of information about how learners learn L2, and hence, the term interlanguage is first used by the American linguist Selinker (1972).

B. *Recent Studies of Negative Transfer in College Students Writings*

Negative transfer from the linguistic aspect can be divided into four types: lexical negative transfer, semantic negative transfer, syntactic negative transfer and Chinglish expression. In the following subchapters, the present writer intends to analyze the errors caused by negative transfer from the four different angles.

1. *Negative transfer in lexis*

English has a developed pronoun system, comprising personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, relative pronouns and indefinite pronouns (Zhang, 1997). Most English sentences are composed of subject and predicate, and the latter is more important which decides sentence patterns. Additionally, predicates are indispensable in English and are composed of verbs.

2. *Negative transfer in syntax*

English and Chinese belong to different language families, so they differ widely in grammatical systems. The rules of grammar, which are used for ordering and connecting words, are called syntax. Nowadays people have already widely believed that to realize effective communication, sentences are key linguistic unit and they can be infinite in numbers among every language. Transfer at the level of syntax is mainly attributed to the syntactic differences and partially to the semantic differences between the native language and the target language. The word order of a certain element is determined by three factors: grammatical factor, rhetorical factor and idiomatic factor. Most English sentences are composed of subject and predicate, and the latter is more important which decides sentence patterns.

3. *Negative transfer in discourse*

A text is a complete linguistic unit to discuss a topic. The term “discourse” is also used by some linguists to refer to this unit who state a text should meet seven standards of textuality, namely, cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and inter-textuality. Halliday divides cohesion into five types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion (Liu, 1999).

4. *Chinglish Expression*

Ge (1984) is the first scholar who proposes the terms “Chinglish” and “China English” in his essay *On Chinese to English Translation*. Since Ge, many scholars have also illustrated their points of view. Yang (2000) and many other scholars think the existence of Chinglish is objective, and is an unavoidable language phenomenon. They also point out Chinglish is a typical example which, in a way, manifests the influence of Chinese into learning English as some sentences are translated into English following word to word order. Because of the interference and influence of their mother tongue, Chinglish comes into being when Chinese draw upon Chinese rules and structures unconsciously into English language. Common errors of Chinglish are generally divided into four levels which touch on pragmatics, lexicology, syntactics and pronunciation.

It is well known that different cultures have their own vocabularies, forms as well as ways of thinking, which can be easily seen from a native people’s writing. Based on the above literature review, the study is intended to make a further investigation on Chinese negative transfer in college students’ writings from the perspective of culture.

III. NEGATIVE TRANSFER OF DIFFERENT CULTURE IN STUDENTS’ WRITINGS

It is well known that different cultural signs like words and expressions, sentence patterns and ways of thinking can be easily observed in writing products of foreign language learners. In this chapter the author is going to detect the errors in their writings from the narrow sense of culture, which includes idioms, cultural terms and expressions. As the author explained at the very beginning of this chapter, the study is conducted from both linguistic and cultural perspectives, it is also reasonable to say that the study is carried out according to the understanding of the concept of culture, from narrow and broad sense respectively. Therefore, in this chapter the main task for the author is to detect the negative transfer under the perspective of narrow sense of culture, that is, idioms, cultural terms and conventions in expression.

A. *Negative Transfer in Idioms*

Culture can be regarded as a system and collection of shared values, performances and handmade crafts that members of a community employed to get along with others and to deal with their daily lives since languages are inseparable with their cultures and every nation has its unique culture, it is necessary for students to learn the target culture before learning its language. Languages of different nations varied in the light of the meaning of word, not just at the level of denotation but connotation as well. The definition of denotation comes down to what dictionary writes; to be more simply, it usually indicates the literal meaning of words. When we look up a word, for example “desk”, in a dictionary, we would find that the denotative meaning of it is defined as “a piece of furniture that is like a table and often has drawers.” Connotation directs at associative meanings or affective imaginations of the word. For a word, its denotative meanings coexist with its connotative meanings. Here are some examples in students’ compositions.

- a. China will become a flying dragon in the near future.
- b. When I was in high school, I felt like a *dog*.
- c. Individualism is not allowed in class, because it is bad for the creation for a harmonious atmosphere.

There are three typical examples about the misunderstanding of the connotation of English words. Dragon is a kind of creature which usually represented as breathing fire and Master’s Thesis “dog” is always seen as a positive word. The third example is about the understanding of the word “individualism”. Because of the social background and historical development, Chinese students always think the negative influence of “individualism”, as a result the word negative one. But in English, the words stand for their values and human nature, it is a neutral word. Apparently, this sentence is going extreme in meanings.

Idioms, having gone through a quite long period in history, can best represent the similarities and differences between two nations. Although they are not as important as other language elements in forming the main part of a unique language, it is still irreplaceable. The connotations of idioms in different languages are not the same, even widely divergent. Chinese students try to translate Chinese idioms into English while writing, sometimes they could achieve their goal, but in most times, they made stupid mistakes.

- a. When I walk by the side of the river, I found an old man sitting there. I come to the front and say hello, only to find that he is a professor in my university who I admire the most. It is when the Tai mountain is in front of you, but I could not recognize it.
- b. My English teacher always says, don’t display ax before Luban.

B. *Negative Transfer in English Terms and Expressions*

The subcategory of English terms can be detected from many aspects, such as science & technique terms, political terms, religious terms, linguistic terms, legal terms, trade terms and so forth. In some cases, Chinese and English terms can be translated to each other, while some others are unable to be translated without losing part of the meanings.

Chinese students ought to pay more attention to use English terms and expressions in case of committing errors. The last thing for them to do is creating words or phrases according to Chinese language habits. Here are some examples about wrong use of terms and expressions:

- a. "This caricature writing needs to be finished before noon", My teacher said.
- b. If a student just learn some knowledge and make an achievement in his field, he may not succeed in his work, because he has not the moralities like cooperation.

The two are the examples of terms which can be analyzed one by one. The italic part of the first sentence should be corrected like "cartoon writing" although it is passable in meaning. The word "cooperation" is inappropriate in second sentence, which could be replaced by "cooperative consciousness".

IV. SOURCES OF NEGATIVE TRANSFER FROM CULTURAL ASPECT

In the previous subchapter, the author has analyzed the writings from cultural aspect. However, the job has not finished, yet the most important thing is to trace the sources of negative transfers, which is the main task of this chapter.

A. *Thinking Mode*

Values are evaluative components of our belief and attitude systems. Evaluative qualities include usefulness, goodness, aesthetics, ability to satisfy needs, and ability to produce pleasure. Values are broad, abstract concepts which provide the foundation of a person's living style, and they are reflected in many aspects. Values accepted and performed in a society generally act as norms in help its members to tell what is good and what is bad, what is beauty and what is ugliness, what is right and what is wrong, and finally what is true and what is false. Value ranges narrowly from community to community and widely from country to country, resulting in easily getting it wrong under international communicative situations, especially between western and eastern countries.

As for Chinese and English values, there is no good or bad, right or wrong, the difference of the two mostly lies in the thinking mode. Having experiencing a long superstitious period in history and being controlled by the Confucianism, Chinese people from now are still worship the authority and emphasize the self-control. Unlike the Chinese way, western people stress the individualism as well as pursue the freedom. Meanwhile, many other differences of Chinese and western thinking mode can be detected here for the purpose of clarifying the reason of the negative transfer clarifying the reason of the negative transfer.

In ancient times, Chinese trusted in the viewpoint of unity between human beings and the nature while western people held the opinion of multiformity. These different outlooks of the world lay the foundation of two different thinking patterns between westerners and easterners: Chinese people form their thinking patterns of Entirety and Synthesis; on the contrary, the westerners used to think logically and rationally. In other words, the Chinese formed their way of thinking from big to small or from whole to part, and ultimately reach a balance state, and the Chinese stresses the idea of "Parataxis" in discourse construction. The connection in the discourse is not so closely as in the English. But the westerners consider the thing from a part to the whole, and the analytic and linear way is the feature of western thinking pattern. Owing to the difference between Chinese and English thinking mode, it is unquestionable that Chinese students are always interfered by their mother tongue in organizing the structure of a passage.

Take a paragraph for example.

As far as I'm concerned, to solve this problem is very important. From the parents' aspect, they should realize that what the society needs is a perfect student, and the student should do well in every aspect, not just in study. The problem is serious, and both the parents and children should strive to solve this problem. So the parents should develop every aspect of their children and also encourage them to form a good habit which can enhance their living skills. If it does, I'm sure that the students will have a wonderful future and successful life.

Regardless of the grammar, the structure of this paragraph seems really odd. As a matter of fact, the aim of this paragraph is to provide effective ways to solve the problem; however, owing to the influence of the mother tongue, which is the spiral form in structure, the student failed to highlight the key points of this paragraph. In addition, the excessive use of the modal verb is another feature of Chinese students.

B. *Aesthetic Perception*

Although the nature of human beings and their sense mechanism work much the same in Chinese and westerners, the difference in their historical development, their life experience even their geographical location provide people of difference cultures with different insight into the world. The same is true in the case of the aesthetic views in the eyes of easterners and westerners. Actually, we can easily see a great deal of striking differences of aesthetic views between Confucianism and the western philosophers.

Compared to the Chinese, westerners are later discoverers and admirers of natural beauty. In addition, their relationship with nature used to be more of one of conflict, conquest and disharmony. In contrast, the Chinese were earlier perceivers of natural beauty, who placed a high value on getting close to nature, harmony with nature and the unity of man with nature. As far as aesthetic forms are concerned, westerners are satisfied with objective representation and description of nature and stop at formal similarity because they seem to prefer a distant, objective and passive look at nature so as to analyze and "dissect" it. On the other hand, the Chinese, being habitually introspective, are sensitive

static observers of nature and keen seekers of spiritual harmony with nature. As far as their art forms are concerned, the Chinese are better at subjective description and expression. As a result, the western perspective of natural beauty is more philosophical and rational and has a solid theoretical basis; on the other hand, the Chinese aesthetic theories are more empirical and practical and are fully expressed with greater detail.

Aesthetic ideas, for example arts for art's sake, revealed in western cultures, have never arisen in Confucianism. On the other hand, Confucianism believes in teaching as well as instrumental effects of art works, and upholds ethical and political impacts showed in aesthetic crafts.

And also Chinese people consider the Analects of Confucius, Poetry of Tang and Song Dynasties as beauties. Westerners, however, find them difficult to understand, needless to say, the appreciation. Therefore, under the influence of Chinese poetry, Chinese students prefer to use the simple paralleled sentences while writing, which sometimes are odd for native speakers.

For example, and everything will lead to a happy and harmonious society. And we will live a happy life forever. And our country will become more and more powerful.

Influenced by Chinese aesthetic perception, students prefer to put several simple sentences together in their compositions. They consider these sentences as parataxis sentences. The example above is a typical parataxis sentence if translated in Chinese. And the relations among the three sentences are progressiveness. However, it is odd and inappropriate for native speakers, let alone enhancing the aesthetic feelings of a whole passage.

C. Religious Belief

Religion, being a kind of national culture, implies the angles of different thoughts development. It is reflected into people's everyday life and accordingly leads to cultural diversities.

As is known to all, China is a multi-national country and there exists different religions among which, however, Buddhism is the most influential one on Chinese culture. After being brought into China, Buddhism had and has affected Chinese culture in every regard and deeply accelerated the flourishing of Chinese literature. Enormous phrases, expressions, and idioms dating back from Buddhism are the exact manifestations beyond its influence. When the author looked up the dictionary and find many Chinese idioms are associated with Buddhism. Based on an authentic calculation the total number of Chinese idioms related to Buddhism come up to over two hundred. Such as "xian shen shuo fa (现身说法)," in English it means "to make a personal example as an effective means of convincing others," "fang xia tu dao, li di cheng fo (放下屠刀, 立地成佛)" which refers to "A butcher turns into a Buddha at the time he or she drops his or her knife—the misguided people get salvation provided they stop evil acts." "jiu ren yi ming sheng zao qi ji fu tu (救人一命胜造七级浮屠)" which indicates "saving a human is superior than constructing a seven-storeyed pagoda." Some expressions in these idioms like "shen (身)", "fa (法)" "chu jia (出家)", "cheng fo (成佛)" come from certain ceremonies in Chinese Buddhism.

Moreover, most ordinary Chinese possess a belief that Heaven be the supreme organ of the authority. They have a strong feeling of dependence on the Heaven: everything is controlled and arranged by the Heaven. based upon this, the idioms "mou shi zai ren, cheng shi zai tian (谋事在人, 成事在天)" which means humans propose a plan but Heaven decides whether the plan would be successful or not, and "sheng si you ming, fu gui zai tian (生死由命, 富贵在天)" which implies a person's life as well as death are issued by the fate, and rank and riches ordered by Heaven, takes their shape.

In western countries most people are Christians; therefore they worship that the whole creatures on the earth were brought about by God; hence the entire world is settled and arranged under God's willpower. All kinds of Christian views were written in a book called Bible, inside which numerous idioms were recorded because people who trust in Christianity all read the Bible. Consequently, lots of idioms swarm into people's daily lives and emerged into their colloquial expressions and as time passing by, some gradually become mottoes, for example, "God helps those who help themselves."

Here is a famous saying excerpted from Bible, i.e. the Revelation in New Testament (1998) in chapter eleven which could draw a clear picture of their belief toward the God in western countries: "Hallelujah! For the Lord our God the Almighty reigns. The kingdom of the world has become the kingdom of our Lord and of his Messiah, and he will reign forever and ever". Just as what the word Heaven in our Chinese culture denotes, everyone in western knows so much about the meaning of the word God that they use the word frequently in their casual conversation, for example, they would say "Oh, my God", "Thank God", "God bless me", for the reason that westerners think God stands for good and he is able to help them when they get into a jam.

In students' compositions many errors were made because of the difference of religion. Such as:

c. It is the Heaven who masters the fate.(the God)

From the examples, we can see, Chinese students are very much inclined to make mistakes while writing because of the different religious beliefs. Being innocent to the target culture's religion they will misunderstand the superficial sense of a passage or even go to wrong directions in grasping the original meaning of a sentence. Therefore, the impartation of knowledge in this area is of crucial importance.

V. HOW TO AVOID NEGATIVE TRANSFER IN WRITINGS

In this chapter the main efforts will be on the introduction of a new effective teaching mode which could help the students a lot in avoiding most of negative transfers efficiently.

As discussed previously, culture should be introduced in class. However, as to new teaching mode, which suits the development of today's society, the introduction of culture is insufficient. There should be other relative factors such as focusing on the students and teaching grammar in class. According to the author's experience, many college English teachers attach less importance to the students. They form the way of teaching as teachers' monologue. Many factors such as course arrangement or the plan of textbooks induced this phenomenon. Students should take the priority in class regardless the limits of time or unreasonableness of textbooks. Teachers should encourage their students to be active in class and to talk with foreigners bravely.

A. *From the Teachers' Role*

This research will help a lot from both the teachers' and students' aspects and it enables the teacher to find a rather efficient way to teach how to write clearly and natively. As a result, the following subchapters are the duties which teachers should do in a successful writing teaching class.

1) Making contrastive analyses

All of us know that most negative transfers in Chinese students' writings are due to the culture differences. Therefore, it is extremely important for English teachers to analyze the differences between native and target language in FLT class. First, they should make a careful study on the differences between English and Chinese, including language itself and culture. Then based on the study, teachers should add intercultural information in class to help the students think in a native way. The more they know the differences, the better they understand the language. Gradually, the students form the habits of thinking in a more native way which will reflect in their language skills, writing in particular. At last, Students will find their interest in English learning process, and become an active learner.

2) Creating western culture atmosphere

Creating a suitable atmosphere for students is also important. Teachers are obliged to create as authentic western culture atmosphere as possible for the aim of making students plunge into classroom situations and learn to first off speak and then utilize English within various contexts. In terms of creating a proper and successful cultural environment, teachers are advised to speak English before, during and after English classes, screen clips of films or conducting English role-plays. These are efficient teaching methods in helping students become interest and even boost their target language abilities, particularly those cultural ones. English teachers could instruct students to imitate movie clips or daily monologues and act them out before the class, like greetings, asking for directions, making reservations through cell phones. Amid the courses of involving in these activities, students experience different cultural appeals; therefore there is no doubt at all that their understanding in target language rose day after day.

3) Utilizing the movies

As we all know, movies are always rich in language use and cultural background. Students have a strong tendency to memorize the characters, the plot and even words in the movie. From the movie students can learn how those people communicate in real life and they begin to imitate. Therefore, if teachers can make good and proper use of movies in class, the language proficiency of their students will be enhanced unconsciously. Nowadays, foreign movies or TV series are easily available, the utilization of them seems quite important.

B. *From the Students' Role*

In the last subchapter the author has explained the pedagogical implications from teachers' role only, and we know that teachers play an important role in writing teaching process. Nevertheless, we should not forget another crucial factor in writing, i.e. the role of students.

1) The accumulation of vocabulary

It is a truth that the biggest obstacle in writing is the weak basis of vocabulary, thus solidifying the basis is of capital importance. One can choose words properly in a certain context if he has a solid word foundation. However, in addition to the quantity of acquired vocabulary, here comes another problem. Chinese EFL learners are incline to pay attention to equivalent words and expressions between Chinese and English, leading to their translation works characterizing words to words. Based on this, it is worthwhile for Chinese ESL learners transforming their behaviors of mastering English words and phrases, i.e. the core of students' focus on vocabulary ought to be extended to concentrate not only on those meanings presented in their textbook glossary but also enlarging words' meanings from their basic meaning to various derived senses showed in certain contexts. On this ground, learners should put English words into specific language environment, to simply state, into a sentence, a paragraph or a scene.

2) The cultivation of language sense

The most important way of cultivating students' language sense is reading widely. Reading and writing are both language skills which assist mutually. In order to write coherently and logically, the students need to read an abundance of original works, from fictions to nonfictions, from serious works to children's books and from literature to philosophy. Teachers have the duty to recommend appropriate books to students and act as a supervisor for it is rather painful in the preliminary reading step. From a lot of reading, they can understand the target culture deeper and more specifically. Reading novels helps the students enter into another cultural atmosphere and get accustomed quickly. Though its gains cannot be seen in short period of time, it indeed helps them understand culture to a deep extent, and helps them

understand the target nation's concept of value and their beliefs and realize the cultural differences. Thus we are all clear that reading can be a means to cultivate language sense, but still are there other ways, like watching foreign movies, scanning the foreign websites or listening to BBC or VOA.

3) The full use of initiatives

From the author's point a good writer is the one who makes full use of his initiatives, and grasps any chances to learn. Without doubt, teachers are perfect instructors in regard to teaching their home culture since they have immersed in and experienced their national cultural environment from the very time they born. Many students confirmed that it is easier for them to get aware of and have a deeper impression with British and American cultures in oral classes which are given by native language teachers than in classes delivered by Chinese English teachers. Students expressed that by communicating with their foreign language teachers front to front, they are capable of observing and perceiving cultural differences between Chinese culture and western culture, not to mention getting personal opinions on some cultural stuff, which are beneficial to their language learning.

As regard English acquisition in China, Chinese English teachers are believed to serve as a guider to guide students to switch their thinking model and follow what natives do concerning language learning. They can help students familiarize western cultures and avoid using Chinese thinking to speak and write English as much as possible so that we can become accustomed to western style of thinking and finally achieve a marvelous progress. Take this as an example, when an English teacher explains western festivals, which are parts of Western culture and therefore a little difficult to be understood for Chinese students, to his or her students, such as Thanks Giving Day, Halloween, and Hanukkah etc., his or her counseling would contribute students to understand them more quickly and on a much wider scale.

Cultural discussion is a good way to understand culture step by step. It is widely used in Western countries. For Chinese students, attending any kind of cultural discussion will help them a lot. Through such kind of discussion, they know more details about target nations. Of course, there are some other ways that are conducive to cultivate our socio-cultural abilities, as through cultural lectures, cultural excursions, or through English corners, etc. Such activities can give the students information on Western culture, helping them learn Western culture much better.

VI. CONCLUSION

Language and culture are closely related to each other. On the one hand, Language is the vehicle of culture as well as a means of communication. Lacking of languages makes it impossible to spread any kind of culture because language is the carrier of a country's values and culture. In contrast, languages become difficult to understand, nevertheless to acquire, if there does not exist a concrete cultural context to consult to. As a result, a deep study of the relationship between language and culture is not only necessary but also urgent in language teaching and learning. That is to say, teachers should teach English language as well as its culture in their classroom and most teachers do teach in this way. However, the result seems unpleasant since there is no effective way to integrate both language and culture in foreign language teaching, especially in English writing teaching.

In China, English writing is considered the most difficult skill to acquire, because both teachers and students are unable to find an effective way to enhance this kind of skill. But the importance of writing has never been underestimated during the learning or teaching process. Since English was introduced in China as a foreign language many researchers and linguists have endeavored themselves into this task, they try to find a possible way to improve students' learning proficiency. Cultural negative transfer is one common phenomenon in students' writings. Therefore, both teachers and students should take some measures to avoid such language negative transfer.

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Symbolism in Edgar Allan Poe's Selected Short Stories

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Abstract—In Edgar Allan Poe's short stories symbolism is the main figure of speech of his stories. The main aim of this study is recognizing the use of symbolism in "Hop – Frog" (1850), "The Pit and the Pendulum" (1842) and "The Cask of Amontillado" (1846), and decoding the symbols and various meanings they signify according to Herman Northrop Frye's theory. This paper tries to explore the way symbolism is used in Edgar Allan Poe's selected short stories, the writer's motives and amount of his success.

Index Terms—symbolism, symbol, stylistic devices, herman northrop frye, Hop – Frog, The Pit and the Pendulum, The Cask Of Amontillado

I. INTRODUCTION

Figures of speech are tools of creativity in everyday communications and the literature that is used to explain something different from ordinary usage. "The Collins English Dictionary (2006) defined figure of speech as 'an expression such as simile, in which words do not have their literal meaning, but are categorized as multi – word expressions that act in the text as units'" (As cited in Fadaee, 2011, p. 1). A language which uses figures of speech is called "figurative language" and according to Ghaffar Tajalli's "Idioms and Metaphorical Expressions in Translation" (2003) the aim of figurative language is to supply features of clarity, beauty and others in the language. It should be mentioned that figurative meaning brings vagueness that influences the simplicity or clarity of language. Metaphor, simile and the like are specific elements of figurative language that differentiate it from nonfigurative language.

Stylistic devices play an important role in literary works, especially in obtaining different meanings; but symbolism has a different value because it makes the story more rich in meaning for readers and help them relate themselves to the characters and plot. Symbolism is among stylistic devices, which has been used a lot in previous literary works, as the works of Chaucer and Shakespeare. Symbols are used to add beauty to work and decorate a work of art and in some cases for purposes such as political, social and cultural.

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (2005), symbolism is "The use of symbols to represent ideas, especially in art and literature" (p. 1556). Symbolism have always been present in human history and mankind seems to have been inclined transferring novel ideas and their thoughts through symbols and signs and depict their world in an abstract way. For example, ancient Egypt inhabitants consider the Ankh as a symbol of life and the Uraeus, a Cobra with a bright hood, the symbol of protection of underworld's doorways. Among literary devices which writers use to create other level of meaning, symbolism play a crucial role. As Djaafour Fouzia (2014) states "symbolism in literature evokes interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer's mind on how he views the world and how they think of common objects and actions, having broader implications" (p. 5). According to Nora Cherrat (2012), Karen Bernado interpreted symbolism as "An integral component of fiction because it enriches the narrative by pulling its message down to the level of our unconscious and anchoring there" (p. 15). Symbolism, as a school refers to three stages of an important part of the literary modernism's development: 1) to an artistic progress during the last decades and a half of the 19th century in France and Belgium, 2) to its actual sources in French poetry that began in the 1850s, and 3) and how the American and European literature was affected by the above stages in the 20th century. Symbolism came to existence in last years of the 19th century and it founded by Charles Baudelaire (1827- 67). Paul Verlaine (1844 – 96), Arthur Rimbaud (1854 – 91) and Stephan Mallarme (1842 – 98) are among the most famous figures in symbolism whose works were greatly influenced by Baudelaire and proceeded to create their own innovative styles which later served as primary sources of influences on other writers outside France.

Symbolism is so intertwined with modern arts which is an important part of a literary work. Maurice Maeterlinck, Richard Aldington, and Aldous Huxley are famous figures of this school. For example "A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man" by James Joyce, "La Princesse Maleine" (Princess Maleine) by Maurice Maeterlinck, "Le Spleen de Paris" (Parisian Dream) and "Le Voyage" (The Voyage) by Charles Baudelaire are among the most famous symbolic literature. In symbolic painting Paul Gauguin paintings are noticeable. According to Harschel B. Chipp (1984), Gauguin describes his self- portrait which ordered by Vincent as "I believe it is one of my best things: absolutely incomprehensible it is so abstract" (p. 67). As Emerging Infectious Diseases journal (2003) mentions Pablo Picasso as

one of the painters who used symbols in his works, believes "... The public who look at the picture must interpret the symbols as they understand them" (p. 760). In symbolic poems, symbols are emotional and mixed with music and picture; and poets aggraded the way for symbolic music by their symbolic poems. According to the early studies of famous German musicologist, who were interested in mime harmonic techniques, Claude Debussy, a French composer, is considered a famous symbolist.

J. E. Cirlot (1971) in the introduction of his dictionary *A Dictionary of Symbols* states that according to Paul Diel "the symbol is a vehicle at once universal and particular. Universal, since it transcends history; particular, because it relates to a definite period of history" (p. xvi).

Edgar Allan Poe, an American poet, author, literary critic and editor, was born January 19, 1809 in Boston and died October 7, 1849 in Baltimore. When Edgar was one, his father died and his mother died next year. And John Allan adapted Edgar after his mother death. Allan Poe is considered as one of the greatest American writers. He is best known for his mysterious tales and he is considered the inventor of a new genre, detection genre. Poe was alcoholic and this matter affects his writing. As his father and brother were alcoholic, maybe it was a genetic inclination to it. His mysterious and suspense stories are still read in the entire world. Poe's poems and tales' characters are distressed by unknown fears. Most of Poe's works are rich of symbols, because symbolism is the final tool for him to write and mention a lot of things without speaking directly. Studying Poe's biography shows that his tales and poems mirror the author's life.

To understand the relation between Poe's tales and his life one must know that, despite his enemies' belief, Poe was not a steady drinker. As Trent McDonald says in *Seeing Poe's Fight with Alcoholism through his Stories "The Black Cat" and "The Cask of Amontillado"*, "The truth is there were long periods when he was sober, often years, followed by short periods of terrible binges. During these binges ... poe would lose control and occasionally become fall-down drunk" (p. 12). He knew himself as an alcoholic person and tried to control his tendency. On November 1846, when he was in one of his abstemious period, he wrote "The Cask of Amontillado" in which the tone shows his condition. Poe was serious in his sobriety; so he attended the Sons of Temperance in Richmond VA. Although when Poe was writing "The Black Cat" he couldn't reduce his alcoholic tendencies, but in "The Cask of Amontillado" time it seems he found a way. When looking carefully at Poe's tales and the difference between them, his various periods in life, which are related to his addiction, become identifiable. As Poe belongs to the romantic period, talking about the basic of this era is necessary. This period, named Romantic period, was from 1828 to 1865 in America. American literary Romanticism started with English Romantic poets, especially Coleridge and Wordsworth, and also with the German Romantic philosophy.

The scope of this study is to identify and explore the function of symbolism in Poe's selected short stories. Frye's vision on symbolism will be discussed within the study in the following short stories by Edgar Allan Poe: "Hop – Frog" (1850), "The Cask of Amontillado" (1846), and "The Pit and The Pendulum" (1842).

II. DISCUSSION

Symbolism is very useful in defining literature and arts. There are two types of symbols, conventional and personal, that are use in interpreting arts, literature, dreams and experiences; conventional and personal.

Conventional Symbols (cultural or universal):

Cultural background is a key element in understanding signs. In other words, meanings of signs for people who have the same cultures are identical. Meanings of signs are different from one culture to another culture, and sometimes a sign has a completely different meaning in another cultural context. Most of the time, For example, the wedding dress color in Iran is white, but in India white dress is worn in funerals. Notice that symbols are man-made.

Personal Symbols (contextual or private):

Personal symbols change from one person to another person; author, dreamer, artist, etc. for example, when two persons hear the word "Heart", their interpretation of this word may be different; one considers it just as an organ of the body while the other consider it as the center of emotions, especially love.

Many theorists and scholars such as Ferdinand De Saussure, Alfred North Whitehead, Susanne Langer, Northrop Frye and others seem to be prominent figures in providing and constructing theories of symbolism; however, in this paper the Frye's vision is taken into account.

A. Frye's Theory of Symbolism

Herman Northrop Frye (1912 – 1991) is a Canadian literary critic and literary theorist who is known as one of the most authoritative theoretician of the 20th century. Frye's first book, *fearful symmetry* (1947), brought him a worldwide fame that led him to a new interpretation of William Blake's poetry. Frye's most significant works of literary theory, *Anatomy of criticism* (1957), is one of the greatest works of the 20th century.

Theory of symbols by Frye is combined with the analysis of criticism. Literature can be understood by contextual reading where phases are considered as contexts. Generally, the aim of phases is describing critical moves rather than literary forms so they present manner and process of analyzing symbols. Symbols are used to give meaning to every unit of literary construction that can be apart and different from critical attention. This vast definition caused Frye to link each phase with relevant or proper kind of symbolism, and by doing so, he defined the phase at the best level of

generality. Frye's theory of symbol has five phases. Literal Phase: Symbol as Motif, Descriptive Phase: Symbol as Sign, Formal Phase: Symbol as Image, Mythical Phase: Symbol as Archetype, and Anagogic Phase: Symbol as Monad. There are two more additional classes which are the basis of Frye's definition of the phases: Narrative (Mythos) and meaning (Dianoia). The narrative relates to rhythm, movement, repetition, and act; and meaning relates to motif, structure, parity, and dream. Frye in his "Anatomy of Criticism" insists on two directions that a reader's attention moves to; Outward or Centrifugal and Inward or Centripetal. The outward direction is the one in which the reader goes outside of reading, the second one, inward, is the one where the reader tries to find the meaning from the word in the text.

B. Symbolism in "Hop – Frog"

Hop – Frog, written in 1850, which is about two dwarfs who are led into captivity to become dwarfs of the king. The king and his council insult them and make them tools for joking and laughing. One day Hop – Frog makes a decision to revenge. For a party, Hop-Frog dresses the king and seven ministers as orangutans and by a deliberate plan sets them fire. Hop – Frog and his partner, Trippetta, escape to another land and nobody sees them forever.

King, as an outward symbol, is the symbol of a tyrant who knows all the people as his slaves and is allowed to despise them because he is their owner or king. As for inward symbol, it should be mentioned that when Poe's father and mother die, his rich foster father John Allan, adopts him. King is the symbol of Poe's foster father. As king abused Trippetta and Poe's foster father did the same toward his wife. And the king is also symbol of his actual father.

Hop – Frog is a dwarf in a king's court. According to Juan Eduardo Cirlot (1971) "dwarf is symbol of ambivalent meaning. Like dactyls, elves and gnomes, the dwarf is the personification of those forces which remain virtually outside the orbit of consciousness. In folklore and mythology, the dwarf appears as a mischievous being, with certain childish characteristics befitting its small size, but also as a protector like the Cabiri – this being the case with the 'woodland dwarfs' in the tale of Sleeping Beauty" (p. 91). But in terms of inward symbol, it is the symbol of Poe himself. Both Poe and Hop – Frog are taken away from their home and sent to live with the wealthy and cruel persons that rule over them; his foster father and king.

Trippetta was Hop – Frog's couple, caused him to revenge and helped him to do it. So, she can be the symbol of a big influence; the influence on taking vengeance or the influence on taking a successful vengeance. But according to the story and its background, it should be mentioned that two women, his foster mother and Trippetta, in Poe's life and Hop – Frog's life had important roles. Trippetta, as a symbol in Poe's life, symbolizes Poe's foster mother.

The orangutans are a species of extant great ape. Michael Ferber (2007) states "The Greeks and the Romans considered apes ridiculous, strange, ugly, and somewhat dangerous, and "ape" was a common term of abuse" (p. 12). But here Poe's intention was that these newly discovered creatures were extremely unintelligent, so they are very appropriate symbol of the king and his council member that Hop – Frog finds them stupid and credulous.

The parrot, at the window was a symbol for Hop – Frog and Trippetta. This parrot symbolizes their escape and survival from the king's palace which eventually happened by playing a trick on the tyrants. In fact, the parrot delivered this message to Hop – Frog by its presence. As for outward, parrot's meaning is a bit different; "Maurice Bouisson, in *Le Secret de Schéhérazadé* comments on the *Tuti nameh*, a Persian translation of Nakchabi's *Book of the Parrot*. He comes to the conclusion that it is a messenger-symbol, like the crow, and also a symbol of the soul (the Egyptian *ba*), like other birds. In *The Conference of the Birds*, by the 13th-century Persian poet Farid Ud-Din Attar, the parrot seeks the water of immortality" (Cirlot, 1971, p. 250).

In general, Chains are symbols of punishment and something that Hop – Frog can take vengeance on the king and his seven ministers. In the "Hop – Frog", the chains symbolize Hop – Frog and Trippetta's enslavement by the king. Also, these chains are symbol of hard disciplines which the king rules his kingdom through them.

C. Symbolism in "The Pit and the Pendulum"

This short story is about a man who is sentenced to death, so he faints. When he wakes up, he finds himself in a dungeon. however, because of lack of sleep he faints again. He wakes up once more and finds that a swinging blade or pendulum comes closer and closer. Then he makes a plan to escape, in which he puts a piece of meat on the knots and ropes that hold him. Rats eat the knots and then he is released, but suddenly he sees walls that their shapes change into other different shapes. He struggles no more and prepares himself for death. however, General Lasalle, leader of the victorious French Army saves him in the last few moments.

The first symbols which are visible in its title are the pit and the pendulum. Pit is a kind of dungeon that can be the symbol of the narrator's dark fate waiting for him. The punishment's cost was the narrator's death by a pit, pendulum, rats and walls. So the pit also is the symbol of a place which life and death is in its hands. Its inward meaning is not far from its outward; the huge pit that the narrator nearly falls into is so mysterious, terrifying and like a hell for him- a hell which he will fall into after his death. Here the pit is symbol of hell waiting for the narrator. As for pendulum, pendulum's inward and outward meanings are related to each other, but are not the same or close. The Pendulum is a kind of timekeeping device that shows time. It is the symbol of time passing that says each condition is temporary in which something new is on the way and every moment is valuable. According to the following part of the story, the pendulum not only is the symbol of time but also death. Time and death have direct relation; pendulum's movement is the symbol of passing time and it means death is drawing near. "It might have been half an hour, perhaps even an hour,

(for I could take but imperfect note of time) before I again cast my eyes upward. What I then saw confounded and amazed me. The sweep of the pendulum had increased in extent by nearly a yard” (Poe, 1899, p. 209).

Rat’s definition as outward symbol is “the rat occurs in association with infirmity and death. It was an evildoing deity of the plague in Egypt and China. The mouse, in mediaeval symbolism, is associated with the devil. A phallic implication has been superimposed upon it, but only in so far as it is dangerous or repugnant” (Cirlot, 1971, p. 271). But in inward description rats are the symbol of the savior. They helped the narrator to escape from the pendulum. As he says about them, “they were wild, bold, ravenous; their red eyes glaring upon me as if they waited, but motionlessness on my part to make me their prey” (Poe, 1899, p. 212), it is clear the narrator hates them at first, but when these disgusting creatures become his way of freedom, they became redeemer for him.

“Color symbolism is one of the most universal of all types of symbolism, and has been consciously used in the liturgy, in heraldry, alchemy, art and literature” (Cirlot, 1899, p. 52). We have two colors- black and red. There are several terms for “black” with subtle differences among them in Greek and Latin, but their symbolic meanings are similar and most of the time negative- as “bad” and “evil”. For example “Dante’s inferno is dark, with ‘black air’ as well as black devils and black angels and cherubim” (Ferber, 2007, p. 27). Although black is the color of death and mourning, in Christianity black is also sign of purity or modesty. Here black robes of judges are the reflection of their nature and soul, which is evil and sly. They look for the death of the narrator and enjoy it. “Red in literature is the color of fire, gold, and roses; it is the color of faces when they show embarrassment, anger, or the flush of health or passion. It is also the color of blood ...” (Cirlot, 1971, p. 169). For example, Mars is the symbol of God of bloody war because of its color which is red. In Renaissance poetry, red and white are often colors of love and beauty. “Red is sometimes the color of the devil ...” (Cirlot, 1971, p. 169). “Red symbolizes protection as John Buchanan-Brown stated in its book *Dictionary of Symbols*, ‘Red dye ... with which women and girls in Black Africa paint their faces and bodies after the taboo following their first menstruation has been lifted, on the eve of their first marriage, or after the birth of their first child’” (Cherrat, 2012, pp. 60-61). In “The Pit and the Pendulum” Red is the symbol of devil’s anger who is presented here by red walls. Their exasperation comes down on narrator and will cause his death. Red walls are coming toward him and become flatter. He can see death by his own eyes. In other words, here red is the symbol of anger, devil, blood and death in order.

D. Symbolism in “The Cask of Amontillado”

This story has two main characters, Montresor and Fortunato. Montresor feels revenge is the only way of compensating Fortunato’s wrong. He meets Fortunato who was wearing jester costume at the carnival. Montresor manipulates him to go, tastes Amontillado and assures it is not Sherry. They go to catacomb, where the cask of Amontillado is. Fortunato has allergy and coughs continually. Montresor tries to dissuade him from going and tasting the wine but Fortunato wants to taste Amontillado. They go to the crypt and Montresor imprisons him with a chain. At first Fortunato thinks that it is just a joke, but Montresor leaves him there and builds a wall. As the narrator says the catacombs remain intact.

Amontillado is a kind of wine. Wine, especially red one, is the symbol of blood and sacrifice; and sometimes it signifies eternal life and youth. In this story Amontillado caused a successful revenge and Fortunato was the person who was being sacrificed. But primarily Amontillado tempted him to go toward death and temptation is the important factor in this case. So, Amontillado is the symbol of temptation here not sacrifice.

“In symbolism, numbers are not merely the expressions of quantities, but idea-forces, each with a particular character of its own. The actual digits are, as it were, only the outer garments. All numbers are derived from the number one ...” (Cirlot, 1971, p. 230). Two is the symbol of encounter, completion and at the same time opposition- like life and death, immortal and mortal, good and evil, moon and sun. In “The Cask of Amontillado” two is the symbol of reflection, conflict and opposition. As Montresor says at the beginning of the story, “the thousand injuries of Fortunato I had ... I vowed revenge” (Poe, 1899, p. 258), he is Fortunato’s enemy and just finds comfort by vengeance. Two expresses this feeling of revenge and hatred toward the enemy very well through reflection meaning which is the reflection of Fortunato’s treacheries to Montresor. And as for number eleven which is generally “Symbolic of transition, excess and peril and of conflict and martyrdom. According to Schneider, there is an infernal character about it: since it is in excess of the number of perfection – ten – it therefore stands for incontinence; but at the same time it corresponds, like two, to the mandorla – shaped mountain, to the focal point of symbolic Inversion and antithesis, because it is made up of one plus one (comparable in a way with two)” (Cirlot, 1971, p. 234); while As the last row of bricks was the eleventh row, it was a real danger for Fortunato because he will die there. Eleven was also the symbol of a conflict which ended by his death and it shows that avenger Montresor goes beyond the bounds for revenge.

III. CONCLUSION

On the whole, it should be mentioned that despite Edgar Allan Poe’s short life, he was brilliant in all his writings. His style was effective but simple in which the interpretation is difficult but understandable.

Most of the symbols used in Poe’s selected works seem to be connected to the theme of death. He knew death as an important part of life, and always thought about it. Allan Poe lost all of his family during his lifetime. The death of his beloved wife offended him, so her loss pushed him to alcohol to escape from or forget this pain.

At the beginning of the 20th century the world was affected by two world wars. Humanity had no place among people. They forgot to be romantic or dutiful toward others. People changed into self-centered persons whose communication was in a low level with society. In the meantime, the “absurdist” movement appeared. The topics of their writings were like horror, suffering of life, death as an important part of life, lack of love, separation from their love and others which become Allan Poe’s writing style. Poe was known as the society’s mirror, mirror of their psyche. Maybe the reason of his gothic style was that he wanted to show gothic events of life as common events because society liked it; negative not positive. So, to do this task better, he decided to use symbols in his writing in order to tell number of things while his writing style is a short writing.

The main aim of this study was recognizing the use of inward symbolism interpretation as well as the outward one in the selected works, writer’s motivation, and amount of his succeeding. Another aim of this work is to introduce symbolism as a common and beautiful figure of speech to EFL learners through Frye’s symbolism theory on Edgar Allan Poe’s selected short stories with theme of gothic and in some ways the same themes.

In the short story “The Cask of Amontillado”, by the aid of symbols, Poe writes the story of two apparently friends – but infact real enemies – called Fortunato and Montresor. Montresor’s aim has been just a recompense and “two” and “eleven” which are the symbols of two friends and rows of wall as two important symbols which showed the process and end of this revenge very well. “The Cask of Amontillado” is a story which starts with symbolism from its title. “Amontillado” as the symbol of temptation from the beginning showing the end. And after a while, when the reader reads the story, grasps the point where Fortunato’s life will finish here in this cellar because of temptation. There are some elements which make the environment of the story gothic and increase its influence such as the presence of some things like long and winding staircase, white web, pile of bones and black color. Each of the symbols has an important effect in making it more terrifying and exciting.

Likewise, “Hop Frog” is a story that symbolizes Poe’s life and its characters. King, Hop frog, and Tripetta who are the main characters of the story are as foster father, Poe himself, and his foster mother in Poe’s real life. He wrote this story with the use of symbols to show his life in a symbolic way. “Hop Frog” considers Poe’s autobiography as results shows it. This fact is not stated anywhere in the story and the reader just finds it when reads Poe’s biography and relates these two to each other. The procedure of this story is structured on the basis of symbolism which will be decoded by the reader. “Hop Frog” has other symbols like orangutans, a parrot and chains which show the condition of Hop Frog and Poe’s life.

In the “The Pit and the Pendulum” the symbols, pit and the pendulum, are the most important features. They show a particular meaning in the story. They are elements which symbolize the fate awaiting the narrator. Symbolism suggests many interpretations by the readers. Using first point of view in the story by Poe is a strategy to direct the reader’s interpretation into the writer’s purpose. This purpose is that the writer uses first point of view to show the story as real as possible and the reader lives those moments of fear with the narrator. This feature – using “I” narrator - influences the reader, makes the reader close to the writer and causes the reader to sympathize with him.

This study interpreted symbols according to Frye’s symbolism theory in both directions -inward and outward. All of the selected words are symbols, just they have different meanings in some cases; like rats in *The Pit and the Pendulum*, “Amontillado” in *The Cask of Amontillado*, chains in *Hop – Frog* etc. In present work symbols in *Hop – Frog* are signs because Poe imitated this story from real events and described them with symbols, but in *The Cask of Amontillado* and *The Pit and the Pendulum* symbols are motif because they are symbolism, rhythm and movement of words, not realism or something else.

As mentioned before, symbols are conventional or personal. Most of the inward symbols in *Hop – Frog* are personal because the writer made and chose them himself according to his life. But other inward symbols in this story - *Hop – Frog* -, *The Pit and the Pendulum* and *The Cask of Amontillado* are conventional because they completely depend on the story and its procedure and readers can interpret them by reading the story.

Edgar Allan Poe, as an agent of 20th century people, could do his duty as an absurdist very well in using this figure of speech – symbolism - to write stories with themes of death, horror, suffering etc. In these stories he could show common themes of those days very effectively, in *The Cask of Amontillado*, he could express self-centering and fearing. In *Hop – Frog*, he also demonstrated his life which was a stressful, sad and lonely life. And in *The Pit and The Pendulum*, horror and fear of the narrator were shown through the use of symbols and symbolism.

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Teacher Talk in an EFL Classroom: A Pilot Study

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Abstract—This study explored a non-native English teacher's teacher talk in an EFL classroom through the qualitative research methodology. The study also aimed to find out the characteristics of EFL teacher talk and to explain them. The study mainly employed video-recorded classroom data for analysis, taking classroom observation as the supplement. The study shows that teacher talk nowadays still conforms to the widely acknowledged IRF pattern, which is in line with previous studies conducted on teacher talk. The study also tries to explore the use of L1 in EFL classroom. It shows that the EFL teacher uses Chinese mainly for three functions as explaining complex structures, ushering cultural knowledge and activating class atmosphere taking into account students' low language proficiency level; besides, non-verbal discourse is also widely displayed in EFL classroom to support the teacher talk.

Index Terms—teacher talk, EFL classroom, L1, non-verbal discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Nunan (1991), teacher talk refers to the language used by a teacher in organizing class and language teaching. It is an essential tool for teachers in the implementation of the teaching plan and an important source of input for students. Teachers play a supporting role in classroom teaching by continuously engaging in organizing, explaining, summarizing, reformulating, and redirecting what has been said both by themselves and by students (Blanchette, 2009). The effectiveness of teaching therefore depends on the language used in classroom and the type of classroom interaction (Long & Porrtter 1985). Teacher talk must be of high quality in order to create a harmonious and effective classroom atmosphere for teacher-student interaction; otherwise, classroom teaching is prone to becoming a monodrama. In this paper, we define 'teacher talk' as the language used by the teacher in an EFL classroom from beginning to the end of the class.

II. RESEARCH ON TEACHER TALK

There has been a growing body of research on teacher talk at different education levels and in different subjects over the years. In line with the current research, this paper mainly summarized previous research concerning teacher talk in college English teaching after analysis of some related studies.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed a model for the description of teacher-pupil talk, based on a hierarchy of discourse units. Sinclair and Coulthard (cited in McCarthy, 1991) do agree that there does exist a structure, which means teacher talk is not at random. And McCarthy (1991) summarizes it as the TPT model, where the three initials represent Ask-Answer-Comment respectively and the TPT model as a whole is called an exchange. Many investigations have shown that more than 50% of exchanges between teacher and students are of the IRF pattern (Cazden, 1986; Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Wells, 1999, cited in Viiri, 2006), where I refer to the initiation of the dialogue by the teacher, normally with a question; R is the student's response; and F is the feedback from the teacher.

Blanchette (2009) points out that in traditional, teacher-centered classes, teachers are liable to dominate the interaction at different education levels. As time goes by, studies have shown that teacher-controlled classroom is partially replaced, where the communicative model more closely resembles the apparently unstructured natural conversation outside the classroom. The structured exchange differs from that of the traditional classroom model in that students take more initiative in turn-taking, in request clarification and others. However, it is not the case in Chinese EFL English classroom, even in universities, some teachers still seem to control and direct the classroom as before.

Forman (2012) points out that though there is ample literature concerning teacher talk itself, until recently relatively little attention has been paid to the role of L1 in L2 education, particularly in the EFL classrooms. Forman (2012) focused on the role of L1 in L2 pedagogy and analyzed six functions of bilingual EFL teacher talk: animating, translating, explaining, creating, prompting and dialoguing. To sum up, there remain very few empirical studies concerning actual teacher talk in such contexts, which is also the case in our EFL classroom.

When it comes to teacher talk in English teaching in China, a series of research have been carried out in English major teaching classes (Feng 2007, Wu 2007, Wang 2012, Zhu 2014). Feng (2007) has investigated and analyzed discourse types, proportion of teacher talk, methods of feedback and error correction of teachers in intensive English

reading class through recording and questionnaires. Research shows that students have high expectation and dependency for teacher's in-class talk and teachers' talk in intensive English reading classroom bears the typical characteristics of communicating information. Based on the theory of language input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis and language output hypothesis, Chen (2014) carries out a qualitative and quantitative study by analyzing recordings of the three teacher's teacher talk in the classroom from types of teachers' utterances, types of teachers' questions, questioning strategies, meaning consultation and feedback.

Comparatively speaking, studies of teacher talk in non-English major teaching classes are sparse (Li 2008, Wang 2012, Lü & Wang 2013, etc.). Li (2008) analyzed the discourse of non-English classes from four aspects: the total proportion of teacher talk, questioning, feedback and error correction, and pointed out that teacher talk within the class bears strong interactive features. Wang (2012) did similar study concerning the above mentioned aspects by recording a 50-minute oral English class and asking students to evaluate the teacher discourse-related content. It is pointed out that the teacher's discourse plays a decisive role in oral English classroom learning, and group discussion can promote oral English learning more effectively. Lü & Wang (2013) used classroom observation, questionnaire survey and other methods to quantitatively analyze the characteristics of the teachers in the college English classroom based on the digital resources platform, pointing out that the digital resources platform can effectively support the teaching, enhance the learners' understanding of the teacher talk and promote the meaning negotiation between teachers and students.

Taking into consideration the discussions above, it is clear that teacher talk in non-English major teaching classes has not been given enough consideration; on the other hand, the role that L1 plays in students' language learning has not been given focus. In light of these, this study focuses on a non-native teacher's classroom practices in the non-English major students' teaching class and the aim is to explore an EFL teacher's talk in her classroom practices mainly through classroom observation and recorded data analysis.

III. THE STUDY

A. Context and Participants

The study was conducted in a university in Chongqing. The teacher volunteered to participate in the study, and data used in this study were collected through the classroom observations during natural teaching. Firstly, the teacher was assigned a pseudonym as Jane for the confidentiality. Since getting M.A, she had been teaching English at the same university at the time of data collection. She had three different sophomore classes consisting of 45 to 60 students. In the lesson presented for analysis, she followed the course-book, that is, she still continued the teaching of reading text of unit one and the topic was on experience of first love. Due to students' English proficiency level (students passing CET-4 have the right to opt whether to attend the English class), she mainly employed grammar translation method for the lecture and she tried best to motivate students and to involve students in thinking and to raising questions.

B. Research Questions

The focus of this study is teacher talk in EFL classroom. We will be particularly interested in the following research questions:

1. Does the question-answer sequence between the teacher and students conform to a certain internal structure or is it just a string of language forms?
2. Does L1 play a role in such classroom since it is a shared language of both the teacher and students? If so, how to account for it?
3. If teacher talk fails, what are there to compensate?

C. Data Collection

This study mainly adopted a qualitative and descriptive case-study approach to investigate the EFL teacher talk and it mainly employed video-recorded real classroom data for analysis. The lesson is directed at non-English major sophomores and it lasted for 45 minutes.

IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA

Description and analysis of teacher talk in a natural EFL classroom setting is the focus of the current study, so the videoed lesson is transcribed. T in the transcribed data refers to teacher, S refers to any student who speaks, and numbered S like S1 refers to a typical student who speaks while SS refers to the situation where more than one student speaks. Pinyin will be used to indicate Chinese in the script. The analysis will answer the above mentioned research questions in sequence.

A. IRF Pattern

As is mentioned in the previous part in IRF, I refer to the initiation of the dialogue by the teacher, normally with a question; R is the student's response; and F is the feedback from the teacher. The whole class lasts for 45 minutes, and it comes into three stages of greeting, revision and lecture, of which lecture is the major part. This is a reading class and question-answer composes a larger part of class time and the IRF pattern runs through the whole class, which conforms to previous studies concerning teacher talk in the part of question-answer, but carries more in that the IRF also appears

in the greeting, as are shown in fragments (1) and (2). Fragment (1) is the greeting before class begins, which indicates a simple teacher-student interaction. Fragment (2) appears around the time point of 4'41'' when the teacher just begins the class lecture of a sentence in paragraph 2: *I hate compulsory education with a passion*. While students are not unfamiliar with the notion of *compulsory education* in Chinese, the teacher tries to get through this notion to students in English. All the facts above help to illustrate that classroom teacher talk is still a dominant activity in the EFL classroom and teacher talk is not at random, rather, it follows the basic triadic pattern of teacher question, student answer, and teacher evaluation. In addition, the pattern of this triadic dialogue was largely restricted to recalled information given in the form of single-word answers, which was supported in Wilson (1999).

(1) T: Good morning, everyone.

SS: Good morning, Miss.

T: Today, we continue to learn the reading text of Unit 1, please turn to page 2.

(2) T: *Yiwu jiaoyu* means you have to go to school when you are 5 or 6 years old. But the reality is, Okay, try to understand me.

T: In some places, in some villages, do you know village?

SS: *Cunzhuang*.

T: In some villages, especially in some *remote* (the word is written on blackboard) villages. Do you know *remote*?

SS: *Yaoyuande*.

T: Yes, faraway.

T: So especially in some remote villages, actually the children have no right to go to school, do you understand?

SS: Yes

T: because sometimes there is no school and there are no teachers and they have no money. Do you understand?

SS: Yeah.

B. Code-switching

Concerning the way teacher talk is expressed, half of it is in Chinese. Chinese as L1 for the students and the teacher herself in this class is mainly used for three functions: to explain grammar, to usher cultural knowledge and to activate classroom atmosphere. The teacher uses Chinese when she is trying to help students to analyze the sentences like *Debbie would catch me staring at her; and she would flash a smile that radiated intelligence and quickened my heartbeat*. Here the structures *catch me staring* and *a smile that ...as complement structure and attributive clause* respectively are a bit hard for students, so the teacher chooses Chinese for clear explanation. Since the topic is first love and Cupid appears in paragraph, the sentence *Cupid aimed his arrow and struck me right in the heart* is not that hard for students to understand and translate. In order to provide the students with some cultural background information, the teacher supplements the text with an introduction to Cupid and the English name (in Roman mythology) of the nine planets in universe, whose Chinese names are familiar to students. The teacher also invites students' response to the question: what does the author mean by saying *flash a smile that radiated intelligence*. The whole explanation lasts around 10 minutes. Of course, English reading is always deemed as quite difficult and boring for many students. In order to activate the class atmosphere and to help students to concentrate, the teacher uses humorous Chinese to explain to students the actual situation embodied in the following sentence: *My princess sat near the pencil sharpener; and that year I ground up enough pencils to fuel a campfire. ... We were separated not only by five rows of desks, but by about 50 I.Q. points*. In this part of the story, even though there is a distance between them in space, the boy tries his best to make full use of opportunities to be nearer to the girl, especially the opportunity of sharpening the pencil.

C. Non-verbal Discourse

Though we narrow down teacher talk in this paper, the function of non-verbal discourse cannot be ignored. Non-verbal discourse mainly refers to the body language that goes together with teacher talk. In this video reading class, the teacher tries to combine many forms of non-verbal discourse such as eye-contact, facial expression, body gestures, etc. To be more specific, even though the students hesitate to answer questions, especially difficult ones, the teacher wears an encouraging smile from the beginning to the end and tries to use gestures to help students understand the meaning. For example, in the sentence *that year I ground up enough pencils to fuel a campfire. ...* the teacher uses the pointing gesture to the ground and then an upward gesture to indicate the meaning of *ground up*. The teacher also employs a nodding head and affirmative eye-contact throughout the lecture.

V. EXPLANATION FOR THE ANALYSIS

A. Explanation for IRF Pattern

During this 45-minute class, the teacher talks for most of the time, except for the fact that she also asks 8 students to either answer short questions or translate short sentences. The students themselves voluntarily pose questions only twice, and the questions are all about certain word meaning; to be more specific, meaning of the words *occasionally* and *intelligence* are asked by two students when the teacher says that she is going to ask someone to answer questions. The IRF patterns happens roughly 29 times, which are characterized by short questions and quick answers. For example, the

teacher will ask students for the meaning of phrasal *gaze at*; when the students answer with Chinese ‘ningshi’, the teacher supplements with a short comment and complement *yes, stare at*. We can see that the teacher controls the classroom and the whole teaching proceeding, which may find some explanations in the theory of critical discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis emphasizes the research method of close observation of people communicating in natural settings and the various disciplines that feed into discourse analysis have shared a common interest in language in use, in how real people use real language, as opposed to studying artificially created sentences (McCarthy, 2001). In traditional classrooms, the teacher usually takes initiative in talking and controls the talking time, which can be seen as a symbol of power control over class and students. However, it is still the case in some college English classrooms. As is seen in this typical English reading class, teacher talk occupies the majority of time, which can be explained in many aspects. Concerning students, maybe they are deficient in English language or they are not clear about the teacher’s questions or they are just reluctant to ask or answer questions even though they understand what the teacher is talking about; that is to say, some students still resist assuming responsibility for taking a more active role in classroom interaction due to their personal habit, personality, lack of knowledge, lack of confidence and others. In order for the class teaching to go smoothly, the teacher still has to take the role in organizing activities, in asking questions, in eliciting participation and anticipating questions, which goes in line with Wells 1993(cited in Blanchette, 2009). As far as the teacher is concerned, maybe she lacks teaching experience in how to motivate students or she is not accustomed to classroom silence. However, it may also reflect the status quo in some college English classrooms: teachers and students are still distanced.

B. *Explanation for Code-switching*

Cameron & Larsen-Freeman (2013) proposes the complex system. In language teaching, Cameron & Larsen-Freeman (2013) points out that although language in syllabus and textbook is frozen and stabilized, it immediately becomes dynamic once coming into the classroom practice. Language class is characterized by the process of continuous interactive adjustment and adaption between teacher-student, student-student, and teacher-textbook. Therefore, we can understand that teacher talk is not something stable and unchangeable and English class is not always conducted in total English; sometimes, mother tongue must be involved for clarity, for better understanding of the lecture, or even for activating classroom atmosphere and some other factors. In this English reading class, the teacher employs mother tongue, Chinese in this current context, mainly for clear explanation, for appreciation of the description and for activating the classroom atmosphere. For example, the students are quite strange to the western mythology of Cupid story and other gods. For better understanding of meaning, the teacher must also switch to Chinese for a while. For example, when the teacher tries to explain how the boy tries to capture attention of the fancy girl, it is not enough by only telling the students the boy always goes to the pencil sharpener. The teacher must try to reproduce the real scene. To sum up, the use of L1 still exists in college EFL classrooms, which is not only the case in this English reading class, but also true in some other English classrooms for L2 students. The use of L1 helps paraphrase and exemplification of meaning and cultural information to cater for students’ proficiency level.

C. *Explanation for Non-verbal Discourse¹*

There are two main channels of human communication: verbal and nonverbal. As the name implies, non-verbal communication is issued by the human body with a set of image or symbols, including human facial expressions, changes in posture, body movements and body position (Zhou & Li, 1997). American communicator Mehrabian (1981)² has also argued that meaning of a message is communicated by words, tone of voice and body language, among which body language occupies 55%. Though the statement is open to later arguments and debates, it does indicate that body language is important in communication. Non-verbal communication acts as an important way to compensate for and assist verbal communication in walks of social life. On basis of typical example analysis from literal works and daily life, Hu (2002) argues that body language mainly embodies the following types of functions: the function of expression, the function of cognition, the function of indication, the function of imitation, the function of ceremony and propriety, the function of replacement, the function of show or cover and the function of suggestion, which offers helpful hints for communication.

Non-verbal communication has also been widely used in classroom and its effects have been proved by many researchers through experimental or empirical evidence. For example, teachers can employ non-verbal communications to clarify the expression of meaning so as to well deliver message, to promote interpersonal relationship between the teacher and students by shortening the distance between, which eases the atmosphere, and even to reveal the teacher’s own character. As we have mentioned in the previous part, this teacher in the videoed class takes dominance in classroom due to the fact that she does most of the talking. However, it does not mean that she is the boss and students are in a submissive and silent situation. Instead, the teacher makes gestures and smiling facial expression to express meaning and to encourage students to get involved in class; the students themselves also keep interacting and discussing even though they may not have an answer for a typical question, which makes the classroom atmosphere still a relaxed

¹ Here in our paper, non-verbal communication, nonverbal discourse and body language are used interchangeably despite their distinctions.

² <https://www.businessballs.com/communication-skills/mehrabians-communication-theory-verbal-non-verbal-body-language-152/> (Professor Albert Mehrabian’s communications model)

one.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, we focus on the teacher talk of an EFL teacher by classroom observation and analyzing the video-recorded classroom data. The findings show that teacher talk nowadays still conforms to the widely acknowledged IRF pattern, which is in line with previous studies conducted on teachers talk, however, one thing worthy our notice is that the feedback part is sometimes omitted when the first round of IRF is followed by a second round or when feedback is not so necessary.

The study also tries to explore the use of L1 in EFL classroom. It shows that Chinese still takes an important in EFL classroom and in the current case, the teacher uses Chinese mainly for three functions like explaining complex structures, ushering cultural knowledge and activating class atmosphere taking into account students' proficiency level. In order to further convey meaning, the teacher also employs certain non-verbal language such as body gestures and positive facial expressions throughout the classroom, which to a certain extent, weakens the dominating tendency of absolute teacher talk.

In this study, only a 45-min class is analyzed (part of the reading text), to better explore and understand teacher talk in EFL classrooms, it is good to collect data from classes from other teachers and also in other types of classes, like listening, speaking and writing. Length of time is also to be considered. The study is also confined in research methodology. Although class observation and natural classroom tape-recording are a good start, they should be developed more full in future studies.

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Comparative Analysis of Architecture Research Article Abstracts Written by Native and Non-native Authors: A Cross-linguistic, Cross-cultural Study

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Abstract—It is increasingly becoming important to focus on the rhetorical aspects of texts used for creating different discourse types. In point of fact, the abstract section of scientific articles possesses a rhetorically defined structural framework which is very often culture specific. As such, the present study aimed to investigate the abstract section of the articles written by English and Persian authors, in order to explore whether they followed a similar structural pattern. To this end, a corpus of 60 English and Persian abstracts, thirty each, was randomly selected from English ISI journals and Iranian scientific journals and analyzed based on the IMRD framework introduced by Swales (1990). Findings of this study revealed that most English and Persian authors used the IMRD model in the structure of their abstracts; although, the frequency of occurrence of each move was different. In terms of moves' sequence, all the used patterns were analyzed and I-M-R-D and I-M-R were identified as the most frequent patterns used in both groups. Findings of this study may have implications for Iranian authors who seek to publish their studies in reputable international journals.

Index Terms—abstract, move analysis, Swales' IMRD model

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing research articles for academic scholars who wish to publish the findings of their studies in prestigious and reputable English journals is of great significance. As Cortes (2004) mentioned, students need to be aware of conventional structures used in academic writings and merely exposing students to research articles would not lead to learning related writing skills. Consequently, in recent years numerous studies have been conducted on research articles' structure. Some studies such as Salager-Meyer (1992), Santos (1996), and Lau (2004) have investigated abstract sections of the research articles, others including Swales (1990) and Samraj (2002) have examined introductions.

Hyland (2004) pointed out the concept of genre has been gaining growing attention in the last decade. There are three different approaches to the concept of genre: New Rhetoric approach, ESP (English for Specific Purpose) approach, and Systemic Functional Linguistics. In the New Rhetoric approach Halliday (1994) focused on social functions of genres rather than forms. According to Paltridge (2001), in ESP genre is viewed as a communicative event, such as a scholarly article, which involves certain purposes within a specific community. As Paltridge (2001) put it, in Systemic Functional Linguistics a genre is a text which has related context, form, and function such as an argumentation or exposition. Hyland (2002), taking the same Systemic Functional Linguistics view, believed a genre is a conventional structure used in the interactions between the writer and his/her readers.

In recent years, even more definitions have been provided for the concept of genre. Van Dijk (2008, 2009) has a sociocognitive view towards genre. He believes that genres have different contexts which require a common schema and understanding in the related community. According to Parodi (2010), "a genre is a constellation of potential discourse conventions sustained by the previous knowledge of the speakers/writers and listeners/readers (stored in the memory of each subject), based on a contextual, social, linguistic, and cognitive possibilities and/or constraints." (p. 25). Moreover, as Graves, Moghaddasi, and Hashim (2013) asserted, there are two directions for genre studies; first direction which is concerned with research article sections such as abstract, introduction, etc., can develop students' academic writing skills, and the second one is concerned with the relationship between RA structure and the methods used in their discipline.

Swales (1990) viewed genre as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 58). He classified genres as having 'moves', which are obligatory, and 'steps' which are

optional elements. Moreover, Swales and Feak (2009) defined genre as a type of discourse which seeks to obtain certain communicative purposes.

According to Lores (2004) 'abstract' is defined by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) as: "an abbreviated accurate representation of the content of a document, preferably prepared by its author(s) for publication with it". Huckin (2001) describes abstracts in four ways, regarding their function: "stand-alone mini texts" because they provide a summary of the topic, method, and findings of the article for the readers; "screening devices" because they assist readers deciding whether the whole article is worth reading; "preview" because it indicates the order of materials presented in the article; and finally, "aids to indexing" (p. 93) because they provide easy access to information through being indexed in relevant database.

Martin (2003) asserted for publishing an article in almost all scholarly journals submitting the abstract is necessary. As Martin (2003) put it, a research article abstract functions as a "time-saving device" (p. 26) which enables readers decide on whether the entire article is worth reading. Moreover, research article abstracts are a means of promoting the article and persuading readers to read the entire article (Hyland, 2000; Hyland & Tse, 2005). The significance of abstract is well indicated by Pho (2008) as a section which "sells" (p. 231) the article. Graetz (1985) asserted obtaining knowledge of linguistic structure and functions of abstracts can increase learners' understanding of different journal abstracts.

Significance of research article abstracts (RAAs), as a specific genre in academic communities has led to a large number of studies in various fields including Santos (1996) in applied linguistics; Melander, Swales, and Fredrickson (1997) in biology, medicine, and linguistics; Martin (2003) in experimental social sciences; Lores (2004); Samraj (2005); and Pho (2008) in applied linguistics. For example, Melander et al. (1997) conducted a study on the effect of academic field of study and national language on the general structure of English abstracts written by Americans and Swedes, alongside those written by Swedes in Swedish in three different fields namely biology, medicine, and linguistics. The results of their study proved the field of study had a greater influence on the organization of the abstracts.

There are three dominant approaches to genre analysis; first, the CARS model (Create A Research Space) introduced by Swales (1990) which was employed for analyzing research article introductions. Second, the IMRD model (Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion) proposed by Swales (1990) which was applied to analyze research article abstracts. Finally, Hyland (2004) introduced a five-move framework termed the IPMPPrC model (Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product, Conclusion).

Lores (2004) introduced two types of abstracts namely "informative", which follow IMRD pattern, and "indicative", which follow CARS model. She investigated 36 research article abstracts from three journals in the field of linguistics. Findings of this study indicated that most abstracts had the IMRD model as their basis rather than CARS.

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on analyzing different sections of research articles and in particular abstracts. For instance, Martin (2003) compared abstracts written by English and Spanish authors and discovered that IMRD structure was used in most abstract, although the *Result* move was omitted in some Spanish abstracts.

Moreover, in their comparative study, Jeon and Eun (2007) investigated ten doctoral dissertation abstracts written by Korean and American writers, five each, based on IMRD structure and found that the IMRD was similarly followed by all writers.

In a recent cross-cultural, cross-disciplinary study Wang and Tu (2014) investigated a corpus of 1000 RAAs regarding CARS, IMRD, and IPMPPrC frameworks. Findings of their study revealed that the IMRD framework was employed in 53.9% of the RAAs which indicated a greater tendency among writers to use this framework.

Findings of a genre analysis study conducted on research articles in Persian by Marefat and Mohammadzadeh (2013) investigated both IMRD and CARS patterns in 90 English and Persian abstracts in Literature and found that Persian abstracts generally followed CARS model although showing some deviations.

In another study, Chalak and Norouzi (2013) investigated 40 RAAs written by American and Iranian authors, 20 each, in terms of rhetorical moves based on Swales and Feak (2009) model and found that both groups of authors used moves *Purpose*, *Method*, and *Results* more than *Introduction* and *Conclusion*.

Limited number of cross-linguistic studies on RAAs written in Persian and English, was the rationale behind conducting the present research, which attempts to familiarize Iranian novice writers with structures used in international research communities. To obtain this goal, abstract section of 60 English and Persian RA were analyzed according to Swales' (2004) CARS model to find out how and to what extent Persian and English scholars utilize this pattern in their writings. Thus, this research seeks to address the following questions:

1. What rhetorical structures are used in English and Persian RAAs in the field of Architecture?
2. Is there any recognizable pattern in the utilization of IMRD employed in English and Persian architecture RAAs regarding the sequence in which they appear?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. The Corpus

In the present study, 30 English and 30 Persian research articles in Architecture were investigated in terms of using Swales' (1990) IMRD framework. In selecting the English RAs, in order to achieve more reliable results, both nationality of the writers and scientific level of the journals they were published in, were carefully controlled. Consequently, English articles written by English native speakers and published in ISI journals such as *Frontiers of Structural and Civil Engineering* and *Building and Environment* were selected. In the selection of Persian RAs, journals' availability was an important factor; therefore, RAAs written by Persian native speakers and published in Iranian academic journals such as *Baagh-e-Nazar* and *Saakht-e-Shahr* were analyzed. All the investigated RAAs were published within 2010 to 2014.

B. Instruments

For the purpose of moves' analysis, Swales' (1990) IMRD framework was employed. This framework has been effectively used by many scholars including Martin (2003), Lores (2004), Van Bonn and Swales (2007), and Lim (2010). According to this framework, the Introduction move involves the purpose, objectives, statement of the problem and the rationale for conducting the study; the Method move indicated the methodology, materials, participants, data collection, procedures, and statistical analysis; the Result move contains statements on general findings of the study; and finally, the Discussion move presents interpretation of the results, implications of the findings, and suggestions for further research. So, as to clarify the moves analyses conducted in the study, some examples adopted from English RAAs are provided below.

Example 1:

Introduction: *This paper is aimed to provide a general overview of the current state of research concerning structural robustness.*

Example 2:

Methods: *The accuracy of the developed model is investigated by solving an experimental dam-break test case.*

Example 3:

Results: *At a certain slenderness ratio, the stability factor first decreases and then increases with temperature rise.*

Example 4:

Discussion: *Great improvement can be revealed by contrasting the results of the CWDB model with those of the Ritter's solution.*

C. Data Collection Procedure

As the first phase of the study, moves analysis was applied based on the content of the texts. In order for clear identification of moves employed in both English and Persian RAAs, two main steps were followed: firstly, each abstract was skimmed entirely in order to obtain an overall understanding of the text; secondly, they were scanned for the presence of moves based on Swales' (1990) IMRD model. Although, some researchers in the field of rhetorical moves such as Mizuta, Mullen, and Collier (2004) (as cited in Pho, 2008), argued that the smallest unit of analysis is a phrase, in the present study given the brevity of abstracts, the frame of reference recognized for the moves analysis ranged from a single word to a phrase or a sentence. Consequently, more than one move was recognized in most sentences. Hence, the order of moves' appearance was taken into account in analyzing move's patterns.

The second phase of the study included detailed analysis of sequence of moves used in all English and Persian RAAs in order to investigate whether they followed linear, i.e., I-M-R-D, or nonlinear, e.g., I-R-M-D, pattern. Considering Paltridge's (1994) claim regarding subjectivity of content based analyses, to avoid subjectivity in moves' identification all the abstracts were analyzed by two experienced English instructors and the inter-rater reliability coefficient 86% was obtained.

D. Data Collection Procedure

In order to identify the probable commonalities and differences between the two groups of English and Persian RAAs, first frequency and percentage of the Moves employed in each abstract was determined. The obtained nonparametric data, then, were analyzed through Chi-Square to discover whether the differences across the two groups of RAAs were statistically significant. Second, the sequences of moves, identified as linear and nonlinear, were analyzed through calculating frequency and percentage.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Concerning the first research question, in order to ascertain the commonalities and differences of macrostructures utilized in English and Persian RAAs in the field of architecture, Swales' (1990) IMRD model was used. First, the frequency and percentage of occurrence of each move was computed in all RAAs. Second, to investigate the differences in the groups regarding move's application, the findings were compared through employing Chi-square. The results of this comparative analysis are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF IMRD MOVES IN ALL ABSTRACTS

Moves	Number of Abstracts	English RAAs		Persian RAAs		Chi-Square	
		F	%	F	%	χ^2	Sig.
I	30	52	28.3	132	71.7	34.78	<.001
M	30	91	56.5	70	43.5	2.74	.098
R	30	35	43.2	46	56.8	1.49	.222
D	30	14	33.3	28	66.7	4.67	.031

As depicted in Table 1, the most noticeable difference was observed in the occurrence of move *Introduction* where the Persian and English authors attempted to introduce the objectives of their study. The second noticeable difference was observed in the application of move *Method* which presents methodology, participants, and data collection method. Regarding moves *Results* and *Discussion*, the results revealed a relatively less difference. Nonetheless, in order to discover whether these differences were statistically significant, a Chi-square test was applied.

In order to answer the first research question, the results of the Chi-square test were analyzed. According to the results of the Chi-square test, as presented in Table 1, there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in the occurrence of move *Introduction* between English and Persian RAAs. Moreover, considering move *Discussion*, a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) was observed between the two groups. However, analysis of moves *Method* and *Results*, revealed no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between the two groups.

Analyzing the results, it was revealed that *Introduction* and *Discussion* moves were noticeably used more in Persian than in English RAAs, while there was no significant difference in the application of *Method* and *Result* moves in the corpus. As indicated by the results of the study, the occurrence of the *Introduction* move in the Persian RAAs was drastically more than the English ones. This might be due to either socio-cultural factors such as cultural patterns which require enormous explanations, or the lack of appropriate academic writing instructions.

With regard to the second research question, sequence of the moves employed in all RAAs was explored to find out whether they followed the I-M-R-D linear pattern. As it is depicted in Table 2, the I-M-R-D linear sequence was found in one-third of English RAAs, and half of Persian ones. The result of the Chi-square test, however, revealed no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in the corpus regarding the sequence of moves.

TABLE 2.
THE LINEAR SEQUENCE IN ALL ABSTRACTS

		English RAAs		Persian RAAs		Chi-Square	
		F	%	F	%	χ^2	Sig.
IMRD	No	20	66.7	15	50.0	1.714	.190
	Yes	10	33.3	15	50.0		
Total		30	100.0	30	100.0		

Moreover, all the other sequences used in the RAAs, were identified. According to Table 3., after I-M-R-D, the most frequent pattern recognized was I-M-R, which was used in approximately half of English and nearly one-third of Persian RAAs. The least frequent nonlinear patterns were I-M-R-M-R, M-I-M-R, M-I-M-R-D, and M-I-M-R-M-D which were recognized in 3.3% of English RAAs.

TABLE 3.
SEQUENCE OF LINEAR AND NONLINEAR MOVES

	English RAAs		Persian RAAs	
	F	%	F	%
IMRD	10	33.3	15	50.0
IMR	14	46.7	9	30.0
IMRMD	2	6.7	0	0.0
IMRMR	1	3.3	0	0.0
MIMR	1	3.3	0	0.0
MIMRD	1	3.3	0	0.0
MIMRMD	1	3.3	0	0.0
IMD	0	0.0	2	6.7
IMIRD	0	0.0	2	6.7
IR	0	0.0	2	6.7
Total	30	100.0	30	100.0

Occurrence of the I-M-R-D linear pattern which was used in half of Persian RAAs and one-third of English ones may imply that Persian authors are more conservative in following the conventional standard linear pattern than the English authors. The results of this study were in line with several studies including Jeon and Eun (2007), Martin (2003), and Wang and Tu (2014).

IV. CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to investigate whether there was any statistically significant difference in the RAAs written by English and Persian authors in terms of following Swales' (1990) IMRD framework. Additionally, it was

intended to discover whether the patterns used were linear or nonlinear. To this end, RAAs written by Persian authors and English native authors were collected and analyzed. Findings of this study revealed some similarities and differences between the two groups. Based on the statistical analysis it was concluded that Persian authors preferred to provide more information in their *Introduction* and *Discussion* moves compared to English authors. On the other hand, English authors presented more information in their *Method* move.

Regarding the sequence of moves, it was found that the most frequent sequence observed in both groups was the I-M-R-D linear sequence, although some variations were noticed in the corpus. Since each discourse community may use a particular genre structure in their research articles, it is necessary for academic authors to learn and employ those conventional rules that are accepted in their field. The evidence from this study can provide insights for Persian novice authors to improve their academic writing and obtain more opportunities for publishing their research articles in prestigious scientific journals. Nonetheless, it should be mentioned that this study was confined to one specific discipline and exploring RAAs in different disciplines may reveal other interesting and helpful results.

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The Influence of the Difference between Chinese and Western Culture on Advertising Translation and Strategy

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Abstract—Since China became a member of the WTO in 2001, more and more Chinese products have an opportunity to enter the international market, and begin to compete with foreign brands. Advertising as a means of mass media, it happens able to introduce the foreign goods to domestic consumers, and to promote the Chinese products to foreign consumers. In such a social background, the importance of advertising translation has become increasingly prominent. The paper tries to analyze the characteristics of advertising language and the influence of the difference between Chinese and western culture on advertising translation by organizing the successful and unsuccessful English and Chinese advertising translation corpus collected over the several years. It pointed out that the advertising translation not only achieves the purpose of language conversion, but also takes into account the influence of language and cultural differences. Finally, through the analysis of advertising language, exploring some effective translation methods and strategies, such as: literal translation, free translation, amplification, corresponding translation and creative translation, which can put forward reference and guidance on advertising translation so that the author can achieve the properly translation of advertising. Hope to assist advertising translators.

Index Terms—cultural differences, language features, advertising translation, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Advertising exists for long time. People of modern society have already been very familiar with advertising, which can be seen or heard anytime and anywhere. Nowadays, advertising has become an industry itself.

With the rapid development of science and technology, the economic cooperation between countries is gradually expanding. In the face of opportunities and challenges, many countries are expected to increase their economic strength in the foreign trade, and advertising provides the international market by selling goods and an important means of competition. Therefore, the author should do a good job in translation in international trade, and the importance is self-evident.

There is no doubt that cultural differences between China and Western countries have a profound impact on advertising translation, so the author must take into account the cultural factors when exploring the translation methods of advertising. Then, studying the translation of successful and unsuccessful English and Chinese advertising translation corpus, drawing lessons from the previous summary of the translation methods, for example: literal translation, free translation, amplification, corresponding translation and so on to find the most suitable translation method of advertising, we aim to further deepen the understanding of the characteristics and influential factors of advertising, so that the conclusion of research could be applied to the translation practice.

In this thesis, the author makes efforts to analyze the features, influences by using some typical examples, and puts forward several practical strategies and skills for the advertising translation.

II. LINGUISTIC FEATURES IN ADVERTISEMENTS

As a kind of applied languages, advertising has many differences such as word, sentence and rhetoric. In order to attract readers on advertisement, lots of advertisements are the fruits of deep consideration, with their beautiful words, simply in structure but rich in meaning as well as variable in figure of speech (Wang, 2010). Good advertising not only has the function of communication and persuasion, but also brings the highly commercial value.

A. Lexical Features

1. Use of Simple Words

Advertising language always uses some common colloquial words, which are simple and appealing, for example:

Enjoy Cola. 享受可口可乐. (可口可乐)

Ideas for Life. 为生活着想. (松下电子)

Impossible is nothing. 没有什么不可能的. (阿迪达斯)

The primary characteristics of advertising language are simple and chic, and it can gift with an extraordinary retentive memory so long as readers get a glimpse of them. Simple words impress the audience and maximize the propaganda effect of advertisements.

2. Repetition Use of Words

Highlight a strong sense of emotion through the repetition of some key words and phrases, forming the strong rhythm on the rhyme, for example:

Double Delicious, Double Your Pleasure. 双份美味, 加倍愉快. (某食品广告)

Good Teeth, Good Health. 牙齿好, 身体就好. (高露洁牙膏)

用了“蚊不叮”, 蚊子就不叮. (“蚊不叮”驱蚊药)

In advertising, repetition use of words can highlight the publicized products which are different from other brands in aspects of features and functions to meet certain demands of consumers.

3. Use of New Words

Create new words or strange words in order to stand out the new, strange and special aspects of products and to meet the consumer's psychology of pursuing fashion and extolling personality, for example:

The orangemostest drink in the world.

This is a beverage advertisement in which "orangemostest" = "orange + most + est", and “most” and “est” which are used beside the "orange" represent the good quality, high concentration and pure taste of products. Many English prefixes, suffixes, such as "super", "ex" often appear in advertising language to emphasize the high quality of the product, such as "supernatural, superfine” and “Rolex, Kleenex”.

B. Syntactic Features

1. Use of Simple Sentences

Features of spoken language are strong in simple sentences, and they are not only very close to author's life, moving people, but also play their advertising effects, making consumers understand and remember them, for example:

Your Home in the Air. 您在空中的家. (航空公司)

I can play. 我能, 无限可能. (匹克)

一嗑就开心. (阿里山瓜子)

运动快乐. (运动快乐)

Compared with the complex sentences, the simple sentences with more sonorous and forceful tone are easy to understand. Moreover, most vocabularies are basic and easy to remember, so the advertisements read very smoothly, which can achieve the effect of attracting foreign consumers.

2. Use of Imperative Sentences

With its unique style, great charisma and persuasive, imperative sentence favored by advertisers, they are frequently used in advertising. For example:

Keep moving. 永不止步. (安踏)

Just do it. 只管去做. (耐克运动鞋)

Take time to indulge. 尽情享受. (雀巢冰激凌)

The imperative sentence itself implied request, command or advice. The function of imperative is in line with the convictive purpose of these functions, so it can well serve for advertisements. Advertisers use imperative sentences in the advertisements in order to advise and encourage people to take actions to buy the advertised products.

3. Use of Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are more attractive and persuasive than simple sentences, such as:

We lead, others copy. 我们领先, 他人效仿. (理光复印机)

Tide's in, Dirt's out. 汰渍到, 污渍逃. (汰渍洗衣粉)

透心凉, 心飞翔! (雪碧)

Although advertising language is exquisite and concise, it has to show the features, functions and ideas of products so as to convince consumers. Compound sentences are able to achieve both expression completely and language concisely.

4. Use of Idioms

Idiom is a kind of conventional language phenomenon, and its expression and meaning have been a deep-rooted thought in the public. Generally speaking, it is difficult to change. However, in particular language environment, innovation and flexibility in the use of slangs and idioms are able to bring about unexpected results, which have been fully utilized in advertisements, for example:

A Dove a day keeps you work, rest and play. 一天一块德芙巧克力, 给你工作, 休闲, 娱乐添活力. (德芙巧克力)

This advertisement is derived from two other well-known idioms: An apple a day keeps the doctor away (一日一苹果, 医生远离我) / All work and no play make Jack a dull boy (只干工作不玩耍, 聪明小孩也变傻). The chocolate advertising of dove not only brings in idioms in language form, as well as uses the content of the two idioms indiscriminately.

C. Rhetorical Devices

In order to improve expression ability of advertising language, strengthen its expressive effect, and arouse the interest and desire for consumers to buy goods, people pay much attention to the aesthetic perception of the advertising language, so that there is an extensive use of rhetorical devices (Wu, 2012). The most common figures of speech are analogy, personification, pun, hyperbole, etc.

1. Analogy

The application of metaphor rhetoric makes consumers have a more detailed understanding of products. At the same time, it achieves the goal of promotion. The two skills which are used commonly include simile and metaphor.

Simile is the directly use of figurative words (such as like, as, as if and so on), then the products can be directly compared to something in author's life, for example:

Fly smooth as silk. 丝般润滑。(泰国航空公司)

母亲的手一样舒适。(某牌婴儿鞋)

According to the common characteristics or intrinsic links between the two things, putting the name of one thing to another thing, the speaker does not directly name but rely on his/her own understanding called metaphor.

You'd better off under the umbrella. 你最好在保护伞下。(旅游保险)

This is a travel insurance company's advertising. As for travel, travelers are most concerned about the safety. Using common psychology of tourists, and travel insurance company uses umbrella as the metaphorical object, making the passengers feel-vivid to buy insurance, go out for travelling, just like being under an umbrella, the tourists can enjoy the journey. "Better off" has the meaning of "comfortable and happiness", that is to say, the purchase of such insurance can make the author's travel more comfortable and enjoyable. Advertising is very short, but metaphorical. Object is vivid, allowing visitors to feel more cordial and authentic for the service of insurance company.

2. Personification

Personification is also one of the rhetoric methods used in advertising. It is used for publicizing things in order to make it personal and emotional. For example:

天天想爱你—伴你一日三餐, 伴你年年月月。(“家乐”调味品系列广告)

Apple think different. 苹果电脑, 不同凡“想”。(苹果笔记本)

Jobs, the CEO of Apple, returned to the company in 1997 and launched the famous advertising "Apple think different", giving Apple the idea of passing on the value of Apple. So, what kind of people does apple stand for? Those are people who have independent thought; who have the courage to abandon a narrow vision; who are willing to try new things; who are not likely to be mediocre and unambitious in order to pursue personal ideal by unremitting efforts and who want to change the world. The value of "Think Different" determines the target user group of Apple Cooperation. The Apple will focus on those users and meet their ultimate experience. Therefore, the Apple sets off a wave of panic buying boom in China.

The world smiles with Reader's Digest.

《读者文摘》, 欢乐开怀。(《读者文摘》)

The advertisement not only brings joy to readers, but also stresses its influence throughout the world, achieving many things at one stroke and attracting readers.

3. Pun

The pun is a kind of rhetorical devices. Words in it are concise, humorous and novel which can highlight the features of products, so there are a large number of applications in the advertisement.

按耐不住, 就快滚。(微软鼠标)

要想皮肤好, 早晚用大宝。(大宝)

This is a slogan of Dabao cosmetic products company. The first layer of meaning is said that consumers can maintain the skin if they use Dabao cosmetics in the morning and evening. This is the first reaction for most people who have thought after reading. But there is a deeper meaning, that is, no matter how many cosmetic products used before, the consumers have to rely on Dabao cosmetics. This is the profound meaning of this advertisement. Readers can find the deeper meaning and get the pleasure after thinking while reading the advertisement, which can deepen the impression of the brand.

Ask for More. 再来一支, 还吸摩尔。(“摩尔”牌香烟)

"More" (摩尔牌) is one of America's cigarette brands, which is popular among female smokers for its slender body and soft smoke. "More" and "more" have the same pronunciation, but different in meanings, and consumers will naturally connect the meaning of MORE cigarette with the meaning of "more". The use of pun in the advertisement has a dual role in selling goods.

4. Hyperbole

Hyperbole refers to deliberately exaggerate or shrink the image of things so as to highlight certain features or characters of things, and express emotions vividly. For example:

Intelligence Everywhere. 智慧演绎, 无处不在。(摩托罗拉手机)

We've hidden a garden of vegetables where you'd never expect. In the pie. 在您想不到的地方, 我们珍藏了满

园的蔬菜. 就在一个小小的馅饼中. (馅饼)

特步, 飞一般的感觉. (特步牌运动鞋)

This is the advertising of XTEP sports brand, which is a typical example of hyperbole. Obviously, no matter what the brand of sports equipment is, there would never have a general feeling of flying. However, after watching this advertisement “特步, 飞一般的感觉”, the author has a sense of novel. The appropriate degree of exaggeration not only does not damage the brand image, but also makes consumers have a new understanding of the brand.

III. THE CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN ADVERTISING TRANSLATION

Because of the different social culture, the perspective of Chinese and English is also different when observing or treating things, there may be contrary to the original version of the text in the translation of advertising. Translation is a cross-language and cross-cultural communicative activity. Eugene A Nida (1993), one of famous American translation theorists, pointed that: "Translation is an exchange between two cultures. For a real successful translation, understanding two cultures is more important than knowing two languages, because words become meaningful only in their effective cultural background" (p.248). Therefore, translators should not only consider the features of advertising, but also pay more attention to the cross-cultural factors.

A. Cultural Value Differences

Chinese have a profound humanism spirit, and they regard "introspection", "restraint" as criterions so that people are always introverted. In the treatment of things, people pay more attention to the content and demonstration; while the westerners are more outgoing, focusing on the external form and the effect of the senses. The different cultural values lead to different cultural characteristics. The Chinese are deeply influenced by traditional culture and have a strong sense of authority worship. However, the cases are different for westerners. They pay more attention to individuality and personality, taking "personality", "independent", and "privacy" as the theme.

默默奉献, 为香浓加分! (雀巢公司的广告)

The advertisement emphasizes the spirit of dedication. However, in the United States, its corresponding advertising is "coffee's perfect mate". (咖啡的完美伴侣!) "Mate" illustrates the relationship between coffee and coffee mate is equal. Mixing them together, and then people can enjoy the mellow and delicious coffee. If this Chinese advertisement is directly translated into English, I am afraid that it will not leave a good impression to American consumers. Because Americans believe in freedom and individualism and that everyone is equal, "Dedication" will make Americans lose themselves. Through this example, the author can clearly understand that different cultures determine different values.

In addition, some public services advertisements also reflect the differences between eastern and western cultural values. Let us see some of them as follows:

No alcohol allowed rather than Don't drink alcohol. 严禁酗酒.

No parking rather than Don't park. 不准停车.

No overtaking rather than Don't overtake. 严禁超车.

The differences in the final examples are the focus of the power of the group and individual tendencies.

B. Historical Culture Differences

Different countries have different history, which is reflected in the translation of advertisements. The author should take into account the history and culture of different countries. Japan's Toyota car has done this. The advertisement of Toyota when entering into the Chinese market is "车到山前必有路, 有路必有丰田车", which is derived from one of Chinese well-known idiom “车到山前必有路”, but it is difficult for Americans to understand. Therefore Toyota changed the slogan of American into "Not all cars are created equal", which applies the sentence in the *Declaration of independence* "all men are created equal" (人人生而平等), so it expresses that Toyota has better quality than other cars.

Another example is a travel company which makes full use of the competition between domestic political parties for their own publicity. "Butlin's—the right choice. Don't labour the point, or be conservative in your choice or liberal with your money. Come to Butlin's for the real party. Great Party Ahead." The "labour", "conservative" and "liberal" are all the name of the political parties, and "party" also has the meaning of political party. Obviously, it uses the pun rhetoric, but if the translator does not understand the political background of the country, and it is hard to experience the wonderful meaning these words convey.

As is known to all, China is the socialist system, while the most western countries are the capitalist system. To some extent, the differences of these two kinds of social institution affect people's life. Take certain public service advertisement as an example:

五讲四美三热爱.

Version one: Five stress, four beauties and tree lovers.

Version two: Five stress, four points of beauty and tree aspects of love.

From the version one, westerners are easy to misunderstand it as “四个美人和三个情人”, which makes the

advertising lack its original commonweal and even runs in opposite direction. However, the version two seems more serious, in accordance with the cultural appeal under the socialist system.

C. *Thought Pattern Differences*

Chinese and English advertisements show the different thought patterns. Chinese traditional culture advocates conservative and implicit, and Chinese believe that the implicit language is very meaningful. Sometimes it can reach the desired state. Compared with the English version, direct expression of the advertising is more accord with western style. For instance:

To me, the past black and white, but the future is always color. (Hennessy)

对我而言, 过去平淡无奇; 而未来, 却是绚烂缤纷. (轩尼诗酒)

Good to the last drop. (Maxwell)

滴滴香浓, 意犹未尽. (麦斯威尔咖啡)

Start ahead. (Rejoice)

成功之路, 从头开始. (飘柔)

Thinking mode of Chinese is abstract. When people see an object, they will think of another thing associated with this object. Therefore, advertisers often use a specific scene equally or a metaphor so that consumers can easily think of related products, for example:

As if lying in the snow-white clouds. 犹如躺在洁白的云朵里. (鸭绒被)

鹤舞白沙, 我心飞翔. (白沙牌香烟)

D. *National Culture and Custom Differences*

Different nationalities have different beliefs and customs, and the differences will be reflected in their own language. The author should pay attention to avoiding using the language symbols which may send the wrong information. For example, the "dragon" has the meaning of "holy, noble and auspicious" in Chinese, which is viewed as a symbol of power and status; while in the eyes of the westerners, "dragon" is a symbol of "evil and cruel". Therefore, when the translators translate the advertisement with the "dragon", they should do some disposal properly. There is a tourism advertising in Chinese like this: "西峡—开放的龙乡." The English version is "Xixia, home of Di-Nosaurs—open to the world." It is artful to change the "dragon" into "dinosaur", avoiding the sense of fear for western tourists because of the word "dragon" and catering to their adventurous psychology.

Another example is called "Goldlion", which is a brand of well-known international tie. It is said that the name of the tie was originally the "lucky lion", and "lion" is the same as "lost" in Cantonese pronunciation so that the business is bleak. Once it is translated into "Goldlion", the business is booming, because the target language meets the mentality of Chinese for seeking good luck and fortune.

E. *Aesthetic Value Differences*

The translation of advertisements can be influenced by the aesthetic value of differences between the source language and the target language. Chinese often write the article emphasizing on diction, ornate, and "language not astonishing oath endlessly". It is difficult for westerners to accept the exaggeration. Most of food, nourishing and beautifying classes of advertisings are blowing up. If the author translates them directly, it will cause resentment in western consumers and refuse to accept.

In China, people use a lot of words to describe that the skin of person is good, such as "白嫩, 白皙, 粉白, 白里透红", and people think that "a white covers three ugly". This kind of aesthetic characteristic of Chinese makes cream products at home all claim that their products have the effect of whitening. This view, however, is contrary to the international trend of aesthetic appreciation. As for westerners, "black" is regarded as a healthy color, "黑里透红" is a symbol of health, while "white" represents poverty and disease. Therefore, the author must consider the aesthetic differences in the translation of cosmetics advertising.

IV. ADVERTISING TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

A. *Aim of Advertising Translation*

Advertising can achieve many purposes. The Association of National Advertisers classifies the advertising according to its purpose as follows: "Awareness, Comprehension, Conviction and Action (ACCA)" (Guo, 1963, p.73). People know the products and service by listening, reading advertisement, understanding the use and the scope of business and convincing themselves to buy the products or to enjoy the service. This is the purpose of advertising translation. Therefore, how can the author make this purpose come true? In other words, what are the advertising translation strategies?

B. *Approaches to Advertising Translation*

In China, "faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance", which are put forward by Yan Fu, are the general principles for translators. However, advertising translation is different from the other translations, which is a kind of economic

activity. Specifically, advertising translation is for the readers, that is, for consumers, so the translation should take into account the consumer's psychology. Whether the advertisement is successful or unsuccessful, it depends on the consumer's response. The readers, that is, consumers occupy an important role in the process of advertising translation, which is the unique feature from other translations. Therefore, translators should take full consideration of the age, gender, social status and shopping psychology of consumers when they choose translation methods.

1. Literal Translation

Peter Newmark, one of the most famous translators of Britain, who said "The SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. As a pre-translation process, this indicates the problems to be solved" (Newmark, 2001, p.153). Literal translation is loyal to the advertisement language. In the process of translation, the author often regards the word as the basic unit of advertisement translation, considers the constraints of context, keeps the meaning and structure of the original, reproduces the form, content and style, that is to say, gaining the similar advertising effectiveness as the original, and maintains the original beauty at the same time. As for some advertisements, the original meaning is explicit and the syntactic structure is simple. The author can achieve both the surface meaning and deep meaning by translating directly. Using of the literal translation, the information can be expressed clearly, and the surface meaning accords with the deep meaning (Zou, 2005). It mainly uses between the original and the target language for its cultural commonality, which can produce the same association among people. For example:

At 60 miles an hour the loudest noise is this new Rolls-Royce comes from the electric clock.

时速 60 英里的这种新式“劳斯莱斯”轿车最响的噪音是来自车内的电钟。

The advertisement of Rolls-Royce car is a masterpiece of the famous American advertising designer—David Ogilvy, and it is also the best example for people to demonstrate the effect of literal translation. Although the original is very simple, the conception is special. According to the principle of literal translation, the advertisement can both maintain the original style and have a good effect. Literal translation is a good way for translators, because it can keep the style of the original.

Challenge the Limits.

挑战极限。(SAMSUNG)

Similarly, the advertising only includes four characters, which is simple and concise. It not only implies the continuous pursuit for Samsung itself to break through the boundaries of science and technology, but also encourages people to break through themselves and the limit of life. It shortens the distance from consumers and reflects perfectly the spirit that Samsung company wants to convey.

All is well that ends well.

Version one:烟蒂好,烟就好.

Version two:越抽到后头越有味道.

The advertising comes from *As You Like It* written by William Shakespeare, who is one of the most greatest English writers. The implication is that the outcome is good and everything is good. The version one is really confusing. The quality of cigarettes lies in tobacco, ingredients, not in the cigarette holders. As for the “烟蒂”, it refers to the butt remained after having a smoke. How can we say that “烟蒂好,烟就好”? The author fears that the meaning of the advertising should be “越抽到后头越有味道”. The version one is too faithful and straightforward to the original. So when the author sees the “end”, the author will immediately regard it as the butt. In fact, this is a word which has cultural meaning. This advertisement wants to use Shakespeare's masterpiece to arouse the psychological resonance among people. This is a natural association. For translators, whether the translation is successful or not, it depends on whether they are familiar with the common sense of British literature, and it is important that whether he can flexibly use their background knowledge and correctly interpret the cultural connotation rather than simply copy the content without consideration. The version one is just a copy of the meaning, and it does not consider what the advertising wants to promote. Cigarette or cigarette butts? So it focuses on the first half of the sentence. That is to say, the butts of their cigarettes are very good, so the cigarettes are certainly excellent. Of course, the logic is unreasonable. In contrast, version two puts the cultural factors into the goods. The “end” here does not refer to the butt, and it refers to the feeling when people are smoking.

Unlike me, my Rolex never needs a rest. (Rolex)

与我不同,劳力士从不需要休息。(劳力士手表)

The advertisement takes the method of literal translation. It personalizes the products by using primitive rhetoric and makes the products full of human touch. The surface meaning describes that the Rolex watches run accurately and never needs to be repaired. The deep meaning conveys the connotation of the good quality and trustworthiness of the products.

The above examples have maintained the linguistic forms and cultural characteristics of the source texts, which are the very faithful translations.

2. Free Translation

Newmark advocated that free translation reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original. Usually it is a paraphrase much longer than the original so-called ‘intralingual translation’,

often prolix and pretentious, and not translation at all (Newmark, 2001, p.145). The free translation does not rigidly follow the form and structure of the original. That is to say, the free translation is an effective way to solve the problem if the statement which is directly translated does not conform to the common expression or literal translation (Li, 2010). The author should pay more attention to the meaning of words in original, combining context to choose words in order to express the actual meaning of original accurately. Translators usually have some creativity, but the basic information of the original should be retained. There is a typical example:

A diamond is forever. (De Beers)

钻石恒久远, 一颗永流传。(戴比尔斯钻石广告)

Compared to other literary forms, advertising pays more attention to social factors, such as economy and culture, and emphasizes the effectiveness and acceptability of language. In addition, it emphasizes on the creative use of words. Easterners and westerners know that the diamond has a very high value, which represents the steadfast emotion. Love is romantic, and if people buy a diamond for lovers, it represents the love between them is firm and eternal. But the westerners prefer to direct expression, so the original advertising language is concise and very suitable for oral communication. However, if the author just translates the advertisement as "一颗钻石就是永远", it will lack the uniqueness of the original advertisement. The translation lacks the flavor of the original advertisement while reading. On the guidance of free translation, the author translates it as "钻石恒久远, 一颗永流传", and it will have a very different effect. It not only has the readability of the original advertisement, but also accords with the implicative expression of Orientals in order to persuade consumers to accept the advertised things and take action to buy.

Every Time a Good Time. (McDonald's)

秒秒钟欢聚欢笑。(麦当劳)

As for this advertisement, the author translates it under the principle of literal translation as "每一刻都是美好时光". It is loyal to original on the semantics, and sentence pattern, but it seems a little mediocre. However, for a fast-food chain, "秒秒钟欢聚欢笑" just as a wonderful lens which is cut out from the film. Who can resist the temptation?

Focus on Life. (Olympus)

人生难忘片段, 永远印记。(奥林巴斯相机)

This is an advertising of camera, and it tightly focuses on the function of camera. That is to say, the camera keeps the unforgettable memories of people. It makes people feel that business is standing on the point of view of the customers rather than selling their goods. "永远印记" also implies that pictures made by camera of Olympus have a reliable quality and can be retained forever.

The above translations can't reproduce the original in the same language, but they are highly refined so that the deep meaning of the translations is equivalent to the original.

3. Amplification

As the translator Newmark mentioned: "for a professional translator, if the target language is more abundant than the source language in vocabulary, grammar and rhetoric, using the characteristics of the target language flexibly to translate can greatly improve the level of translation." Chinese are good at using parallelism, symmetry, idioms to convey ideas and information. In the process of advertisement translation, the author should take into account these factors and adopt appropriate translation strategies to increase the component which is not expressed by English but necessary for Chinese.

Beyond Your Imagination. (Korean Air)

意想不到的天空。(大韩航空)

This advertisement can be translated as "超乎你的想象" literally, and it is very faithful to the desirable translation. However, there are too many things beyond the author's imagination. Would people like to experience an unexpected sky? Come on Korean Air. Actually, the sky is same no matter which airline plane people are taking. However, under the guidance of amplification, it is difficult for passengers to resist the mystery brought by translation: take Korean Air and people can have a different sky.

Cut, Colour, Clarity and Carat Weight.

造型别致, 色彩斑斓, 晶莹剔透, 重量保证。

The advertisement is designed for the diamond. The original uses alliterative technique, but this effect is very difficult to be reflected on translation. Therefore, the translator has to abandon the original way of expression, translating the brief words of the original into the four four-letter words in Chinese which are concise, sonorous and forceful. Although the translation has changed the form of the original text and adds some content, its meaning is still very clear and the form is also beautiful.

Obviously, the translation can reveal more information by mining the deep meaning of the original, and it can make the customers know the products and then accept the brand culture.

4. Corresponding Translation

Because of the different cultural background, the image of the original is sometimes not in accordance with the Chinese customs. Under the literal translation, it would be rather difficult to understand the accurately expression of

originals. At this time, the author can adopt the corresponding translation. Express the meaning of source language by using the certain fixed structure of target language. It often uses the verse, saying or proverb (Su, 2013).

谁跑到最后,谁笑得最好。(某轮胎广告)

There is a proverb in English “He who laughs last laughs best”, and its translation is “谁笑到最后,谁笑得最好.” This advertisement is written by imitating the proverb, and it changes the first “laughs” of the original into “lasts”. With the use of the rhetorical device of personification, it vividly highlights the characteristics of durability of tires.

百闻不如一尝。(某出口食品广告)

Tasting is believing.

There is a proverb in Chinese:百闻不如一见. It happens that there is also a corresponding proverb in English: Seeing is believing. This advertisement changes the “见” in the original Chinese proverb into “尝”, and alters the “seeing” in the original English proverb to the “tasting”. When people hear this advertisement, people can't help to have a taste of the food (Gu, 2004).

Where there's light there is power. (Citizen Eco)

只要有光就有能量。(西铁城光动能表)

It is universally acknowledged that “where there is a will, there is a way.” is a very popular proverb in English. This advertisement has replaced the “a will” and “a way” with “light” and “power” in original proverb, which emphasizes that “Citizen” watch can absorb any visible light, and then is transformed into kinetic energy driven watch operation. Using the original table circle of light absorption technology, the energy produced not only promotes the hand of watch, but also shakes the hearts of consumers. People who have ambitions will be successful. Through this proverb, the extraordinary quality of Citizen can be represented incisively and vividly.

Sense and Simplicity. (Philips)

精于心, 简于形。(飞利浦)

The advertising simulates one of famous works written by British novelist Jane Austen—*Sense and Sensibility*. It uses the rhetorical device of alliteration, which emphasizes that Philips's products have rich connotation and are easy to use. The author believes that people couldn't help but look for a few more time when they see things they are familiar with. *Sense and Sensibility* is known by people all over the world, which has a great influence. Therefore, using the name of this book can draw attention of people who know or like this book for the first time. It can arouse people's interest and achieve the effect of publicity.

It can be seen that the use of proverbs, idioms, sayings in the advertising translation can cause very different effect.

5. Creative Translation

Literary master Guo Moruo regarded translation as a kind of creative work in his 《谈文学翻译工作》. He said, "Translation is a kind of creative work, and good translation is equal to the creation, or even more than the creation. Translation is not a mediocre job, and it is more difficult than writing occasionally" (Guo, 1963, p.56). Creative translation requires that translator should have abundant knowledge, bold imagination and expanding thinking. Creative translation is the highest principle of advertising translation, because the soul of advertisement translation is the creativity.

Intel Inside. (Intel Pentium)

给电脑一颗奔腾的“芯”。

The advertisement can be literally translated as“内藏英特尔”, and it can also paraphrase as“内含英特尔奔腾CPU”. But the author has to admit that“给电脑一颗奔腾的‘芯’” is the best one. Because it uses the rhetorical device of pun, the advertisement not only represents the powerful microprocessor and energetic driving force of Pentium, but also highlights the brand value, leading people to think that the Intel Pentium is the CPU, and CPU is the Intel Pentium.

Connecting People. (NOKIA)

科技以人为本。(诺基亚)

This is the advertising of NOKIA mobile phone. Its literal meaning is “联系人们”, showing that the mobile phone can bring convenience in people and call others wherever and whenever people like. The advertising emphasizes the factors of people and connects the function and idea of NOKIA which realizes the value of translation.

It happens at the Hilton. (Hilton)

希尔顿酒店有求必应。

Hilton Hotel, a well-known chain hotel, its business spreads all over the world. The translation adds to the meaning of Hotel Hilton clearly, and increases a Chinese four-character idiom “有求必应”, reflecting a good cultural atmosphere of the hotel.

Whether in English or Chinese advertising, its purpose is to promote the sales of products. In this sense, the quality of the translation of the advertisement plays an important role in the product sales. Therefore, the author should flexibility use various translation methods, and continue to broaden the knowledge for improving the quality

of translation so that the advertisements can be accepted by consumers.

V. CONCLUSION

Advertising is a unique language, and it has distinct characteristics. Whether in terms of vocabulary, structure or rhetoric, it is different from other styles. Certain sentences, according to grammar, are fragmentary, but appearing in the advertisement can obtain very good effect. The use of rhetoric in advertising is also quite particular, resulting in a novel, unique, vivid, and eye-catching effect.

Every country has its own rich and splendid history, and rich culture and history of countries can also create the utterly different languages. The biggest gap of Chinese-English translation is the differences of cultural background in the aspects of cultural backgrounds, modes of thinking, aesthetic views, ethnic customs and habits which must be paid attention in the process of Chinese-English translation, otherwise there will be jokes (He, 2007).

Based on what is said above, this paper analyzes the application of the methods of literal translation, free translation, amplification, corresponding translation and creative translation in the translation of advertisements from the point of view of the characteristics and cultural factors. And these examples show that these methods can be used for advertising translation. The author should focus on the understanding of the original text and flexibility in the use of translation methods rather than too much stick to the original meaning and syntax. Only in this way, the author can ultimately achieve aims of advertising: on the one hand, it promotes consumers to take action to buy products; on the other hand, through the appreciation of the translation methods used by examples, it shows experiencing subtleties of language in advertisement translation.

Cross-cultural translation is very difficult, and it has a higher requirement for translators. Translators should possess excellent comprehensive competence of translation, including solid language skills, rich cultural knowledge and translation experience. However, along with the development of the trend of economic globalization, cross-cultural translation in advertising appears to be more and more important. The successful advertising translation is the key element for products to open up the market. It can not only bring economic benefits for enterprises, but also improve their reputation.

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The Impact of Different Teaching Strategies on Teaching Grammar to College Students

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Abstract—Grammar is considered critical to the ability to use language. Grammar teaching is an issue that provokes strong feelings and attitudes. Grammar teaching is particularly prominent in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings as it is perceived that without a good grammar knowledge, language development will be seriously inhibited. In the current study, we used three grammar instruction techniques including “the *Deductive Technique*”, “the *Inductive Technique*”, and “the *Implicit Technique*”. 80 college students, studying different fields in Abbar, Zanjan, participated in the study. They were assigned to three experimental groups for each of the three teaching techniques. The Deductive group consisted of 31 law students, both boys and girls, the Inductive group comprised 27 boy and girl accounting students, and there were 28 IT students in the Implicit group. The results of data analysis indicated that these groups performed differentially in certain respect. Meanwhile, the Inductive group exceeded the other groups in their performance.

Index Terms—grammar, theories of grammar, grammar teaching, implicit knowledge, deductive knowledge, inductive approach

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammar teaching and learning, in the past years, has experienced a drastic change. The prominent position and prestige that grammar once enjoyed, in the traditional context of language teaching, is replaced by almost complete negligence in modern innovative approaches. Grammar which held the central component of language instruction in the past, is now being frowned upon and holds no place in communicative approaches. Grammar instruction arouses mixed and even opposite attitudes and it is also one of the difficult aspects of language to teach well.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Definitions of Grammar

There exists a number of different assumptions and theories regarding the concept of grammar which indicate the influence by the underlying approaches (Ellis, 2006; Purpura, 2004). A looking at these definitions illustrates the ambiguity present in these assumptions. Grammar is the system or the rules of a language. David Crystal (1995) views grammar as the business of taking a language to pieces, to see how it works. In the same way, Penny (2000) thinks of grammar as agreed upon rules that delineate how words are combined to produce acceptable meaningful language units. However, grammar in a broader sense, is taken to mean: “an internal mental system”, “a set of prescriptions of language forms”, “a description of language behavior”, “the major structures of a language”, and finally “rules for instructional and assessment purposes” (Larsen-Freeman, 2009).

Linguists consider the concept of grammar in a very specific sense. In linguistics’ point of view, grammar is a set of internalized rules speakers use for generating and interpreting language. In this sense, grammar is mostly acquired and not learned by instruction and conscious training. To Richards (1992), grammar is the organization of a language; it is the manner by which units of language like words and phrases are combined to form sentences. In line with Richards, Wales (2001) defines grammar as the language element, specially the words, phrases and clauses that build sentences. Thus, grammar is the set of rules specifying the correct ordering of words at the sentence level (Nunan, 2003) or, similarly, the rules that govern how sentences are formed in a specific language (Thornbury, 2008).

B. The Importance of Grammar

Grammar is a framework for the analysis and description of languages. Grammar is of key significance for accuracy and correct language usage. It can act as an enabling skill and motivate students to some extent in their path to proficiency. Today, due to widespread use of tests as means of entering institutions, programs, as well as higher level education, which require the participants to act and perform accurately in these situations, students are expected to familiarize themselves with correct grammar. Thus, it necessitate for the educator to include grammatical proficiency as part of the curriculum. Meanwhile, without a good knowledge of grammar, clear and effective communication may

not be possible. Good knowledge of grammar is usually a sign of education and poor communication skills will lead to the formation of negative impressions in the interlocutors. In addition, correct writing and speaking confers you confidence and credibility. If you are spirant for great dreams and a higher professional reputation, it is of remarkable significance.

Grammatical rules, Ur (1999) believes, enable learners to know how sentence patterns work. Accordingly, grammar should center on the correct use of structural items or sentence patterns. Thus, grammar instruction covers the structure or sentence patterns of the language. Meanwhile, grammar underlies other language skills like reading, speaking and writing. In speaking grammar is greatly important for producing grammatically acceptable forms in the language (Corder, 1988). Thus, the role of grammar is important in language teaching to prepare communicative tasks. This is the same as Doff (2000), claim where he holds that students can convey meanings through phrases, clauses and sentences.

C. Traditional Approaches to Language Teaching

The prime example of the traditional language teaching was the Grammar-Translation method. Grammar-Translation dominated language teaching and instruction for so a long time. In this method explicit grammar teaching was the core constituent. They gave prominence to grammar that was considered all important and formed the central part of language learning. The leading learning activity, then, involved grammatical analysis and translation of written forms (Herron, 1976; Howatt, 1984; Rutherford, 1987).

The Grammar-Translation method which was primarily developed for the teaching of the classical languages of Greek and Latin, divided language into different parts to be learnt separately. The learner was supposed to practice decontextualized forms of language. The foremost features of the method involved explicit teaching of grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary lists, emphasis on written and not spoken language, the authority of the teacher, and translation from and into the target language. Under the Grammar-Translation method, students gained wide grammatical knowledge of the language but little communicative ability.

The traditional teaching method helped the students master the grammatical forms. However, the students were not able to use these rules in communication. Thus, the traditional method has some drawbacks. First, it was teacher-centered; the teacher is active while the learner is completely passive. Second, memorization and mechanical learning are the basic learning activities, which are by no means effective to provoke students' attention, shape their confidence, or develop their strategies in English learning and even makes them fear grammar learning (Chang, 2011).

The Audiolingual method which was a reaction against the Grammar-Translation method, stressed the development of the spoken language. However, spoken language was broken into discrete parts and presented in structured sequences of forms. Language was analyzed through different subsystems (Larsen Freeman & Long, 1991): phonology, morphology, and syntax. This is in line with the approach called structural or descriptive linguistics.

Audiolingualism adhered to the structural school of linguistics which considered language learning as the formation of correct habits. Classroom learning and teaching activities included repetition of models and memorization of dialogues. The purpose of these activities is to produce the target language as correctly as possible. Consequently, the final product of learning was accuracy. Thus, errors were detrimental to the flow of learning and were viewed as bad habits to be corrected at once (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

D. Prescriptive and Descriptive Grammar

Prescriptive grammar involves the correct use of language. It deals with what is grammatical and what is not grammatical and, therefore, should be avoided. A prescriptive grammar tells you how you should speak. It is a type of pedagogical grammar where the goal is to teach people how to use language in a proper or correct way. Prescriptive grammar, for example, requires that split infinitives be not used as they are improper or incorrect.

Descriptive grammar deals with describing the mental grammar, or the language as it is used by native speakers, not how it should be used. The difference between these two is that descriptive grammar states that a sentence is grammatical if it is produced by a native speaker, but for a prescriptive grammarian, a sentence is grammatical only if it follows certain grammatical rules. Thus, for the prescriptive grammarian surface form is very important than language in real context.

E. Deductive and Inductive Teaching

In deductive teaching, the rules are explicitly presented to the learners, which then are applied to produce specific examples based on the rule. After the presentation phase of the grammar rule, the learner engages with it through the study and manipulation of examples. This technique has been favored in language teaching and still dominates many course books and self-study grammar books (Fortune, 1992).

In inductive approach, the learners are presented with concrete examples of the given rule and, in return, they work out to discover the rules for themselves. This is a kind of discovery learning which involves some process of reasoning and inference. It is stated that the teacher starts teaching grammar with presenting examples and the learner discovers or induces the rules relating to the examples.

F. Implicit vs. Explicit Teaching

In teaching and learning, it is useful to know that there are two types of knowledge help gain language proficiency. They are referred to as *explicit* (conscious learning) and *implicit* (subconscious acquisition) knowledge (Klein, 1986).

To Ellis (2004), explicit knowledge is conscious knowledge of grammatical rules learned through formal classroom instruction, and is related to the conscious uses to language. Explicit knowledge helps intake and expansion of implicit language, as well as monitor output (Krashen, 1987). Brown (2000) views explicit knowledge as knowing about language and the ability to articulate those facts.

Implicit knowledge, to Brown (2000), is internalized, subconscious language knowledge accessible in the course of spontaneous language tasks. It can be attained through natural exposure to the language. This is the case in first language acquisition where the native speaker cannot consciously verbalize the rules governing the language.

A more balanced view: a judicious combination of both the explicit and the implicit grammar teaching techniques can be utilized to teach grammar forms. I mean that in the first phase, the teacher lets the students discover the rules for themselves implicitly. This is a problem solving technique which is profoundly beneficial to the learner to make his self-constructed version of form. After this initial phase, the teacher explicitly intervenes to provide further explanation and correct any misconceptions or wrong conclusions students have drawn.

G. Grammar Teaching

There has been strong controversy over the issue of grammar teaching in language learning, and some of the problems still persist. Teaching grammar is traditionally (Ur, 1996; Hedge, 2000) regarded as presenting and practicing specific grammatical points. However, this is a limited view of teaching grammar as grammar teaching and instruction can occur naturally by exposing learners to certain forms while focusing on the message in the accomplishment of some communicative tasks.

In EFL settings, grammar-translation has traditionally ruled grammar teaching. Larsen-Freeman (2000) observes that in such a method, native language is used to elicit meaning and translation from the target language into the native language constitutes the main classroom activity. In this method grammatical forms and vocabulary of the target language are deductively presented to the learners, and the learner, in return, is required to memorize them (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Some experts, for example Long (1983), Krashen (1987), and Swain (1985), believe that L2 acquisition reflects similar processes involved in L1, but research indicates that mere exposure cannot lead to the development of grammatical competence. As a result, form-focused instruction was incorporated into the language instruction programs. It is now a commonly accepted belief (White 1987; Ellis 2006; Van Patten 2004) that, while conveying the intended message is the final goal, teaching grammar should form a part of classroom activities.

H. Grammar Teaching Approaches

1. Traditional grammar teaching

Language teaching has traditionally focused on studying the classic languages of Greek and Latin, and mainly grammatical analysis of written forms. Grammar-translation embodies this approach. In this method explicit grammar teaching was the core constituent. They gave prominence to grammar that was considered all important and formed the central part of language learning. The leading learning activity, then, involved grammatical analysis and translation of written forms. The final product of this methodology was learners that, although having extensive knowledge of the grammatical rules of the language, were unable to use the language in unrehearsed communicative contexts.

2. Structural grammar and audio-lingualism

Structuralism was a reaction against to the grammar-translation method of language instruction. Structural or descriptive approach focused on the analysis of the sound system of the language, and dealt with language analysis in three parts (Larsen Freeman & Long, 1991): phonology, morphology, and syntax. Subsequently, structuralism was mixed with, then influential theory, behaviorism. The fusion led to the emergence of audio-lingualism which focused on the direct language learning to develop spoken fluency. The spoken language was in the form of oral drills, repetition and practice of language forms. Contrastive analysis of the two languages recognized areas of difficulty which formed the basis for the selection and presentation of teaching material. The goal was to attain accuracy and, consequently, errors were avoided at all cost as they led to the development of bad habits.

3. Functional approach

Functional syllabus was based on the learner's communicative needs. Functions determined the organization of the forms necessary for performing a specific communicative needs. Functional approach, which currently forms the basis of many language learning textbooks, is synthetic (Long and Crookes, 1992), and uses the three Ps syllabus (Skehan, 1998): presentation, practice, and production.

4. Universal Grammar

Rejecting the behavioristic habit formation view of the structural linguistics, Chomsky (1957) coined *Universal Grammar*. Universal grammar was certain generalizations and underlying assumptions that could be applied to all languages.

To Chomsky, language is a syntax- based generative inborn capacity in the human brain consisting of a surface structure and a deep structure. Chomsky made a distinction between competence, underlying language knowledge, and performance, the actual realization of that knowledge in practice (Cook, 1994).

5. Cognitive theory

Chomsky's emphasis on universal grammar and syntax led to the revival of the explicit grammar teaching. Grammar instruction, thus, focused on deductive learning and language development was considered as mental processes, as involved in any learning, to attain language competence. This new trend formed the basis of cognitivism. Cognitive theorists hold that human beings do not come into the world as blank slates; they bring innate knowledge that help acquire their language on a rule governed basis.

Cognitive view of language instruction justifies explicit grammar teaching. Norris and Ortega (2000) support the idea that explicit grammar teaching promotes language learning; learners, using cognitive comparison of the input they receive and the output they produce, can learn more effectively.

6. Communicative language teaching

Krashen's emphasis on natural language acquisition through communication as well as his emphasis on exposure and the comprehensible input in the form of meaningful learning, paved the way for the communicative language teaching. Communicative language teaching discards explicit grammar instruction and emphasizes on the presentation of language forms in the context of meaningful real communication on the assumption that learners can acquire the form naturally while focusing on the message. Communicative language teaching is humanistic and delays error correction to build the confidence of the learner, create a positive feeling avoid embarrassment and anxiety in the learner.

Krashen (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) holds that explicit grammar teaching is not needed to develop correctness and learners can acquire language through exposure. However, research (Brown, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 1991) fails to support the claim; grammatical competence is considered necessary for communication, but it is impossible in exposure. Meanwhile, in order to achieve essential communicative skills for social and academic success, instruction is deemed as necessary (Scarcella, 2003).

7. Form-focused instruction

Neither the grammar-translation method nor the communicative method could provide the solution for limitations in grammar teaching (Long, 1991). It was stated that the traditional syllabus (teaching certain discrete decontextualized grammar forms), and the communicative syllabus (neglecting the teaching of grammar) were not able to produce communicative competence (Skehan, 1996). To meet the objectives of an effective language instruction, form- focused instruction emerged. Focus on form was a way round this problem.

Focus on form is not the traditional explicit grammar teaching method. Long (1991) regards focus on form as an approach where primary focus is on meaning and communication with the learner only incidentally attends to linguistic elements. Focus on form recommends implicit language instruction. Focus on form is the planned or incidental integration of grammatical forms into the stream of language functions during the meaningful communication aiming to prompt language learners to pay attention to linguistic form (Ellis, 2001).

8. Noticing and consciousness raising

Grammar teaching is currently, (Schmidt, 1993; Skehan, 1998), viewed as consciousness raising meaning that specific feature is developed by formal instruction even if the learners cannot use the feature at once. This consciousness raising can also occur, in addition of formal instruction, by means of communication and interaction (Sharwood Smith, 1993). Of course, this is not the case in EFL situations where exposure to the target language is not possible and the learner cannot find any opportunities to interact with L2 speaker and internalize grammar rules.

According to Ellis (1996), as consciousness raises, either through formal instruction or communicative exposure, the learner notices the feature in the input. Noticing the feature in the sample leads to unconscious awareness of it and this very rule or feature restructures the learner's linguistic knowledge (Schmidt, 1990).

1. *An Effective Framework for Grammar Teaching*

Grammar is not a discrete skill to be acquired per se. Grammar instruction should form part of the whole of meaningful communication in real context. The purpose of grammar teaching is to facilitate communication. To satisfy this need, we should consider the following:

- ▶ Instruction should be provided in a way to link grammar forms to communication context.
- ▶ Only those forms that are more involved in the performance of the intended task are of primary significance.
- ▶ The instructor should try to invest the learner with personalized instruction to make sure of intake.
- ▶ An optimum level of error correction should be employed so as to maximize input while minimizing embarrassment.

Some traditionally-oriented language teachers tend to teach grammar by explaining the form and then make students drill and practice that form. This leads to good and correct performance in tests, but poor performance in communication. On the other hand, some teachers do not teach grammar at all and think that overt grammar instruction is not needed. Based on my experience in grammar teaching especially in EFL context, both in schools and colleges, I have come up with the following procedure which is both practical and efficient:

- We should be careful not to separate the grammar forms and the communication context.
- Use a variety of grammar instruction techniques to enforce learning.
- The teacher could develop his own text to meet the requirements of the teaching context and personalize teaching and learning.
- Students should be helped further to apply learnt rules to express new meanings.

- Model the application of the rule so that learners could have clear ideas of how it works.
- Check students' understanding and comprehension of the application of the rule.
- Provide ample opportunities and situations for meaningful practice of the rule.

J. Error Correction

Considering the correction of erroneous learner utterances, most experts prescribe the use of a balanced view; neither too much instant correction nor the total neglecting of the errors. In order to have an optimum level of error correction, the researcher recommends *delayed correction*. Delayed correction requires that the teacher corrects errors in way to avoid frustration and break the flow of communication. Meanwhile it is to be implemented so that errors are not fossilized. The learner should be provided with adequate time to self-correct. Self-correction is of the utmost importance. To achieve this aim, the instructor calls student's attention to the error and strives to lead the learner to, by pointed remarks and explanation, to the correct response.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

80 college students from three university centers in Tarom, Zanjan were selected to participate in this study. These students were roughly at the same age range, from 19 to 21, consisting of both boys and girls. The only prior experience they had in the English language instruction was at high school. All the participants were fluent Persian speakers, but most of them were bilinguals and could understand both Turkish and Persian and only a minor group of them was able to understand Tati, a native language spoken in some parts of Tarom.

These students were studying different fields including law, accounting, and IT. They were randomly assigned to three experimental groups, for the three techniques used in this paper. The Deductive group consisted of 31 law students, both boys and girls, the Inductive group comprised 27 boy and girl accounting students, and there were 28 IT students in the Implicit group.

B. Instrumentation

1. Pre-test

Due to the lack of a standard test for our goal, the researcher designed a test. A battery of tests was implemented to collect the required data. The initial test was a test of general English proficiency. The pre-test was pilot studied to improve any probable weaknesses. This pre-test was a multiple-choice test of grammar and reading comprehension. The reading passages comprised of grammar points that were presented in the textbook to be taught during the semester. They were carefully selected so as to correspond to grammar points as well as the topics of the units in the textbook. The test items were taken from the national university entrance exam (Konkour) and the final exams of high school third grade. Both sources were recognizable enough to credit as they were tests of nation-wide scope. The reading passages were followed by 25 multiple-choice questions, based on the reading, and 15 grammar questions as well. The pre- test was not timed and the students had enough time to answer the entire test items. Of course, to reduce the probable effects of other irrelevant factors on the study, in addition to this pre-test, the researcher decided to include a control group into the study, too. All groups were at the same level concerning their English background, and all groups' performance was the same in the initial phase prior to the experiment. In this way, groups' homogeneity was ascertained and allowed for enquiry. In this way we could logically ascribe the failure or success of the activities on spelling skills.

2. Post-test

The same pre-test was administered as the post-test after a time interval of four months. There was no considerable test effect as the interval was long enough. Only a small number of the participants remembered to have taken the test before and so they could not logically be influenced by the pre-test. The results of the pre-test were statistically analyzed and led to the inference that the sample was homogeneous as far as their general English proficiency is concerned.

3. The on-going quizzes

After teaching every unit, a teacher-made test based on the same unit was administered. In designing these tests, the researcher made use of both inside the text materials and outside resources. All these four quizzes were designed and developed in this way to make sure of an optimal validity.

4. The questionnaire

In addition to the tests introduced earlier, the researcher made use of a questionnaire in the study to assess the impressions and attitudes of the students concerning the use of grammar teaching techniques. The questionnaire contained 10 items with answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This questionnaire was intended to measure and evaluate the attitudes of the participants in terms of the efficiency of the techniques in the views of the students.

5. The final test

At the end of the semester, a final test was administered to all groups. This was a researcher- made test with uniform way of administration and scoring. All groups were tested on the same test in exactly the same way and I used blind scoring procedure to make sure of an unbiased conclusion. The final test included both grammar items and reading comprehension section, too. The researcher intended to evaluate the effects of grammar teaching techniques on the learners' reading comprehension ability. Therefore, I included a reading comprehension part in the final test, too. Of course,

it is to be mentioned that the pre-test (which was also the posttest) had reading comprehension items for the same purpose. These reading passages contained grammatical points presented in the units.

6. Validity

As there was no standard test for our purpose, the researcher developed a test. A battery of tests was implemented until the final version was attained. The initial test was a general English proficiency test. The pre-test was pilot studied to find any probable shortcomings and improve it. The test items were taken from the national university entrance exam (Konkoor) and the final exams of high school third grade. Both sources were recognizable enough to credit as they were tests of nation-wide scope. However, to achieve an optimum level of validity, the researcher consulted some experts in the fields. These were three experienced EFL teachers and four university instructors. They recommended some revisions and corrections which were applied to refine the test.

7. Reliability

According to Hatch and Farhady (1981), reliability is the extent to which a test produces consistent results when administered under similar conditions. In other words, reliability is the stability of the results in different measurements. Reliable test scores could be compared with each other in more than one occasion. An unreliable test could be compared to a plastic flexible ruler which measures a certain distance, in different occasions, but yields different measures. In this study the Cronbach's Alpha formula was used. The reliability in this study is measured to be .908.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Pre-test and the Post-test

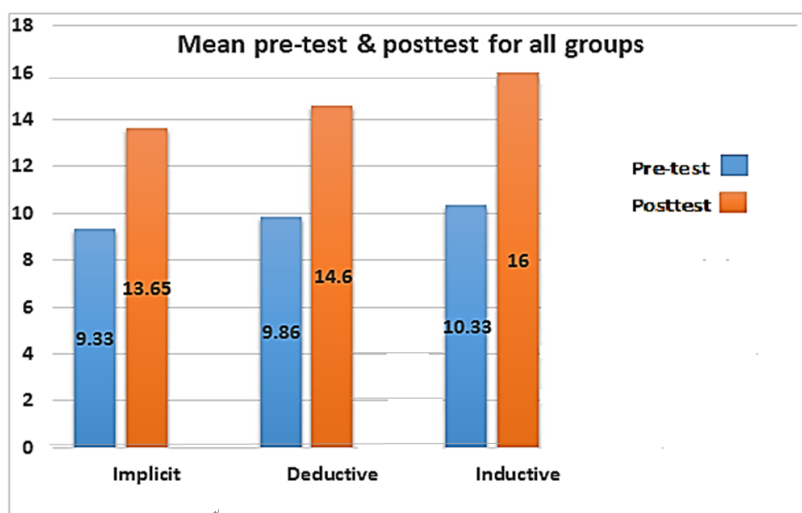


Chart 1. Mean scores in pre-test and posttest for all groups

The results obtained from comparing the mean scores in the pre-test and the post-test, emphasize the significant changes taken place as a result of applying the instructional techniques. They confirm the positive and favorable impact of these techniques on the performance of the students in the study. As the above chart indicates, the implemented techniques have led to changes and improvements in performance.

Concerning the efficiency of the techniques, as confirmed by the results of the tests, these strategies are all helpful and all enhance grammar skill; all of the three techniques significantly lead to a better performance, the degree of change, however, is not identical for all techniques. Based on the findings, it is clear that out of these three techniques, the Inductive technique is more effective.

B. Quizzes

After the pretest observation, three more tests (quizzes) were administered to all groups. As chart 2 shows, the *inductive* group has outperformed the other groups in all the three quizzes.

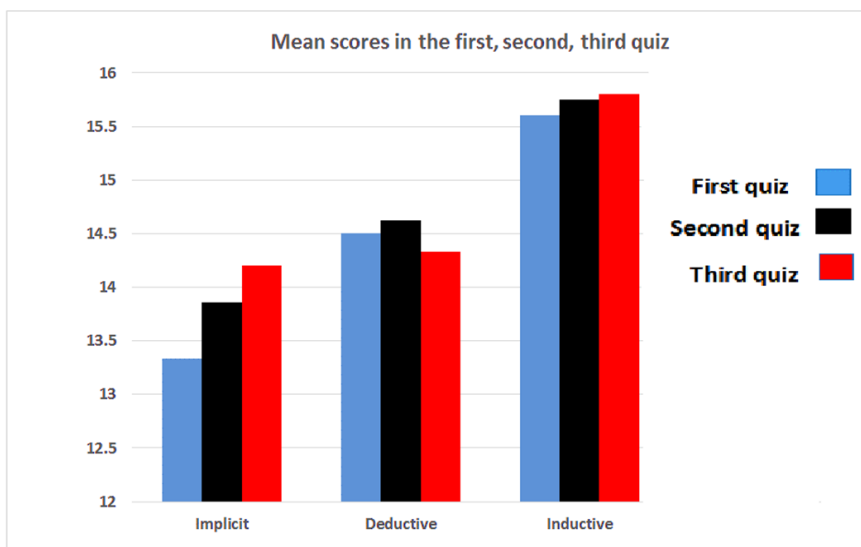


Chart 2. Comparing mean scores in three quizzes

These findings conform to the previous results; in the similar way, again, we can seek answer to the research questions in the study. Thus, it could be concluded that the Inductive grammar teaching technique is, compared to other techniques, is more effective in bringing about the favorable change and improvement.

C. The Final Test

The analysis of the final test reveals the same results. The *inductive* group had better performance in the final test. The mean score in the inductive group is well above the other two groups. The *deductive* group placed in between the two groups, and the *implicit* group placed third in the final test. Thus it is recommended to be used in teaching grammar. Of course, the groups had similar performance in the reading comprehension section of the test. This was the opposite of what the researcher supposed before. Therefore, grammar instruction, based on the findings of the current study, could not affect the reading comprehension ability of the students and there may not be a direct link between reading and grammar knowledge. Of course, this point needs further research and investigation.

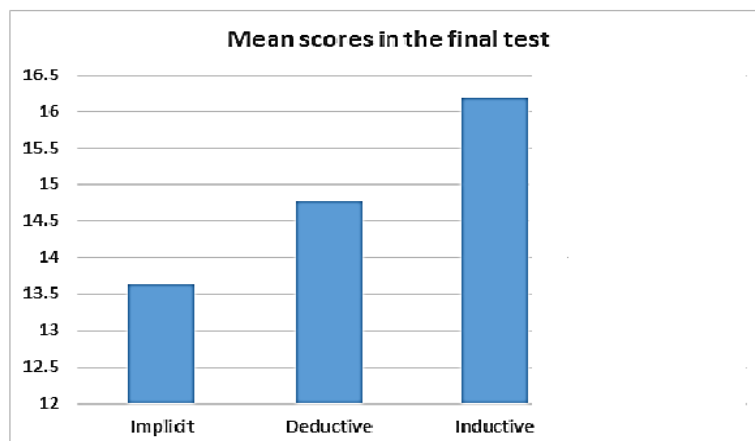


Chart 3 Mean scores in final test for all groups

V. CONCLUSION

A. Findings

This study intended to evaluate the efficiency of the grammar teaching techniques (the Implicit, the Deductive, and the Inductive techniques) on EFL college students. There were three research questions the answers to which formed the basis for the paper. This study was conducted with 80 college students, both boys and girls, who were divided into three experimental groups, for the three techniques.

The observation made as the pre-test, assured the researcher of the similarity and homogeneity of all three groups. The observation revealed that the students were at same level. All the participants in all groups made progress to a large extent. A comparison of the mean of the scores obtained from the post-test proves this progress and advancement.

An important finding of the study concerns the impacts of grammar teaching and the reading comprehension skill. These findings indicate that grammar and reading are not related together, as opposed to what the researcher supposed prior to the study. The researcher included the reading part to investigate the impact of grammar instruction on the reading comprehension ability of the learners. In this study, it was observed that grammar teaching has very little, if any, influence on comprehension. The researcher was surprised to know the fact and by no means could imagine the possibility of the very finding.

B. Applications and Implications

It seems that grammar is treated on an all or nothing basis depending the orientation of the instructor. In some cases grammar teaching is profoundly overemphasized and in other cases it is completely ignored. However, teaching grammar necessitates its own specialty and deserves its own special position in the curriculum. Familiarity with the theories involved in grammar instruction and designing appropriate activities and tasks to contextualize the point is a great concern.

In the present study, there were three research questions and hypotheses. Based on the findings in the study, it could be concluded that the inductive techniques led to a more effective instruction and yielded better results than the other techniques. As for teachers, they could improve their own presentation and teaching and their students' reading and grammar skill through the effective use of instructional techniques.

The results of the study can potentially change EFL teachers' attitudes about the nature of grammar. They can utilize suitable grammar techniques and can help their students by providing opportunities for the students to use these spelling techniques in practice in real situations. The role of EFL teacher is all important in this respect. He can make up for the shortcomings in the course books through his own experience and the provision of effective techniques (Hashemi and Ghalkhani, 2016).

Material developers, syllabus designers, parents, and all those involved in teaching and learning, can make use of these findings for providing better conditions for learning and teaching. Providing students with modern methods and techniques for learning is undoubtedly a great thing; we can help them to read effectively and have better comprehension and enjoy reading as fun (Hashemi, Mobini and Karimkhanlooie, 2016).

C. Suggestions for Further Research

In the present study, some variables such as gender were not taken into account. Further studies can focus on the role of gender in grammar instruction. Future research, also can focus on other aspects of language and explore the efficiency of such techniques on other language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, and writing.

Future research can investigate the link between grammar and reading comprehension. As stated above, we could find no relationship between grammar and reading skill, and this could be further studied to correct or modify this conclusion.

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A Study on the Cultivation of Critical Thinking Ability of English Majors

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Abstract—The critical thinking ability is the premise and foundation of innovation ability. It is also an important goal of talents training in higher education. College English teaching should not only focus on the cultivation of students' English knowledge and skills, but also the cultivation of students' critical thinking ability. This article first discusses the connotation of critical thinking ability, followed by theoretical foundation introduction and analysis of the problems of critical thinking cultivation of English majors, and finally puts forward the countermeasures of cultivating students' critical thinking from the following eight aspects: paying attention to classroom questioning skills, changing the classroom teaching mode, creating relaxing teaching atmosphere, building a new student evaluation system, designing the classroom teaching reasonably and improving teachers' critical thinking ability and raising students' awareness of critical thinking ability self training, adopting PBL teaching method, in order to effectively cultivate students' independent thinking and judgment ability, and to better improve the teaching effect of college English.

Index Terms—English major, critical thinking, questioning, teaching model, evaluation

I. INTRODUCTION

In the present era of mass data and information explosion, the core of international society competition is talent competition. Innovative thinking ability is one of the most important criteria for measuring the quality of personnel training, and training innovative talents has become one of the main goals of higher education. The law of higher education of People's Republic of China (1999) points out that the task of higher education in China is to cultivate advanced professional talents with innovative spirit and practical ability. It is obvious that the cultivation of students' creative thinking ability is an important task in our country's education. The core of innovative talents is innovative ability, while the premise of innovative thinking is critical thinking. Therefore, the cultivation of critical thinking is very important. Cultivating critical thinking ability is also the foundation of information processing ability and autonomous learning ability.

However, contemporary Chinese college students generally lack the spirit of innovation and critical awareness. For a long time, the cultivation of students' innovative thinking ability in college teaching is hugely ignored, and it is the same with the education of critical thinking. The traditional "jug and mug" cramming method of teaching and exam oriented education bound students' thinking and innovation awareness, and a majority of students only focus on rote learning, generally lack the spirit of independent thinking. Therefore, in order to change the status quo, we must change the educational concept and way of thinking, arouse students' critical thinking awareness and train students' critical thinking, which is of great importance for the improvement of students' innovative ability.

In recent years, critical thinking has been the focus of research at home and abroad, and the development of critical thinking ability of college students has been widely concerned by many experts and scholars (Siegel, 1988; Paul, 1993; Halpern, 1999; Norris, 2001; Ricketts, 2003; Wu, 2015). The study of experts and scholars on the critical thinking ability of college students concentrated on the aspects such as, the current situation, questionnaire scale development, training methods, difference between arts and science students, and academic achievement, and its relationship between reading and writing, influence on the efficiency of language teaching mode on critical thinking ability of English majors and so on and it has achieved certain results (Gao, 1999; Han, 2009; Huang; Wen, 2010, 2011; Li; Ren, 2013; Ma, 2016). But at present, the study into the critical thinking ability taking English majors in second batch university as the subject is still scarce, therefore the article attempts to enrich the study of the critical thinking ability and supply some reference for the critical thinking ability cultivation in the college English teaching.

II. CONNOTATION OF CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY

The word "critique" originates in Greece, which refers to questioning, analysis, evaluation and so on. Socrates is recognized as the founder of western critical thinking. In modern times, Dewey (1933) pointed out that critical thinking includes reflecting on problems, analysis of the status quo, and actively participating in the combination and extracting steps of analysis and conclusion. Critical thinking ability covers interpretation, analysis, evaluation, speculation, explanation and self adjustment ability, which shows that it does not yield authority and does not blindly confidently seek authenticity, and it possess the traits of openness, analysis and tenacity (Facione, 1992). Critical thinking is a prudent and doubtful thinking activity. It guides people's beliefs and actions through observing, reflecting, reasoning

and communicating psychological processes (Zhong, 2002). Critical thinking is conscious thinking through certain criterion of thinking, and ultimately making rational judgment, and then improving the rational thinking, and reflective thinking is the thinking skill. It takes a logical method as the foundation, combined with the people's everyday thinking and psychology, the development tendency of a series of thinking skills and ability, which are extremely useful thinking skill, so that we can distinguish the real and useful information from the vast amounts of information data (Wen, 2009).

As for the theoretical model of critical thinking, the Socrates method is the earliest critical thinking model in Europe. The Socratic method mainly adopts dialogue, discussion, and heuristic teaching method, in which through posing questions to the students, each student's answer constantly exposes contradictions, and the teacher guides students to draw the general conclusion. The core of this approach is to emphasize thinking clearly and carefully through questioning the traditional concept of authenticity, and cultivate students' independent thinking and critical thinking ability. At present, among the domestic and foreign theoretical model of critical thinking, the most famous four models are as follows: the Delphi study model, three element model (Paul & Elder model), Anderson et al multi level model, and cognitive ability hierarchy theory model (Wen, 2009). The Delphi research model believes that critical thinking ability includes cognitive and affective qualities. Cognitive skills include such six parts as understanding, analysis, inference, explanation, evaluation and self correction. Affect refers to seeking truth and open-mind, analytical skills, systematic, self-confidence, which explores seven personality traits and cognitive maturity. The three-element structure model divides critical thinking into eight elements and nine standards. Eight elements refers to purpose, problems, concepts, information, conclusions and assumptions, implication and perspective and nine standards means clear and truth, accuracy, relevance, depth, breadth, meaning, logic and justice. And the Anderson et al cognitive multi-layer model divides the thinking skills into a lower level and a higher level. The lower level of thinking skills includes memory and understanding, and the higher level of thinking skills includes application, analysis, evaluation and creation. This model classifies all kinds of skills in critical thinking ability, highlights the process and dynamics of thinking skills, and explains the relationship between critical thinking ability and innovative ability. Wen (2009) proposed that the theoretical model of speculative ability level includes two aspects, that is, the ability of meta-thinking and the ability of thinking. Meta-cognition is the highest level in the hierarchical theoretical model, that is, the skills of planning, managing, monitoring and evaluating your own thinking. And the ability of thinking is divided into cognitive skills and affective qualities.

III. THEORY FOUNDATION

Critical thinking ability is based on the famous constructivist theory. Constructivist theory (constructivism) is also translated as structuralism, which is a branch of cognitive psychology. Jean Piaget, Jerome Bruner, and George Kelly are the three recognized authorities in the field (Burden, 2000). An important concept of constructivism is schema, which refers to the way individuals understand and think about the world. It can also be regarded as a framework or organizational structure of mental activity. Schema is the starting point and core of cognitive structure or it is the basis of human cognition. Therefore, schema formation and change is the essence of cognitive development, cognitive development is influenced by three processes: assimilation, adaptation and balance.

Besides, the theory of constructivism is very rich in content, but its core can be summed up with a word: student-centered, emphasizing significance of students' active exploration and independent construction and discovery of knowledge. Constructivists think that knowledge cannot be transferred from teacher to learner by simple textbook teaching. The teachers should not tell the students what concepts they should construct and how they should construct them during learning and they should present topics, concepts and other related information in the form of problems. It is clear that all too often traditional language teaching attaches too much attention to memorizing and repeating, which cannot efficiently guide students to do deeper and further thinking. Teachers should encourage and guide learners to put forward their own questions, raise their own hypotheses and seek the right answers, which is the nature of learning. Constructivist teachers encourage students to constantly assess how the activity is helping them gain understanding. By questioning themselves and their strategies, students in the constructivist classroom ideally become "expert learners." This gives them ever-broadening tools to keep learning. With a well-planned classroom environment, the students learn how to learn. Constructivism lays theoretical supporting for critical thinking cultivation.

IV. THE PROBLEMS IN ENGLISH MAJOR TEACHING

"English Teaching Syllabus for English Majors" (2000) pointed out that we should strengthen the cultivation of students' critical thinking ability and innovation ability to consciously train students' analysis and synthesis, abstraction and generalization, multi angle analysis and other thinking ability and the innovative ability and guide them to find the problems and solve the problem in the teaching of specialized courses. The teacher should have correct handling of language skills and thinking ability and innovation ability in teaching, which are indispensable. But up to now, the national English major teaching has made slow progress in cultivating students' critical thinking ability. College English teaching still adopts the traditional cramming teaching method, teacher centered, and teachers dominate the whole class and emphasize too much on language knowledge and structure. The traditional teaching way ignores students' thinking, and students are busy taking notes, passively accept the teacher's point of view, blindly accepting teacher's absolute

authority but lack of analysis, identification, evaluation and critical awareness. Students rarely have their own ideas, and do not dare to question and they do not have the habit of thinking independently. This traditional teaching is not conducive to the cultivation of students' critical thinking ability. Therefore, the cultivation of critical thinking is very important for the students of English majors.

V. COUNTERMEASURES OF CULTIVATING CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY

A. *Paying Attention to the Skills of Asking Questions in the Classroom*

In the English classroom, that teachers design effective classroom questions is very important to improve students' critical thinking ability and innovative ability, and the most effective way is to carry out effective questioning of teachers, because teachers' effective questions can guide the students to use critical thinking way of thinking, so as to improve the ability of critical thinking. For example, in the English reading class, displaying questions generally appear in the initial stage of text reading, teachers ask questions about the words of the text, details or textual structure, and students can quickly find the answer from the text, and the understanding of the surface information will be able to answer the question. According to the students' level, teachers can design further mining problem to understand the text deeper. If students answer the questions, they need to refer to and dig text information deeper, combine their own knowledge and experience, analyze and compare information, and do reasoning and summary conclusion. Besides, assessment questions are generally used for the final stages of text processing, and teachers guide students to evaluate, summarize and practice.

B. *Changing the Mode of Classroom Teaching*

To enhance students' critical thinking ability, we must transform classroom teaching mode and broaden students' horizons so that they can not only acquire knowledge, but also apply knowledge to solve practical problems and innovate. The classroom teaching mode should be established under the guidance of the concept of ecological teaching. Teachers should make full use of multimedia, multi-modal teaching mode and carry out cooperative learning among students. The difference of critical thinking and traditional blind way of thinking is that it emphasizes the individual differences, therefore, teachers should be open-minded and tolerant and respect objectivity, rigor, rationality and logic and welcome students' various views and reasoning, and give them objective, reasonable and rigorous praise and encouragement, and try to avoid some set conclusions as to classroom discussion and debate topics in order to ensure the effect of classroom training of critical thinking. In the use of teaching materials, classroom teaching should take different levels of students into consideration and vary the activities and exercises. Simple tasks mainly involve both simple imitation and memory, but students also have to exchange for the purpose of language output. In class, students not only have to master and practice the basic knowledge of the text, but there should also be extension activities. Students are required to accept and use the knowledge of the language, and also required to develop their critical thinking.

C. *Creating a Relaxing Teaching Atmosphere*

The premise and foundation of the creative activities are psychological security and freedom, and only psychological security can lead to psychological freedom, and can also lead to the creativity of learning. English classroom must create a relaxing and free learning environment, so that it is more conducive to students' learning. The cultivation of college students' critical thinking ability also needs to create a relaxing and free learning environment actively, so that students can actively handle the relationship between thinking and learning, so that students can think and learn happily and creatively. Critical thinking puts emphasis on high level of thinking ability and sensitivity of students, and does not emphasize the students' passive acceptance of the English knowledge, but actively encourages students to carry out meaningful doubting and questioning, so that students can look for some good questions and determine the rationality hypothesis according to certain criteria. Therefore, in carrying out the specific teaching process, teachers should actively encourage students to give full play to their initiative, make them contact each other in the exploration of English learning materials as to each knowledge point, analyze and summarize knowledge, so as to steadily improve their ability of critical thinking.

D. *Constructing a New Student Evaluation System*

Teachers should reposition the evaluation system, not only focus on assessing students' knowledge acquisition ability, but also focus on their critical thinking ability, because developing good teaching evaluation methods can guide and motivate students' critical thinking. The traditional teaching evaluation methods and standards are single and rigid, limiting students' ideas and stifling students' imagination and creativity. To cultivate students' critical thinking ability, teaching evaluation can combine formative evaluation with summative evaluation. Formative evaluation is a comprehensive and more reasonable evaluation of the students' learning process. Teachers can evaluate students in open, relaxing and democratic atmosphere through questionnaires, interviews with students, classroom observation, students' self-assessment, mutual evaluation and parental evaluation. The evaluation includes not only the basic knowledge, but also the ability to acquire knowledge and apply knowledge, and communication skills, interpersonal skills and teamwork skills. The evaluation results can be described by descriptive language or grade scoring system, which can

truly evaluate students' comprehensive quality, fully embody the students' personality and improve their critical thinking ability and innovative ability.

E. Reasonable Design of Classroom Teaching

In the course of English teaching, in order to effectively cultivate the students' critical thinking ability, it is necessary for the English class to be rationally designed. In the English reading class for example, first, before reading, teachers can assign students certain preview task, guide the students to make full use of the network and library resources to find relevant information, and ask the students to communicate with each other in the classroom, according to the title and illustrations of the text, as this process can be effective to exercise the critical thinking ability of students, improve the students' interest in the topic of the text, and prepare for reading. Secondly, in the process of reading, teachers can increase Chinese culture and integrate English learning into Chinese language and culture background, which can better promote the integration of two languages of English and Chinese and improve students' intercultural communicative competence. Textbook writers should examine the cognitive level of college students in different regions, and choose different Chinese cultural contents for different learning purposes and majors. Based on the cultural contrast between Chinese and English, teachers should organize English teaching activities, arrange teaching tasks to search cultural materials, and it can not only improve students' ability to identify culture, but also can cultivate students' initiative in autonomous learning.

F. Improving Teachers' Critical Thinking Ability

Teachers should realize the significance of critical thinking and equip themselves with critical thinking ability at first. In the new era, in addition to transmitting knowledge in textbooks, teachers should spend extra time in cultivating students' thinking ability in their classes, especially students' critical thinking ability. However, most of the EFL teachers fail to realize the importance of critical thinking ability in EFL teaching and learning in China. Most of them neglect the importance of cultivating students' critical thinking ability. Therefore, teachers should change their traditional notions toward critical thinking and realize the importance of critical thinking, and what's more, they should master professional knowledge of critical thinking. Only in this way can teachers permeate critical thinking into their teaching.

G. Raise Students' Awareness of Critical Thinking Ability Training

To cultivate students' critical thinking ability, the most important thing is that students should realize the importance of critical thinking ability and cultivate their own critical thinking ability consciously and initiatively. There are various methods that they can adopt to develop their own critical thinking ability. For example, they can organize or take part in such interesting and important activities as debating, oral presentation, and English writing competitions in class or in their spare time. Besides, they can raise their critical thinking ability by following such principles as, to keep an open mind, cultivate intellectual curiosity, challenge conventional wisdom, practice empathy, check the validity of your information, cultivate listening skills, heed their intuition, and withhold judgment until they are sure they have adequate information and so on. Moreover, students should also follow the three "Don'ts" principle: Don't take things at face value. Don't automatically accept authority. Don't tolerate ongoing and unproductive ambiguity. Students should make great efforts to jump out of thinking stereotype, challenge authority and convention, think bravely and independently, and try to develop their habit and ability of critical thinking.

H. PBL Teaching Method

Much different from the traditional teaching method, PBL teaching method considers students rather than teachers as the center of class. PBL teaching is often linked to some task or a bigger problem, involve learners into some question, and it can promote students to think. And in order to solve the problem, students need access to extracurricular information, induce, organize knowledge and skills learned which is beneficial to the cultivation of students' autonomous learning spirit. Furthermore, PBL teaching method is to isolate knowledge into the whole piece of stiff knowledge chain by analogy, and it highlights the teaching philosophy of "Classroom is the soul, and students and teachers are the key." In the teaching process of PBL, teachers gradually retreat, and they only coach, support and assist at the crucial moment, and the teacher is no longer the only knowledge base, but is a facilitator, a subject expert, information consultant for students' construction of knowledge. PBL teaching designs the real task, emphasizes the learning set to the complex and meaningful problem situation, and solves the problem by the learners' independent inquiry and cooperation, so as to learn the implicit knowledge from problem solving, and students can gradually form problem solving ability and independent learning skills, which can greatly improve the critical thinking ability of students.

VI. CONCLUSION

The critical thinking ability of college students is an essential ability, and it is very important to develop students' critical thinking ability in college English teaching, but the cultivation of critical thinking is a long-term and arduous task, because the students generally accept traditional examination oriented education from kindergarten to university with a serious lack of critical thinking. Students generally love and are also accustomed to employ mechanical memory,

and students' learning is passive, lack of independent learning ability, and they have the habit of waiting for the teacher to arrange the assignment, although they can do very well, but they are not used to exploring their own problems, lack of innovation spirit and ability. But this situation is difficult to change in a short period of time, and it needs the joint efforts of teachers, student, educators, parents and the whole society.

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A Descriptive Study of Life Syllabus in Assessing Proficiency Level and Collocational Categories of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—This research is done to prove the effect of life syllabus in assessing proficiency level and collocational categories of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, four hundred and twenty EFL learners from Yazd and Shiraz universities were selected. They were in intermediate and advanced proficiency groups. The participants were assigned into three groups of one hundred and forty learners and took each of the tests separately. The result appeared to manifest that learners' perception improve by advanced learners who received life syllabus instructions. It also yielded compelling reason to argue that advanced participants based on life syllabus performed more efficiently compared to their intermediate peers and indicated more collocational competence. The study suggested important implications for language learners, EFL instructors and materials developers.

Index Terms—life syllabus, collocation, language proficiency, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

The framework of this research is based on Pishghadam's Applied ELT and Life Syllabus (2011). Pishghadam's paper (2011) altered view of ELT for thinking about foreign language studies and its own educational nature. Pishghadam (2011) stated that it is time to have revision in applied linguistics and ELT. So, he presented a new idea of *Applied ELT* into English language teaching and learning. Therefore, learning would be interesting for learners in Applied ELT as there are more interesting features that facilitate learning for them. However, applied ELT is to switch the direction, taking a more contributory role (Pishghadam, 2011). In applied ELT, discussions are over language and linguistics with issues regarding life qualities. So, it's time for ELT to engage in *life-and-language* classes rather than *language-and-life* ones (Pishghadam & Zabihi, 2012, 2013). Applied ELT, with the purpose of sending a map as Life Syllabus for the ELT community to consider the improvement of these life skills prior to language learning was further expanded by Pishghadam and Zabihi (2012). ELT classes can therefore be suitable places for life skills training programs. ELT classes can therefore be suitable places for life skills training programs (Pishghadam & Zabihi, 2012).

One of the main approaches to language testing is the integrative approach. It is concerned with overall meaning and proficiency, the communicative effect of discourse and the underlying linguistic competence (Oller, 1979).

Vocabulary knowledge don't consider understanding the meanings of given words in isolation, but also knowing the words that co-occur with each other. English language native speakers have thousands of words at their disposal. Theoretically, by using their knowledge of grammar, they use the words to produce and comprehend an unlimited number of sentences that they have never heard or said before. Putting words together according to their communication needs in different ways makes them to use a large number of ready-made chunks of words. When words are combined in a chunk, they have the ability to predict each other's occurrence.

This study is aimed at the effect of life syllabus in assessing proficiency level and collocational categories of Iranian EFL learners. Thus, it intends to determine whether that advanced participants based on life syllabus performed more efficiently compared to their intermediate peers and indicated more collocational competence or not.

A. Collocational Competence

Learning a language is the result of many competences grouped together; so, these competences should be developed to achieve the learning objectives. Communicative and linguistic competences are familiar expressions but "collocational competence" is usually an unfamiliar phrase. Lewis (2000) claimed most of us are acquainted with the concept of communicative competence, but we should add conception of collocational competence to our thinking.

Students have many problems in their writing assignments without using this competence. One is grammatical mistakes. Because students are willing to create longer utterances, as they do not know collocations (Hill, as cited in Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 49). Collocations are greatly different between languages and make difficulty in mastering foreign languages. Therefore, to overcome collocational problems, learners need help in the classroom. Collocational competence should be developed to overcome the problem of word associations and to get fluency and proficiency in English and also especially foreign language writing. The improvement of communicative competence would result in the development of students' collocational competence. Understanding collocations means knowing vocabulary, writing

and speaking which helps the learner to perform better in the foreign language and that enables him/her to speak and write more efficiently. Hoey (2005) claimed that every word has a collocation use. The selection of one word will help language learner to recall its regular collocates more readily. He mentioned that, this priming is the result of the way in which a word is acquired through confrontations with it in speech and writing.

B. Collocations and Second Language Teaching

After the development of electronic corpora in the 1960s, the term *collocation* has been given more attention and also the combinational patterns in the English language increased. Since then, research on collocations has increased substantially. Some authors like Ellis (2001) support the idea that knowledge of language depends on collocational knowledge. Although the extensive use and importance of collocations in the language is identified by many authors (Kjellmer 1984; Nation, 2001; Stubbs 1995), not much attempts have been made to combine the collocations teaching in the English learning curriculum. Michael Lewis developed the Lexical Approach (1993), and McCarthy et al. (2006), authors of the *Touchstone* material include collocations in the vocabulary work. Nesselhauf (2005) studies collocations in a learner corpus and presents suggestions on selecting collocations for teaching English.

The idea of teaching a word boosts with its most common collocates and explains, for example most intermediate students understand the words *hold* and *conversation*; however they may not understand the collocation *hold a conversation* (Hill, 2000). He also declares that vocabulary work in most classes should be to make students more collocationally competent with the words which they are already familiar. This would then be familiar language and its collocations.

Fluency is often defined on the one hand in terms of smoothness, rate of speech, pausing, hesitations and connectedness; on the other hand more fluent speakers are likely to use more lengthy utterances and to speak more (Luoma, 2004). Therefore, less fluent speakers produce slow and uneven speech with more hesitations and stumbling which can be corrected by enhancing the process of planning in speaking and paving the way for automatic retrieval of necessary vocabulary and grammar (Fulcher, 2003).

L2 learners generally pay attention to individual words and break the collocation down into separate units, which influence their fluency as they have to reconstruct the words appropriately at the time of use (Barfield, 2009; Wray, 2002). This approach which focuses on awareness-raising activities in teaching collocations was considered as an option to fill the gap in teaching collocations/ multiword units. The attention-drawing technique which is also referred to as the effectiveness of 'phrase-noticing' is related to Lewis's Lexical Approach. It has also been put to the test by Boers et al. (2006). The types of collocations that should be taught are very important and it has not been properly addressed. Collocation dictionaries which provide common collocations are useful for teachers and L2 learners.

C. Lexical and Grammatical Collocations

Collocations fall into two major groups: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations (Benson & Ilson, 1997).

1. Grammatical Collocations

Grammatical collocations consist of a noun, an adjective, a verb plus a preposition or 'to +infinitive' or 'that-clause' and is distinguished by 8 basic kinds of collocations:

G1= noun + preposition e.g. *blockade against, apathy towards*

G2= noun + to-infinitive e.g. *He was a fool to do it., They felt a need to do it.*

G3= noun + that-clause e.g. *We reached an agreement that she would represent us in court.*

G4= preposition + noun e.g. *by accident, in agony*

G5= adjective + preposition e.g. *fond of children, hungry for news*

G6= adjective + to-infinitive e.g. *it was necessary to work, it's nice to be here*

G7= adjective + that-clause e.g. *she was afraid that she would fail, it was imperative that I be here*

G8= 19 different verb patterns in English e.g. verb + to-infinitive (*they began to speak*), verb + bare infinitive (*we must work*) and other.

2. Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocations consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. They also do not contain prepositions, infinitives or relative clauses. We have 7 types of them below:

L1= verb (which means creation/action) + noun/pronoun/prepositional phrase e.g. *come to an agreement, launch a missile*

L2= verb (which means eradication/cancellation) + noun e.g. *reject an appeal, crush resistance*

L3= [adjective + noun] or [noun used in an attributive way + noun] e.g. *strong tea, a crushing defeat, house arrest, land reform*

L4= noun + verb naming the activity which is performed by a designate of this noun e.g. *bombs explode, bees sting*

L5= quantifier + noun e.g. *a swarm of bees, a piece of advice*

L6= adverb + adjective e.g. *hopelessly addicted, sound asleep*

L7= verb + adverb e.g. *argue heatedly, apologize humbly.*

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study used quantitative methods in measuring collocational competence of Iranian EFL learners.

A. Participants

The participants were 420 Persian EFL learners of English who were studying English language at Yazd and Shiraz universities. They were male and female students that their ages were between 18-24 for intermediate group and 23-32 for advanced group.

B. Instruments

Several instruments used for data collection. In this study, four types of test were utilized as measurement instruments:

First, an Oxford placement test was conducted to determine participants' collocation proficiency so as to select and include those students who scored within acceptable range of collocation proficiency in the study. Second, a 50-item collocation C-test with high validity was developed for this study. Next, a 50-item multiple-choice standard collocation cloze test was developed for this study. Finally, a 50 item collocation open ended test was developed for this study.

III. RESULTS

In this study, learning collocation was to provide an explanation whether these three types of test e.g. cloze test, C-test and open ended test are effective in measuring the collocational competence of EFL learners, and which of these three tests are more effective in measuring collocational competence of learners.

A. ANOVA Results for Test Types and Proficiency Level

TABLE 3.1

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO-WAY ANOVA REGARDING THE EFFECT OF TEST TYPE AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL ON COLLOCATIONAL SCORES

Descriptive Statistics				
Dependent Variable: Scores				
Test_type	Proficiency_level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Cloze	Intermediate	44.06	7.583	70
	Advanced	61.23	10.239	70
	Total	52.64	12.443	140
C-test	Intermediate	41.54	11.543	70
	Advanced	61.03	9.465	70
	Total	51.29	14.360	140
open ended test	Intermediate	24.86	4.094	70
	Advanced	32.49	3.706	70
	Total	28.67	5.458	140
Total	Intermediate	36.82	11.893	210
	Advanced	51.58	15.872	210
	Total	44.20	15.837	420

TABLE 3.2

TESTS BETWEEN SUBJECTS EFFECT SHOWING THE RESULTS OF TWO WAY ANOVA REGARDING THE EFFECT OF TEST TYPE AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL ON COLLOCATIONAL SCORES

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	76413.714 ^a	5	15282.743	220.597	.000	.727
Intercept	820528.800	1	820528.800	1.184E4	.000	.966
Test_type	50767.600	2	25383.800	366.400	.000	.639
Proficiency_level	22880.952	1	22880.952	330.273	.000	.444
Test_type * Proficiency_level	2765.162	2	1382.581	19.957	.000	.088
Error	28681.486	414	69.279			
Total	925624.000	420				
Corrected Total	105095.200	419				

a. R Squared = .727 (Adjusted R Squared = .724)

Test type row indicates a significance value of 0.001, which shows that the test types can affect collocation scores. The proficiency level has also a significance value of 0.001 which shows that proficiency level affects collocation

scores. The effect size of the test type variable, as shown under partial Eta Squared column, is .639 indicating a large effect size.

Given the significance of the test type variable, it should become clear which test type is significantly different from the other tests. Here, table called multiple comparisons should be investigated.

B. MANOVA Results for Proficiency Level and Collocational Categories

TABLE3.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PROFICIENCY LEVEL AND COLLOCATIONAL CATEGORIES

Descriptive Statistics				
	Proficiency_level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Noun_collocation	intermediate	40.14	15.969	210
	advanced	55.95	17.725	210
	Total	48.05	18.616	420
Verb_collocation	intermediate	32.57	16.165	210
	advanced	48.43	18.403	210
	Total	40.50	19.034	420
Adjective_collocation	intermediate	27.76	15.382	210
	advanced	42.57	21.433	210
	Total	35.17	20.053	420
Adverb_collocation	intermediate	37.14	18.338	210
	advanced	51.52	25.085	210
	Total	44.33	23.096	420
Preposition_collocation	intermediate	45.67	19.313	210
	advanced	59.29	20.681	210
	Total	52.48	21.116	420

There was a statistically significant difference between intermediate and advanced learners on the combined dependent variables, $F(5,414)=29.04$ $p=.001$; Wilks' Lambda= .740; partial eta squared= .26. All of the dependent variables reached statistical significance, when the results for the dependent variables were considered separately. Noun collocation reported $F(1,418)=92.2$ $p=.001$, partial eta squared= .181, verb collocation reported $F(1,418)=88.01$ $p=.001$, partial eta squared= .174, adjective collocation reported $F(1,418)=66.17$ $p=.001$, partial eta squared= .137, adverb collocation reported $F(1,418)=44.98$ $p=.001$, partial eta squared= .097 and finally, prepositional collocation reported $F(1,418)=48.64$ $p=.001$, partial eta squared= .104. An inspection of the mean scores indicated that advanced learners reported higher collocational score in noun collocation ($M=55.95, SD=17.72$) than intermediate learners ($M=40.14, SD=15.96$), again advanced learners reported better score ($M=48.43, SD=18.40$) in verb collocation than intermediate learners ($M=32.57, SD=16.16$), advanced learners in adjective collocation showed these scores ($M=42.57, SD=21.43$), while intermediate learners reported ($M=27.76, SD=15.38$), advanced learners in adverb collocation had such scores ($M=51.52, SD=25.08$) while intermediate learners reported ($M=37.14, SD=18.33$), Finally, advanced learners in prepositional collocation showed ($M=59.29, SD=20.68$) while intermediate learners reported such scores ($M=45.67, SD=19.31$).

IV. CONCLUSION

A. Types of Test

The results acquired from two-ways between groups analysis of variance on the intermediate and advanced learners' performances on the cloze test, it was indicated that advanced learners performed much better on this test having a mean score of 61.23 compared with intermediate learners which had a mean score of 44.06. So, proficiency level is an important factor for learners to answer cloze test items. The findings of this study contribute to the deeper understanding of how proficiency level can affect the learners' performance in answering cloze test items in an Iranian EFL context. Advanced proficiency group learners have already proved to be the best group in answering collocational items of cloze test. The reason for these results might be partially or wholly due to the explicit nature of cloze test which makes use of a fixed deletion technique or random deletion technique.

C-Test is another type of test that is used in measuring the reading ability of the learners. So, this test was used as to whether it can measure the collocational competence of Iranian EFL learners or not. Cloze test provides the answers and the testees need to choose one of the choices, but the learners do not have such opportunities in answering C-test and they are supposed to simply supply the needed letters which imposes heavy burden on the participants' processing capacities. Second, the C-test provides the first half of the word and there are some dashes after the first half which shows the number of letters which are required so that the word is completed. Third, too many mutilated words are

provided that makes perceiving complete words difficult and the learners complain a lot about the readability and face validity of the tests. Finally, the mechanics and rules of writing help the learner in recognizing different collocational categories and answering test items like comma, colon, semicolon and etc.

Open ended test done in order to enable the test designer to compare the results between these three test types fairly. In this test type, the learners are supposed to provide the answers themselves. From the findings of this study, these conclusions can be drawn. First, although all of these test types have been constructed based on similar passages, but this test type was deemed as the most difficult one among all the three test types. The participants had to answer and fill the blanks using the environment and context of the test. Unlike the other test types, the learners were given no clue in answering test items. Second, in this test type, advanced proficiency learners who received life syllabus scored better than their intermediate peers. This indicates that proficiency plays a major role and advanced learners which had previous opportunity in facing and dealing with these texts and collocations items performed more effectively on this test. Finally, another point that needs to be mentioned is that as there was not sufficient clue and context in this test for test takers, they were not that interested in answering items as it required heavy processing capacity on the part of language learners while in the other two test types, the learners had some clue.

B. Collocation

The five collocational categories of noun, verb, adjective, adverb and preposition are chosen to be further investigated in EFL learners' performances. Each of these three test types had fifty items and each of these tests had ten noun, verb, adjective, adverb and prepositional collocations.

The findings of this study led to the following conclusions. First, cloze test has measured noun, verb, adjective and adverb collocations better than C-test and open ended tests which may be related to the point that cloze test provides four choices for each item and the learners are supposed to choose among them. Second, C-test has been more effective in measuring prepositional collocations of the participants as half of the prepositional words are provided and this serves as a big clue for language learners. Third, in case of open ended test, as participants had no clue and no choice is provided for them, they performed poorly on this test through all the five collocational categories in comparison to the other two tests. Finally, it was shown that participants' performance on all the three test types through all the collocational categories were significant. ($p=.001$).

These findings are in line with some of the research projects which have been conducted in this regard. These findings support this view point that different proficiency levels influence the learners' performances on lexical and collocational categories, and higher proficiency levels with life syllabus learners can perform far more effectively on these categories.

This study tried to utilize the lexical and grammatical collocations framework in assessing Iranian EFL learners' collocational competence. On the whole, the results of the conducted analyses suggested that C-test was not superior to cloze test and open ended test in assessing collocational competence of EFL learners. In addition, the analyses confirmed that proficiency level is an important and determining factor and influences participants' performances on different test types. Therefore, the learners from higher proficiency levels who received life syllabus instructions performed more effectively on different test types compared with their lower proficiency peers.

C. Implications of the Study

There are certain pedagogical implications based on the results of the present study. The findings of the present study may have major implications for language learners, language teaching methodology, EFL instructors, teacher trainers, syllabus designers and materials developers. Furthermore, in particular of restricted collocations, teacher's experiences show that Iranian EFL learners usually don't have adequate knowledge of English collocations. The findings of the present study suggest that test designers should develop and validate collocation tests using both grammatical and lexical collocations. The results also refer to designing tests that focus on various types of collocations. The results of this study provide more effective methods for learning collocations.

D. Suggestions for Further Research

The process, results and conclusion of the present study lead to some further lines of research of all, other studies can be done with the same objectives and aims in other levels. This study focused on intermediate and advanced students. It would be valuable to study knowledge of collocations at different proficiency levels, especially at the beginning level. Furthermore, to conduct a similar study, researchers can use qualitative methods for observing EFL learners' subtle progress and also their reactions to collocations and collocation instruction.

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Analysis of “Chinglish” Phenomenon in the Translation of Chinese Public Signs

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Abstract—Public signs nowadays can be seen everywhere and applied in various public areas, the purpose of which is to provide some necessary indicative information for the international tourists or workers, facilitate their life and work, and also attract foreign investments. However, not all the bilingual public signs are translated appropriately, the quality of current translation is not very satisfactory owing to some internal and external reasons, thus the consequence of this inappropriate language using in public signs brought about the so-called Chinglish phenomenon, Chinglish is that misshapen, hybrid language that is neither English nor Chinese but can be described as English with Chinese characteristics, usually is unintelligible to the foreigners, which hinders the development of translation for communicating with foreigners. The thesis mainly concerns the causes of the emergence of Chinglish public signs which will be discussed from the cultural and linguistic dimensions in terms of various examples, the rest of the content will talk about the normal standard of Chinese-English sign language translation for eliminating Chinglish and attaining an unimpeded and efficient translation.

Index Terms—public signs, mistranslation, Chinglish phenomenon, translation standard

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinglish refers to the improper English using by Chinese learners due to the influence of mother tongue, thus some misshapen Chinglish form which contains the Chinese rules and habits has emerged in the process of English application, it does not fully comply with the rules of English language, more or less with Chinese cultural thinking habits. Chinglish can be viewed as Pidgin language, which refers to an English expression featured by the widely usage of Chinese grammar and word formation. Public signs, such as station name, road name, or indicators which involved in accommodation, travel, entertainment and shopping, such as hotels, restaurants, metro, hospitals, shopping malls, museums, etc. As an important indicator of social environment of city, all of which can be seen as the face of a city, a business card of a city, and a symbol of urban civilization. In order to truly realize the internationalization, the translation of the language must strive to be precise, concise and unified so as to convey the information accurately and communicate effectively with the outside world. The nonstandard language form can easily cause misunderstanding and confusing thoughts, it will seriously affect the economic and cultural exchanges with foreign countries.

The English translation of Chinese public signs has always been a focus in the field of translation, the public sign is a very unique type of writing, which has its own language characteristics, according to the academic field which has once made an agreement that the public sign has four functions: directing, prompting, restricting and compelling function (Halliday, 1994). According to He Gengyun (2006), the content of the public sign should be short, concise and comprehensive which involves sociology, psychology, linguistics, pragmatics and many other issues. It is necessary to achieve both language equivalence and cultural equivalence, in another words, the translators should make the English target signs much easier and accurate for readers to understand, which will absolutely increase the difficulty of translation. The translation of Chinese into English has become the most frequent sub-field of chinglish due to inattentive supervision of the government. To sum up, Chinglish in public signs translation can be divided into the following two categories.

II. THE ANALYSIS OF “CHINGLISH” FROM THE LINGUISTIC DIMENSION

Improper meaning

First of all, due to the existence of polysemy in English, if the translator is not clear about the meaning of the single word, the meaning of the whole text may be inaccurate. As a sign in a park “游客止步” translated into “tourist stop the steps”, which is in accordance with the Chinese word order, it is just the word for word and sentence for sentence translation, the translator has not clear about the usage of the word “stop”, it means stop, but this stop refers to the action. For example: “please stop, no entrance (车辆免进)! stop on red (红灯亮, 停一停)! Stop when red light flashes (红灯亮, 勿前行)! Stop, look and listen (小心来车)! Stop after last rinse (清毕即止)!” (Luo Li, 2006, P.67). The meaning of these Chinese words is not to stop or stay here, but not enter or close to here. The correct translation should be: “No admittance” (Dai Lv, 2005, P.40). Another example: “农展桥” mistranslated into “NongZhan Bridge”. The translator only considers the problem from the perspective of the literal meaning of English language, which does not

take into account the communicative intention and the connotative meaning of the linguistic sign. In English, bridge should be the concept of "water bridge", and “立交桥” refers to the important traffic junction of the city which has upper and lower layers, it the land bridge with no mutual interference among the branches, English translation should be “overpass” or “flyover”. Therefore, it should be translated as “NongZhan overpass” (Xu Jiao, 2008, P.141). Secondly, translators who have little vocabulary or do not understand their own language habits are likely to confuse the denotative meaning of words, that is to say, an English word with extensive meanings can be used to express the words with many denotative meanings, or using a English word which has a narrow meaning to translate Chinese words with extended meanings, such as “旅游箱包”, can be translated into “luggage”, it is absolutely inappropriate to have this literal translation “Tourist cases bags”. There are translators who translate “化妆品和香水” into “cosmetics and perfume”, in which the denotation of perfume is extensive, not only refers to “香水”, but refers to the whole category of products, including eau de toilette, eau de perfume, after shave, shaving balm, using “fragrances” to fully express the original meaning of 香水 is relatively acceptable.

Confusion of part of speech

Chinese is a kind of notional language, but English is a normative grammatical language, so a English word at different position in a sentence must use different parts of speech, this strict grammar rule which usually has a root based with different suffix behind it, the different suffixes are the indicators to form different words with different parts of speech. While in Chinese, the verbs and nouns can be changed according to the language environment, but the form is exactly the same. If translator has not manipulate the different grammar usage of parts of speech between two languages, the phenomenon of wrong “Chinglish” would be emerged easily. Such as “食品烟酒” translated into “food or smoke wine”, it’s an typical improper using of part of speech. “食品烟酒” actually refers to the store which sales goods, tobacco and wine, “烟” is a noun in English, but the translation of “烟” is translated into the verb “smoke (抽烟)”, so the literal meaning is completely changed. Therefore, the correct version should be “Food, Cigarettes and Liquor”. Another case is “输液大厅” in the hospital, which mistranslated into “infusion hall”, “输液” in the Chinese context can be generally used as a verb or a noun, but in here, “输液” should be a verb phrase rather than a noun modifier, though the form is the same, so the English translation should use the verb “inject” instead of the term “infusion”. The correct translation should be “IV Room” (Huang, 2002, P.42).

Literal translation

Although some of the public signs are very correct in grammar and diction, but they do not conform to the idiomatic expressions of the target language. The phenomenon of literal translation is very common in the translation of public signs, which is not only greatly reduces the authority of public signs, but also makes jokes, so the public signs should never be translated literally according to the sample literal meaning of Chinese. For example: a road sign “注意安全, 坡道路滑” is translated into “To take notice of safe, the slippery are very Crafty”, obviously, it is just a word for word translation, simply according to the Chinese order and pattern, if this English translation translated into Chinese, that is “注意保险箱, 湿滑的路是很狡猾的” (Song, 2007, P. 22), totally inconsistent with the original meaning of Chinese which will seriously confuse foreigners. Another example: in the elevator of a hotel with such tips: “Please leave your values at the front desk” or “please put valuables at the front desk”, the Chinese meaning should have been “贵重物品存柜”, which would inevitably be interpreted as: Leave your values or your Life (要钱要命自己挑) or “此路是我开, 此山是我栽, 要想保性命, 留下买路财”. There are similar examples: an airport baggage Department has such a public signs: “We take your bags and send them in all directions (旅客的行李满天飞)”. Who would dare to enjoy his consignment service? The correct reference can be: “Door to Door Service” (接受托运家门), or “We take your bags and send them wherever you go (您行至何处, 您的行李随至何处)”. “禁止吸烟”, “禁止靠近”, and “闲人免进” can not be translated literally as “don’t smoke”, “don’t close to” and “No admittance for Outsiders”, but should be translated as “No smoking”, “Keep out” and “Staff only”(Luo Li, 2006, P.66).

Repetitive and verbose diction

As we all know, public signs should be concise and clear, the usage of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs vary from Chinese and English expression, so the way of repetition using is also different, Nouns can be frequently used in Chinese without any problem, while in English, the user often use pronouns, phrases, or omissions to avoid the repetition of noun phrases. In addition, we know that Chinese is concise and comprehensive, which occupies less writing space; while English think highly of the logic relationship, so the writing space is relatively large. If public sign violates the means of expression, the translation will be lengthy which cannot attain concise and comprehensive effect. Such as: “此处有炸药, 注意安全” should be translated as “Danger: Explosives” instead of “We have explosives here. Pay attention to your safety”. Another example, a sign in the park lawn “小草微微笑, 请您走便道” was translated into “Little grass is smiling slightly, please walk on pavement”, which was absolutely the Chinglish, complying with the English speaking habit, it can be simply translated into: “Keep off the grass”. In addition, there is another kind of public sign indicating some warning and prompting information just for the local people. For example: “公路范围内禁止摆摊设点, 堆放杂物和垃圾等”, which points to local people, the foreigners have little possibility to do this kind of things. Therefore, the translator can only convey a brief meaning displayed on the wall, thus instead of a verbose translation, a

relatively vague expression can let the foreigners to understand and accept the statement: “No vendors on the roadside; Please keep the highway clean (保持公路卫生)”.

III. THE ANALYSIS OF “CHINGLISH” FROM THE CULTURAL DIMENSION

Different ways of thinking between China and the west

Firstly, the different modes of thinking between Chinese and West are as follows: the difference between comprehensive thinking and analytical thinking, concrete thinking and abstract thinking, and forward thinking and reverse thinking. Generally speaking, Chinese people have strong comprehensive and concrete thinking modes, while the Westerners apparently equipped with analytical, abstract and reverse thinking modes. Because of the influence of the way of thinking on language use and language habits, it will cause a lot of Chinglish in the translation of public signs. As public signs in the park lawn, Chinese generally use some vivid expression like “小草青青，足下留情” or “小草也有生命，请爱护它们”，however, the literal translation “The grass is alive. Please take good care of it” is grammatical but inappropriate from the perspective of English language using style, it should be translated into “Keep off the grass” or other clear expression (Wang, 2003, P.38). Another example is "no smoking" sign in the hospital. Most of the Chinese diction are lovely and polite, like “为了您和他人的健康，请不要吸烟”，while English are more likely to use more simple words to express, like “no smoking”，these two typical case are influenced by the different way of thinking between Chinese and English, which is likely to cause misunderstanding. Similarly, the translation of “公厕” into “Public Toilet” is also influenced by the way of thinking, it can only needs to be translated as “Restroom” or “Toilet” (Wang, 2003, P.39). Moreover, Chinese has always been a country with strict etiquette, while American countries think highly of personality and freedom, therefore, the criteria for accepting the public signs is also different, if the airport has a sign with English like: Passengers with bulky baggage or who are disabled or infirm must use the lift (携带大型手提行李或伤残体弱这，请用升降机上下), what this sign originally intended for is out of kindness, it’s an embodiment of care for the disabled or weak passenger, but the translation with a word “must” implies a strict regulation or order which absolutely change the good intention before, moreover, it seems like a kind of discrimination against disabled and weak foreign travelers. Public signs are not only an important means of external publicity, but also an important means for cultural and emotional communication. Therefore, the principles of politeness should be followed in the translation, which reflects human care and creates a harmonious atmosphere, as a prohibition in the public signs “禁止践踏草坪”，the most common translation into English is: “Do not tread on the lawn”. “Do not” belongs to the imperative mood in English which has a strong tone and often cause misunderstanding, but if the translation is “Take care of the lawn”，the tone is appropriate and more acceptable.

The cultural differences between China and the West

Culture plays an important role in translation, as long as we understand and get familiar with the culture reflected and implied by a language, we can really learn and correctly master the usage of specific words, on the contrary, if we just have little understanding of the target culture, we can not accurately grasp the constraint mechanism in the process of mutual language exchanges, which would make many language errors, and thereby resulting in the deficiency of cross-cultural communication ability or the failure in the cross-cultural communication. Intercultural translation should not only stay at the semantic level, but should take into account the differences of different cultures. In order to achieve the optimal communicative effect, we should respect different cultural customs and cultural traditions in translation, cultural conflicts are often caused by ignorance of cultural customs, if the translation of “视顾客为上帝” is like “Treating the patient as god”，it is a typical manifestation of neglecting cultural differences, in China, we are accustomed to call customers God, but from the perspective of Westerners, “上帝” is the God which for worship, it is sacred and inviolable, so the westerners feel uncomfortable when they see this public sign translation, the most appropriate translated version can be “The patient is our first priority” (Xu , 2000, P.67).

IV. THE NORMAL STANDARD FOR ENGLISH PUBLIC SIGNS TRANSLATION

Translation involves many interlingual transfer which from form to content, from voice to meaning, from the idea to the expressions of feelings, from the language to the all-round and multi-dimensional cultural awareness. The primary condition for public signs translation is that the translators should be very versed in both source and target languages. Therefore, we should follow some standards so as to attain a logic and reasonable translated version, that is, we should comply with the original text editors’ intentions, concise principles, international conventions and other related criteria of translation.

Comply with the original text editors’ intention and readers’ language habit

The English translation of Chinese public signs should comply with the editors’ original expression, and pay attention to the readers’ reaction or feedback, according to the features of public signs, the translation must be solemn and polite, concise and comprehensive, eye-catching and intelligible. In the process of translation, as long as the translators revolve around the readers, put the reader in the first position, and try to narrow the differences between Chinese and English diction in form and meaning, the consequence of translation may break the constraint of Chinese thinking modes and can make the translation more accurate and understandable. We found that Chinese public signs hardly consider the

readers' feeling, too many mandatory diction appear in the public, most foreigners cannot understand and accept such inappropriate signs, so in the translation of such strong prohibitive Chinese public signs, we might as well change this mandatory expression into the expression with persuasive and euphemistic tone by taking some translation strategies. What we want to cope with is that the public signs translation should not only achieve the function of public signs but also the dissemination of Chinese culture.

Comply with the standard of brevity

The public signs are used for the general public, the wording should be concise, readable and intelligible, and oral expression should be equipped with strength and rhythm. For example, “在营业中”, English can only use the word “Open”. “停止收款”, Don't use “Stop cashier”, but “Closed”. This error is due to the emergence of mechanical translation of source language, translator does not have a careful analysis to consider the wording and ignore the cultural connotation and customs, the presentation is just a kind of mechanically mother tongue translation, that is the so-called Chinglish. The problem is that translator complicates the original simple meaning, which can not play the eye-catching and reminding role among the public. For example, the warning phrase “水情复杂, 禁止在湖中游泳” (The water under the lake is complicated please don't swim in the lake!), obviously, the original idea is to remind visitors to pay attention to safety, not to swim in the lake area, here we can translate it simply into “Danger!” or “No Swimming!”. In this way, it is concise and eye-catching, and can play a good warning role. Therefore, if we want to make the translation of Chinese public signs more authentic, accurate, and want to convey information more effectively, we must follow the principle of brevity.

The Abidance of the international conventions

The abidance of the international conventions refers to that the translator should consider the educational level of the the general public and tourists and carefully select the related words in the public signs translation. According to the using environment and content, complying with international conventions also requires the interpreter to adopt many idiomatic international expressions to do the translation, which means that the translators can directly draw lessons from the relevant international English public signs which are widely used and recognized. Such English public signs translation can exert its specific functions effectively, such as: “禁用烟火” can not be translated as “No fire and no smoking”, the correct translation should be “No Smoking Or Open Flames (禁止吸烟, 严禁明火)” (Yang, 2005, P.43), if there is no any fire fighting icon (禁止烟火), ‘No fire’ is ambiguous, because this phrase also has the meaning of the prohibition of fire using. In addition, there are a lot of international fixed public signs, such as: Lost & Found (失物招领)、Quiet! No Smoking! (保持安静, 禁止吸烟)、Taxi Pick-up Point (出租乘车站点)、Not For Children's Use (儿童禁止使用)、Departing Flight (出发航班)、Delayed (航班延误)、No Littering (请勿乱扔废弃物) and so on. We should comply with the international conventions in light of the specific situation and try to learn the widely used and recognized English signs flexibly.

V. CONCLUSION

The level of English public signs translation directly reflects the level of internationalization and the taste of a city. In fact, the main purpose of English translation of Chinese public signs is to facilitate foreigners, however, because of the incautious and unprofessional using, which gives rise to the fault in the translation practice and the phenomenon of Chinglish afterwards, in view of the translation problems existing in the city, it is necessary for all parts of society to recognize and improve the overall level of the English translation of Chinese public signs. With the development of China's opening to the outside world, there will be more cooperation between China and foreign countries, so “Chinglish” will become a problem we must confront, therefore, it will be quite responsible for foreigners if translators attach more importance on the public signs translation and correct them timely, which can show our country's strength as a cultural power and exert a good English environment among the public.

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