Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

The Present Situation of the Arabic Language and the Arab World Commitment to Arabization

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Abstract—**Arabic has long occupied an exceptionally important position in Arab history either because it is the language of Revelation of the Koran, or because it is viewed as providing the cement of Arab nationalism. Furthermore, Arabization represents for the Arabs an urgent necessity because it can not only revive and revitalize the Arabic language but also lead the Arab nation to regain its linguistic independence and repudiate cultural subservience on Western societies. The purpose of this study is to bring into light the challenges that Arabic and Arabization are facing in the present century and to examine the problems which affect the power of Classical Arabic either directly or indirectly as well as to refute those misconceptions associated with the process of Arabization.**

Index Terms—**Arabic language, Arabization, diglossia, bilingualism, colloquial Arabic, sociolinguistics, education**

I. Introduction

A careful and thoughtful scrutiny will show that in the present day Arabic faces many problems. The nature of these problems varies extensively in terms of their acuity. The main concern of this paper is to examine them closely. On top of these comes the linguistic problem usually referred to by the term « diglossia ». Therefore, the study of language contact witnessed a tremendous progress since the first publications of Haugan and Weireich in the early fifties. Although it was Ferguson who first considered and examined the phenomenon of diglossia at length. As it will be clear later this linguistic duality in Arabic stands as a serious problem for classical Arabic and as a result for the competition between Classical Arabic and Colloquial Arabic. On the other hand, another more serious problem threatening Classical Arabic is bilingualism, namely French-Arabic bilingualism. Because of the attitudes associated with it, the Arabic language seems to lose weight in favor of foreign languages, namely French in the Maghreb and English in the Mashreq. All in all, Classical Arabic (henceforth CA) finds itself in a plight in that it fluctuates between two extremes. On the one hand, there is a strong competition between CA and regional dialects. On the other, there is competition of foreign languages trying to displace it.

A number of claims concerning the potentials of CA, notably in the fields of science and technology were advanced. These claims, which were first originated from European proponents, hold the belief that CA was far away from being fruitful in scientific and technical domains. In plain words, the purpose of such allegations is to cast doubts among Arabic speakers about their language. Later on, these views were supported by some Arab proponents themselves. The purport of such a well-designed campaign was also to convey the idea that CA was the main factor behind the underdevelopment of the Arab world. As an alternative, they all encouraged the use of dialects as well as the adoption of the Latin script in the writing system of Arabic in stead of the Arabic one.

All these factors led to the creation of a reformist movement whose main purpose was to protect and safeguard the Arabic language. This movement of Arabization entailed an utter devotion to the Arabic language in different domains. Nevertheless, Arabization is such a debatable issue that it oscillates between two extremes according to whether it is perceived of as a tool leading to development or as an instrument deepening the state of underdevelopment in which the Arab world is entangled to an extremely high extent.

II. Tribulation of the Arabic Language

A. The Diglossic Situation in Arabic

The sociolinguistic situation of the Arabic language is characterized by the existence side by side of two varieties of the same language (Zughoul 1985, Hammoud 1982, Elbiad 1985, among others). This linguistic duality goes back to earlier periods of the Arabic language history[1]. This linguistic situation in Arabic stands as an obstacle particularly as far as CA is concerned.

Throughout the Arabic speaking world, two varieties of Arabic are used. The use of one and not the other is context related. In formal situations the use of the « high » variety is required ; in this case, it is CA. The « low » variety, on the

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[1] Benkadour, A. wrote an article which he published in *Faculty Annals* (1985, No. 2) in which he gave a considerable as well as convincing account on how the so-called literary Arabic, which can be equated to a certain extent with Classical Arabic, is derived from the surrounding Arabic dialects in Saudi Arabia in the earlier periods of the history of Arabic.

other hand, is expected to be used in informal situations as a medium of interaction within a closely personal environment. Hammoud (1982) rightly points out that ⬜Arabic diglossia implies two varieties of the same language existing and developing side by side, each enjoying a particular status and fulfilling different sociolinguistic functions ⬜. (p. 15)[2]

The availibility of abundant works done in the Arabic sociolinguistics show that there are numerous labels associated with the varieties of Arabic. Most of the different labels of Arabic mean more or less the same thing. The diversity at the level of labels aims perhaps at reaching a certain high degree of precision in order to detect the slightest difference that may exist between apparently identical varieties. Some of these labels are totally misleading and even confusing whereas others are relevant and to the point. By way of example, some scholars prefer to coin labels such as pre-Islamic Arabic, early Islamic Arabic, Middle Arabic, Modern Arabic, and so on and so forth (Bentahila, 1983)[3] [3]. Others divised libels like : Classical Arabic, Literary Arabic, Koranic Arabic, and so on (Elbiad 1985, Zughoul 1985, among others). Obviously, this diversity is quite ambiguous. In this respect it is worth noting that such diversity is extremely ambivalent in that the labels do not ⬜refer to grammatically distinct varieties ⬜ (Bentahila, 1983). For the sake of easiness, only two labels are to be used throughout this study. These are : CA to refer to the ⬜ high ⬜ form and Colloquial Arabic (henceforth CoA) to refer to the ⬜ low ⬜ form. As mentioned earlier, each of these varieties is used in specific domains and situations according to the function each has to fulfil.

CA is the medium of ⬜the divine expression ⬜ in that it is the language in which the holy book was revealed and thus it has served as the main vehicle of Islamic culture. Furthermore, it is the language in which literary tradition of the past had been recorded and preserved until the present day. It has hardly undergone any change throughout its history. Cachia (1972), as quoted by Zughoul (1985, p. 203, 204) put it this way: ⬜ Above all, the Classical is the key to the immense treasure-chests of the past… Its stability has seldom been paralleled in other languages and today any Arab with a secondary education can if he is interested and prepared to go to little trouble, gain access to entire record of the past 1300 years. ⬜ . Furthermore, CA is the language of written communication as well as the formal spoken variety used in political speeches, religious sermons and in all other formal situations. CoA, on the other hand, is the first language of almost all the Arabic speaking communities because it is natively acquired. It is also the spoken form that is used in everyday interaction. This variety of the Arabic language is considered as the lingua franca at the national level of each country. In fact it is quite obvious that there are as many Arabic dialects as there are Arabic speaking countries. However, the diversity of dialects does not end at the level of individual countries ; for even within a single country, we find a great number of regional dialects. These regional dialects differ from one region to another according to the distribution of linguistic items due to natural or social boundaries (Hudson 1980, p. 39). It is quite noticeable that CoA violates most of the rules which govern CA. ⬜ CoA is simpler than FA «Fuṣ ḥ a Arabic »in syntax and lexicon. The Iɛ rāb inflections are deleted. The dual is rarely used, and plural formation simpler. CoA is simpler, more frequent, more familiar vocabulary. It is also more open to borrowing from other languages. ⬜ (Zughoul, 1985, p. 205). Because of these features, CoA is seen as a distortion of CA. This is in fact the reason why it is associated with a number of negative connotations[4]. Nevertheless, CoA seems to exceed the domains in which it is expected to be used. This is probably due to peoples' proficiency in CA which is not efficient enough for total apprehension. To take just one example, if we allude to formal education where CA is supposed to be used, we will find that ⬜ teachers, then, have to spend time explaining in (low) material that has been presented in lectures and textbooks ⬜ (Fassold, 1984, p. 36). This is only one instance and there are many others in which CoA invades the domains in which CA is expected to be used.

Because it is not spoken in any Arabic speaking country, competence in CA is restricted to people who have reached a certain level of education. This implies that CA is learned solely through formal education. Thus, illiteracy means total ignorance of CA. In contrast to this, everyone in the community uses CoA as a vehicle to his everyday and ordinary conversation. It is possible to say that there is a kind of general agreement among scholars as regards the stability of diglossia in a speech community. As an alternative solution for this linguistic situation, almost scholars concerned with Arabic sociolinguistics proposed that the gap between CA and CoA dialects should be narrowed in favor of CA and that people should be encouraged to use ⬜ the supperposed variety ⬜, i.e. CA. Because the linguistic duality in Arabic cannot be deterred or done away with, at least in the near future, a great literacy campaign should, therefore, be fostered and put through all over the Arab world. This seems the only tangible way to reduce the strikingly high percentage of illeteracy among Arabic speakers.

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[2] In the case of Morocco, the sociolinguistic situation is looked at as being multidiglossic. Though, we try to limit ourselves to the fact that all the varieties of Arabic, in Morocco, are to be considered as one- for the sake of the present study. Nonetheless and to arouse the reader's awareness, it is important to clarify briefly this multiglossic situation in Morocco: Classical Arabic is used for liturgical purposes and Islamic studies. Standard Arabic is used for the media and instruction (only 20% of Moroccans can read and write Standard Arabic perfectly (Ennaji, 1991), but only a minority can speak it with some ease and fluency). Educated Moroccan Arabic, which is the result of mixing different grammatical aspects of Moroccan Arabic and Standard Arabic, is typically used in formal spoken situations by educated Moroccans (about 40% can speak it).
[3] These labels, therefore, are like those associated with the English language such as: Early English, Middle English, Standard English, Modern English and so on and so forth.
[4] Zughoul (1985, p. 205, 206) cited a number of quotations illustrating these negative connotations associated with Colloquial Arabic. Some of these are:" a language associated with ignorance and vulgarity" (Abdelmalek, 1972, p. 132)." the tongue of drunkards and servants…archaic, confused, having no rules of grammar…a mixture…a distortion of FA" (Mubarak, 1970, p. 41, 42)," a prot ég é of ignorance and imperialism" (Nasif, 1957, p. 49)," unworthy of being called a language and unfit to fulfil the aims of intellectual life" (Hussein, 1944, p. 236)," spread and favored by illeterates" (Fahmi, 1966, p. 150).

Pointing the complexity of the linguistic behavior in Arabic speaking communities, Zughoul (1985, p. 202) rightly argues that ▢the diglossic situation is indeed problematic for a linguistic community. It is considered to be a hindrance to education and economic development, as well as a national coherence. ▢ In spite of all this, the ▢ diglossic situation ▢ in Arabic does not constitute a serious problem when compared, for example, with the problem of bilingualism which is embodied in the excessive use of languages. It is quite noticeable that the foreign languages are extremely entrenched in the Arab world. In fact, these intruding languages represent a real challenge for the Arabic language and marginalize its role among its users.

B. The Effect of Bilinguilasim on Arabic

It seems that in order to understand the effects of bilingualism on the Arabic language in general and on CA in particular[5], the emphasis should be led first on the historical background that introduced the phenomenon into the Arab world. According to Fassold (1984), there are four main factors which may bring about the state of multilingualism. These factors are: Migration, imperialism, federation and border area multilingualism. For one reason or another, bilingual and multilingual communities vary in terms of the mainstream through which a society reaches this state of language diversity. Having previously been colonized by the Western imperialism, the Arab world bequeathed the languages of the colonizers. Therefore, the mainstream through which the Arab countries reached the state of multilingualism can be accounted for by imperialism. However, when it comes to the Arabic-Berber bilingualism, notably in the Maghreb, which had to do with the arrival of Islam rather than with imperialism or any other means of exploitation or domination. As for the Berber-Arabic bilingualism, the issue is considered in terms of both its origin and development (Bentahila 1983, Elbiad 1985). As regards this phenomenon of language diversity, Grosjean (1982, p.7) claimed that ▢ In all parts of the world there are countries with one official language but with numerous languages, especially in Africa and Asia as a result of colonization…These countries on becoming independent had the problem of choosing an official language, it therefore had to have a written form and a varied and extensive vocabulary, that could serve as a means of communication with neighbouring states and as a symbol of nationhood. ▢

It is quite possible, therefore, to say that there is a general agreement among many scholars that colonization is one of the most factors that gives birth to bilingual as well as to multilingual communities. From a synchronic point of view, the way both French and Arabic were introduced into the Maghreb differs according to the goals associated with the introduction of each of them. The French language, for instance, thrived as a new form of linguistic imperialism. Its use was imposed on the Western Arab countries as a way to control government, business and the various intellectual walks of life. Needless to say that the aim of such a strategy is to deepen the backwardness of the Arabic language in this part of the Arab world. On the other hand, the Arabic language is strongly linked with Islam to the extent that we cannot talk about the Islamic religion and at the meantime ignore the Arabic language and vice versa.

Arabic is the vehicle of Islamic tradition and culture and this is the reason why it is impossible to dissociate it from the Islamic religion. At the period of the new religion, Islam made its way to the regions of the Maghreb where most of its inhabitants were Berber. These people welcomed it very much. This acceptance of Islam implied the acceptance of Arabic as a tool accompanying this new belief. Furthermore this new tool is the language in which the Kuran is revealed. Therefore, any community which adopts Islam ought to learn the Arabic language in order for individuals to be able to recite Kuranic verses in prayers and other rituals[6].

According to Elbiad (1985, p. 21), the arrival of the Arabs in North Africa constituted a crucial metamorphosis in the history of Berbers. This change was all-embracing as it influenced all the walks of their life. It indeed embodied a turning point in their lives because when the Arabs came they brought along with them ▢ a new religion, Islam; a new language, Arabic; a new culture Arabo-Moslem ▢. Consequently, Berbers showed great enthusiasm toward the new religion and devoted themselves to it. We can therefore conclude that there was no clash between the two ▢ languages ▢.

On the contrary, there was a kind of complementarity. Bentahila (1983) hit upon another point whereby he accounted for the Berbers' positive attitudes towards the Arabic language. The reason, according to him, is that Berbers lacked a language which has a writing system and they found Arabic supplying them with such a system. However, this is a minor reason behind these favorable attitudes towards Arabic when compared, for instance, with religious factors. On the opposite the introduction of foreign languages into the Arab world, namely French and English, has created a complex as well as controversial issue which has puzzled sociolinguists all over the Arab world until the present day.

The presence of French in the Maghreb and English in the Mashreq is one of the legacies of colonization which lingered in the Arab world for more than two centuries. Throughout this era the colonial authorities, French and British, imposed the propagation of their strong belief in their superriority in all levels and, in conjunction with this, they diminished the value of whatever belonged to the Arabs. ▢ …Their mission civilisatrice was based upon glorifying the language and culture of metropolis to the detriment of Arabic language and culture which had been suffering serious

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[5] Classical Arabic is given too much weight throughout this paper because it is the core around which the present study revolves, and also because it is the language of Arabization.

[6] Ferguson (1959) wrote an article entitled «Myths about Arabic» in which he dealt profusely with this issue. He chose to use the term' myth' because of the way the Arabic speakers talk about their language. According to him, this way is not objectively or empirically based; nevertheless, he said that this is not always the case.

setbacks since the nineteenth century. Instead of assigning Arabic to modern functions, it was associated with tradition and religious sentiments. □ (Hammoud, 1982, p. 211).

A glance at the present linguistic situation all over the Arab world will show the extreme extent to which the colonial rule had been successful in implementing his deleterious policies of imposing French and English languages and undermining the Arabic language. This carries the implication that, even the Arab countries had gained their political independence, the colonial languages are still dominant in many fields. This dominance is the result of favorable attitudes associated with precision and modernity to the detriment of Arabic which has been associated with the past, imprecision, backwardness, emotions and the list seems unexhaustive. In the case of French in the Maghreb, □ the role, function and status of the French language must understandably be of paramount importance. Not only is French linguistic code bequeathed by Moroccans but its presence as a foreign legacy is manifested in various forms. It is associated with ideologies, modes of life, values, higher education and technical knowledge. It is the symbol of modern world, Western culture and civilization, novelty and equality. □ (Elbiad, 1985, p. 60).

This bilingual situation has been an intricate and controversial issue. Language planners have been working hard to devise a better language policy in the Arab world in which emphasis goes to the Arabic language without the least ignorance of the importance of learning and teaching foreign languages as an access to the modern world. In this respect many proposals have been advanced. They all amount to restrict the excessive use of foreign languages as well as enhance the use of CA in education, especially in scientific and technical subjects, administration, social life and in other walks of life.

To solve this chaotic linguistic situation, there should be an intense increase in the use of Arabic which was marginalized over a considerable period of time. Furthermore, motivations encouraging people to use CA are to be enhanced by promoting better chances and opportunities of access to well estimated jobs based on proficiency in CA. The ideal solution seems to be the adoption of a □well- balanced bilingualism □ in which complementarity rather than assimilation is what is overwhelming. But as the historical experience shows, this kind of bilingualism is hardly within reach for any given linguistic community. Bilingual speakers always do favor one language over the other[7]. In such conditions, the Arabic language should not be under the mercy of foreign languages. All in all, the Arabic language should be raised to the right level in which it enjoys both the privilege and prestige which would match it with any other □ developed □ language.

To reach this stage, □instrumental motivations □ in learning and teaching foreign languages are to be encouraged. In other words, learning French or English is to be rather an □ enriching experience, where the individual adds a second language to his repertoire without any loss to his first language or his feeling of identification with his own cultural community. □[8]. This type of bilingualism is known as □additive bilingualism □. In contrast to this, the opposite could be true in the case of □ subtractive bilingualism □ in which the individual becomes totally alienated to the group of the second language being acquired. This is to be a rare case among Moroccan bilinguals, but the issue of bilingualism still remains as problematic as ever.

Together with this crusade, it was noticeable that there grew another no less dangerous campaign which the colonial rule encouraged enormously. One of the major tasks of this campaign resided in replacing CA by its colloquial dialects. They based their claims on the assumption that Arabic is a dead language. They also made an artificial analogy between Arabic and Latin. From this perspective, they equated the Romance Languages, being off-shoots of Latin, which is now extinct, with Arabic and colloquial dialects as □ languages □ which sprung from CA.

C. Conspiracy against Arabic: External and Internal Challenges

Recently, European as well as Arab proponents have advanced a well organized campaign against CA. All of them pointed it out as being the major hindrance to the development of the Arab world. The best solution they proposed was that CA should give way to Arabic colloquials. To do so and few decades before colonization made its way into the Arab world, a number of European countries were very much interested in CoA. This was well manifested in their allotting intensive programs to teach CoA in many European schools, namely in Italy, Russia, France, etc. In the same way, European people who lived in Arab countries in their turn gave a great deal of attention to Arabic dialects. Both (Elaāzab, 1974 and Zoghoul, 1985) wrote profusely on this very issue and showed how these European proponents did their best to uproot the Arabs from their national identity as well as from their most unifying force, CA.

One of the most known of these proponents is William Wilcox, an engineer British Orientalist. He wrote a series of articles and gave lectures in which he set out his crusade against CA. In 1893 published in Al- Azhar magazine, an article entitled *Why Egyptians do not have the talent of invention?* He linked this lack to the Arabs' insistence in using al fuṣ ḥ a. In 1925 he even translated the Bible into CoA. In an article entitled *Syria and Egypt, North Africa and Malta, People Speak Punic, not Arabic.*Wilcox maintained that CoA spoken in Egypt, the Levant, the Maghreb and Malta is one and the same language, originally Canaanite, Phoenician, or Punic, languages that preceded Islam. Hence it is

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[7] There is a plethora of titles in the field of bilingualism, as the bibliography of this paper attests. Most of these studies dealt with the issue in specific societal context. For available introductory books in the issue of bilingualism, both Hugo Beatens Beardsmore (1986) and Fran çois Grosjean (1982) wrote a convincing account in which they considered the different types of bilingualism as well as accounted for them both from the synchronic and diachronic point of view.

[8]In his article entitled «Social Factors in Language Retention», R.C. Gardner made an elaborate distinction between ' additive bilingualism' and ' subtractive bilingualism'. Both terms were seemingly coined by Lambert.

unrelated to classical Arabic. According to him both the backwardness and lack of invention and creativity in the Arab world were direct consequences of the use of CA, which is considered a dead language. In order for the Arabs to acquire a well developed sense of creativity, he proposed that Arabs should distance and detach themselves from the use of CA. Hence to reach a high degree of development, CA should be done away with to pave the way for Arabic dialects to take over.

Wilcox was not the only one to propagate for this call but there was a number of others. For example, The British Sloan Wilmore (1901), director of the Civil Courts in Cairo during the British occupation, wrote a book *Local Arabic in Egypt*. He called for the use of CoA instead of CA in literary writings. Wilmore's campaign was more venomous than Wilcox's in that Wilmore called not only for the substitution of CoA for CA, but transcended this by his calling for the adoption of the Latin language as a literary language and Latin letters in the system of writing instead of the Arabic letters. Within the same path, Louis Massignon, French Orientalist, delivered in 1929 a lecture in Paris entitled *The Arabic Language will not survive unless it is written in Latin script*. Within this frame, this campaign against CA received a lot of encouragement from the colonial authorities. All this can be accounted for by the fact that such a call would deepen the problem of diglossia in Arabic. Accordingly, the unity among Arabic countries would seem impossible to attain.

All of the above calls for the use of CoA have opponents and supporters among the Arabs. Strangely enough, among the supporters of such a call was the prominent leader of the Liberal Constitutional Party, A. Fahmi a classicist. In 1943 he suggested to the Academy of the Arabic Language the idea of replacing Arabic script with Latin script. Of course, this idea was vehemently rejected, criticized not only in Egypt, but also all over the Arab world. In fact such Arab proponents called for ☐ Egyptian nationalism ☐ as opposed to ☐ Arab nationalism ☐. According to Zughoul (1985, P. 208, 209) ☐ The movement called for Egyptianization of language, arts and literature which implied using Egyptian Colloquial or reforming FA (fuṣḥa Arabic) by what Ahmad Al-zayyat (1937) called ☐ linguistic tolerance ☐, that is, using loan words and CoA lexical items in writing. Mohammed Teymour and Salāma Musa (1956) attacked FA and called for raising the level of CoA to that of a national language.☐ It is worthwhile saying that such a call is futile at best because it is based on the fallacy that CoA dialects are the off-shoots of CA whereas the opposite is what seems to work. It is also futile because it is a call of a minority which was tainted with the Western way of life and consequently got puzzled with it.

Furthermore, the futility of this call resided in the fact that it was based on an artificial analogy between CA and Latin, that is, the Latin language is now extinct and the Romance languages were derived from it and which are now used in its stead. Another shortcoming of this call is that it is a ☐ separatist movement ☐. Instead of enhancing the unity among Arabic countries, they encouraged ☐regionalism ☐ and ☐separatism ☐. Furthermore, it is quite obvious that all Arab traditions and cultures have been recorded in CA. The use of dialects would set obstacles to apprehend all what is recorded in CA, the Kuran being no exception. The state of underdevelopment of the Arab world is not to blame on the nature of the Arabic language itself but rather on the people who use the language and the attitudes they had towards it. As a reaction to this campaign, a nationalist movement emerged. This reformist movement gave due consideration to whatever is Arabic. Thus, the nationalists together with the Arabisants opted for complete Arabization.

III. ARABIZATION AND MISCONCEPTIONS

Almost all Arabic speaking countries have become aware of the importance as well as the role of Arabization movement ; however, the process has been quite problematic. In this respect, the determinations which have been brought about so far as regards the implementation of complete Arabization seem insuffiscient. Hence these ambivalent efforts to give Arabization the due weight it deserves may well be accounted for by the fact that many people still link it with negative connotations. People holding such ideas are more often than not those who are influenced to a high extent by the Western culture and thereby hold whatever pertains to the West as the archetype and the ideal example to follow. Over fifty years after their independence, the Arab countries still find themselves in a situation not very different from that of the colonial era.

It seems quite obvious that the reason behind such poor results as regards the outcome of the Arabization process is, no doubt, the lack of real committment to this process. Most of the time Arabization is seen by many people as a plea for retraction and isolation from the rest of the world. In the same way, they regard it as being far away from bringing about a bright future for the Arab world. Concerning the deficiencies of Arabic language, the proponents emphasize this point to the extent that one could single out the Arabic language among all the languages of the world as the sole language to know these setbacks. Many scholars make allusion to this particular point claiming that almost all the languages of the world know this phenomenon of inadequacy, though it varies intensively and extensively from one language to another.

Hence this is a universal phenomenon even in those languages which are perceived as ☐ well developed ☐. However, in its broad sense, Arabization entails a linguistic reformist movement to help Arabic attain a well developed state under the modernization process. The historical experience shows that any language blooms through utilization and contact or it loses its weight through marginalization or lack of usage. Undoubtedly, such attitudes toward Arabic language stand as an obstacle for the process of Arabization because favoring any foreign language, be it French or English, over Arabic is deepening the Arab world dependency on the Western culture.

A tool deepening the present state of underdevelopment

Another no less confusing and unfounded belief is that the process of Arabization will cut out the Arab world from the modern world and consequently the underdeveloped notion of the Arab world will linger for ever. Because the Western world is supposed to be the source of any development, notably in the domains of science and technology, the Arabic language cannot cope with the streams of terms coined every now and then. From this perspective, promoting Arabic in all the walks of life widens, in a way or another, the gap between the developed world and underdeveloped one. Hence, for the sake of saving time, these □ Westernized □ people in the Arab world opted for foreign languages, namely French and English, at the expense of Arabic. Alluding to Moroccan society, it is claimed that it has opted for neither bilingualism nor for Arabization.

Accordingly, it becomes an evidence the salient neglect of Arabization as the overwhelming language policy for the Arab world. In this respect, we recognize three categories of attitudes towards Arabization : The traditionalists who opt for total Arabization in order to saveguard the Arabic language, traditions and culture. The modernists show reluctant and disinclined attitudes to Arabize. For them French language is adequate enough to teach scientific and technical skills. The advocates of such attitudes towards Arabic do not at all put the process of Arabization a step forward ; if anything, they stand on its way. The nationalists perceive the process of Arabization as a political ideology in that it is not only a kind of expression of patriotism but also as a deliberation from colonization. It becomes quite clear that these negative attitudes associated with Arabic are stressed to the point of absurdity, but the serious problem which constitutes a major hindrance for Arabization resides in people's reluctancy to use Arabic language and not in the so-called problems posed by the Arabic language itself.[9]

IV. POTENTIALS OF ARABIC

It goes without saying that a language is an adaptable sociological organism. That is to say, it undergoes processes of growth and development in the same way as does the society in which it is spoken. Defects and inadequacies surrounding Arabic do not rise from the nature of the language itself, but rather from the people who use the language and the attitudes they hold towards it. And since history reveals that Arabic was a language of universal civilization and that it displayed its ability to meet the scientific and cultural requirements of the past, we should prove today that it is □ still able to create new concepts for all arts □.

The judgements we sometimes hear that Arabic is a dead language or that it is not flexible enough to replace foreign languages as a medium for scientific and technical discourse are beliefs that are not based on real evidence, but rather on impressionistic, maybe hostile, attitudes. These judgements and many others are of no value simply because they go contrary to the objective scientific analysis. Arabic, unlike what its enemies maintain, has all the necessary predispositions to incorporate as many concepts and ideas as possible. Semantics and morphology are the major linguistic levels upon which Arabic, like other languages of course, relies to build new vocabulary.

V. REAL DIMENSIONS OF ARABIZATION

One of the most ultimate goals of Arabization is to make Arabic a strong language capable enough to express the up-to-date inventions in the fields of science and technology. In order for Arabic to attain this level, a number of efforts have been made to modernize and elevate Arabic at various levels, namely its script, vocalic system, punctuation, lexicon, grammar and so on and so forth (the Arabic language seems to be blamed for being inefficient at all these levels). Hence, holding up Arabic entails its promotion as a medium of instruction across all disciplines. In order to deal with the specific problems of □ modernization □ of the Arabic language and coining terminology, several organizations have been founded all over the Arab world. Language academies in the Middle East are one instance. To avoid any potential inconsistency among these academies and under the urgent need for a central language agency, the foundation of the IERA (Institut d'études et de recherche sur l'arabisation) took place under the direction of Lakhdar Ghazal who proved to be a very skilled scholar in this field. From this universal perspective, Arabization is an all embracing operation which taints all the walks of life with that quality of Arabness. Hence, Arabization in the end is a return to the authentic Arab identity in which the Arabic language assumes the role of official and national language in all aspects of life.

A. Getting Rid of the Linguistic and Cultural Dependency

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[9] Al-Hazmi, S. (2005), in a paper submitted to the colloquy on Languages in the Era of Globalization wrote that " The Second Arab Human Development Report (2003) prepared by the UNDP, states that the Arabic language today is facing harsh challenges and a real crisis in terms of: Theory, teaching, grammar, vocabulary, usage, documentation, creativity and criticism. The UNDP Report calls for strengthening the linguistic shields of Arabic and sharpening its practical attributes which emphasize its universal character and its ability to assimilate new informational and technological development. The Report also calls for, as a matter of necessity, the Arabization of university education and the improvement of the methodology of teaching Arabic and modernizing its curricula... The translation movement in the Arab world at large is chaotic. The UNDP Report mentions that only 4.4 translated books per million people were published in the first five years of the 1980s (less than one book per million per year), while the corresponding rate in Hungary was 519 books per one million people and 920 books in Spain…Translation and interpretation is a major activity…which is expected to offer more access to scientific information not currently available in languages like Arabic."

Because of the foreign influence, the linguistic situation became very intricate and problematic as well. The most paramount example is the excessive use of foreign languages and the noticeable reliance on the Western culture. The process of Arabization is, therefore, a revolutionary linguistic movement which has been introduced to react against such a chaotic situation in which Arabic is almost totally neglected, and an urgent need to restore the Arabic identity. In order for them to achieve this stage, Arabic should be considered the sole official and national language. This, in a sense, entails Arabic to assume all the social functions. Furthermore, this linguistic movement purports to do away with alien languages, which are reminiscent of periods of oppression and exploitation during the colonial rule.

Hence Arabization is extremely very well evaluated and estimated for its importance and role in the formation of an independent national character. In this way, Arabization is viewed as a national aspiration for a world of equal educational and socio-economic opportunities. In spite of all of this, Arabization as an institutionalized process seems to have received little support, if any, from the parts of the political authorities. The whole atmosphere almost in the entire Arab world does not seem to be in favor of Arabization. The foreign languages are still predominant in all aspects of life. The Arab world aims, therefore, at considering Arabization to be mandatory for preserving the purity of Arabic and Arabness. To do so, Arab countries are required more than ever to follow the example of Asian countries policy, like Japan and Korea, in changing the whole situation in favor of Arabic in stead of foreign languages. In other words the transition, from the stage of consumption of knowledge to its production, remains a must.

B. The Promotion of a Strong Development to the Arab World

The historical experience has shown that the aims of colonization are to exploit and gain profits from the colonized rather than to serve them. Thus, it is quite obvious that no development of the Arab world is to be expected so long as dependency on the legacy of colonization is prevalent. Arabization in this sense is pregnant with audacious qualities for a bright future for the Arab world. First, Arabization is not a separatist movement. It aims, then, to establish a well unifying Arab world. This unity of the Arab speaking community is quite important. Once this unity is achieved, a kind of complementarity is to take place among the Arab countries. It seems quite obvious that the dominance of foreign languages is a call of the minorities who extract extravagant advantages from the present situation. For these elitist minorities, the stagnation of this muzzy linguistic situation is the utmost aim. From this perspective, the need for total Arabization is quite intense and as attested no subsequent development is possible while the linguistic situation is not given its due weight.

VI. Conclusion

It has been made clear that these unrealistic judgements are out of place because they go against the basic principles of objective scientific analysis. A brief assessment of the language has indicated that Arabic, by virtue of its richness in the semantic and morphological techniques of forming new words for basic lexical concepts, could only with a certain amount of ingenuity cope with any needs for more vocabulary.

More importantly, methods of teaching Arabic and its curricula, which are not as efficient as might be desired, should be revised, improved and modernized. Besides, in order for the language to play its historical role as it did in medieval times, it must not only be revitalized and enriched, but also unified and standardized. Without coordination of efforts at reviving the language, it would not be surprising to find a multiplicity of terms proved by different Arabic language academies for one and the same newly reduced concept; a state of affairs which is likely to lead to confusion and bring Arabization at the same time to complete failure.

A number of advantages have been cited to show that Arabization is actually a very urgent need and that using Arabic in all walks of life will undoubtedly put an end to a wide variety of problems in almost all vital fields of knowledge. What is therefore needed are huge efforts so as to attain all these aspirations. An important task such as this, calls for years of hard work, patience, perseverance and constant financial support.

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Case Checking in Verbless Sentences Functioning as Embedded Clauses in Modern Standard Arabic: A Minimalist Account[*]

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Abstract—**The purpose of this paper is to provide an account of case checking in verbless sentences functioning as embedded clauses in Modern Standard Arabic with an eye on the recent developments within syntactic theory, namely the Minimalist Program. Using the Checking Theory as a frame of reference, I argue that the predicate in verbless sentences functioning as embedded clauses gets its accusative case under agreement with the subject. The underlying assumption is that verbless sentences are predication phrases (PredPs) dominating nominal and adjectival phrases. The PredP mediates agreement between the predicate and the subject of the verbless sentence and thus facilitates the mechanism under which case is checked. Empirical as well as cross-linguistic evidence will be given to support the proposed account.**

Index Terms—**minimalism, case checking, accusative**

I. INTRODUCTION

One significant characteristic of Arabic syntax is the existence of a structure in which accusative case must be assigned to both subject and predicate of an embedded clause. The following examples are illustrative:

(1) waʒadtu   [ʕaliy-an   muxliS-an]
     Found.1s   Ali -acc   honest-acc
     "I found Ali sincere."

(2) daraitu   [al- xabar-a   Saħiħ-an]
     knew.1s   the-news-acc   true-acc
     "I found that the news is true."

(3) ittaxi ð   [aS-Sidq-a   mabdaʔ-an]
     take.2ms   the-sincerity-acc principle-acc
     "Let sincerity be your principle."

(4) ittaxaða   allah-u   [ibrahi: m-a   xali: l-an]
     took.3ms   God-nom   Abraham-acc   friend-acc
     "And God took Abraham (for) a friend."

Each of the bracketed clauses above consists of a subject DP followed by a predicate which may consist of an adjective phrase or a noun phrase. This construction corresponds to what the Arab grammarians referred to as a verbless sentence. It is verbless because it contains no verb. A verbal sentence, in contrast, contains a verb. Compare the following illustrative examples:

(5) aʒ-ʒaww-u   ʒamiil-un
     the-weather-nom   nice-nom
     "The weather is nice."

(6) kaana   aʒ-ʒaww-u   ʒamiil-an
     was.3ms   the weather-nom   nice-acc
     "The weather was nice."

The example in (6) contains a verbal copula, while (5) lacks it. This study provides an account of case checking in these constructions in which the verbless sentence is embedded under a case-assigning verb. In particular, it will investigate how the predicate in examples (1-4) gets to check its accusative case.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To the best of my knowledge, verbless sentences functioning as embedded clauses in Arabic have not received too much attention in the literature. In this section, I present how these constructions have been analyzed by Arab

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grammarians.

There are three positions in the literature concerning the analysis of verbless sentences in Arabic. One analysis argues that there is a verbal copula in verbless sentences but it is not lexically realized either because it has undergone deletion (Bakir, 1980) or it is phonologically null (Fassi -Fehri, 1993). A second analysis treats verbless sentences as matrix small clauses (Mouchaweh, 1986), while a third analysis proposes that verbless sentences contain a functional projection that is marked for tense but no verbal copula (Benmamoun, 2000). I will discuss these alternatives in the following subsections

A. Verbless Sentences Contain a Phonologically Null/Zero Copula

Fassi -Fehri (1993, p.87) suggests that the copula is present at D-structure in verbless sentences but it fails to lexicalize because it carries an unmarked T feature, i.e., [-past]. In verbal sentences, in contrast, the copula bears [+past] T feature which forces it to be realized phonologically. Notice that the suggestion that there is a null copula in verbless sentences implies that there is a functional projection which hosts tense. That verbless sentences have an inflection structure that contains a [-past] T feature is borne out by the fact that temporal adverbs, depending on their temporal specification, may or may not co-occur with the tense morphology present on the verb. Consider the following examples (from Fassi-Fehri 1993, p.88):

(7) a. yaakulu   r-raʒul-u   l-ʔaan-a
         eat.3ms   the-man-nom   the-now-acc
         "The man eats now."

    b. * yaakulu   r-raʒul-u   ʔamsi
         eat.3ms   the-man-nom   yesterday.

The idea here is that the temporal adverb *l-ʔaan-a* which denotes present time is compatible with the tense morphology on the verb *yaakulu* "eats", while *ʔamsi* "yesterday" is not. The same contrast can be obtained in verbless sentences as the examples below show:

(8) a. r-raʒul-u   mariiD-un   l-ʔaana
        the-man-nom   sick-nom   now
        "The man is sick now."

    b. *r-raʒul-u   mariiD-un   ʔamsi
        the-man-nom   sick-nom   yesterday

The fact that (8a) is grammatical with the temporal adverb *l- ʔaana* but not *ʔamsi* suggests that tense is unmarked in verbless sentences. This is also supported by the fact that when the copula *kaana* is used in (8b), the sentence is rendered grammatical:

(9) kanna   r-raʒul-u   mariiD-an bil-ʔamsi
     was   the-man-nom   sick-acc   yesterday
     "The man was sick yesterday."

The grammaticality of the above example is due to the compatibility of the temporal adverb and the [+past] T feature represented by the lexicalization of the copula.

However, Fassi- Fehri's assumption that there is a null copula in verbless sentences is not without problems. It cannot, for example, account for the fact that the predicate in a verbless sentence like (10) where the copula is without a phonological matrix is marked with nominative case while when the copula is lexicalized it (i.e., the predicate) bears accusative case. The following examples illustrate this point:

(10) aʒ-ʒaww-u   ʒamiil-un
      the-weather-nom   nice-nom
      "The weather is nice."

(11) kaana   aʒ-ʒaww-u   ʒamiil-an
      was.3ms   the-weather-nom   nice-acc
      "The weather was nice."

As the above examples show, Fassi-Fehri's analysis cannot explain why when the copula is overt the predicate carries accusative case, but when it is null it carries nominative case. The same argument can be extended to the constructions under study in which both the subject and the predicate are marked as accusative.

B. Verbless Sentences as Matrix Small Clauses (i.e., no an INFL Node)

Mouchaweh (1986) (cited in Banmamoun 2000, p.39) adopts a matrix small clause analysis for Arabic verbless sentences. He claims that verbless sentences do not contain any functional projection. They only include the lexical projection of the predicate, the subject of the predicate occupying the specifier position of this projection. He posits the following D-structure for predicational sentences:

(12)

```
            A/N/PP
           /      \
        NP        A/N/P'
                     |
                  A/N/P
```
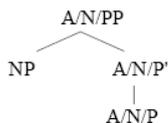
According to this analysis, there is no functional projection above the lexical projection to host tense. However, this structure cannot explain the fact that verbless sentences do sometimes contain temporal adverbs that locate the event in time, as is shown in the following example:

(13)   aʒ-ʒaww-u   ʒamiil-un   ʔalaan
       the-weather-nom   nice-nom   now
       "The weather is nice now."

Benmamoun (2000, p.40) argues that there are a number of good reasons why verbless sentences cannot be analyzed as small clauses. His first argument stems from the fact that a verbless sentence embedded under a tensed matrix clause does not have the same temporal reference as the matrix tense. Instead, it has its own tense interpretation. This is illustrated in (14), where the matrix clause has a past tense interpretation while the embedded verbless sentence has a present tense interpretation:

(14)   qal   b∂lli   Omar f-d-dar
       say.past.3ms that   Omar in-the-house
       "He said that Omar is in the house."

By contrast, Small clauses depend on the matrix clause for their temporal reference, as shown in (15):

(15)   Š∂f-t   Omar naʕ∂s
       see.past-1s   Omar sleeping
       "I saw him and He was sleeping." (not "I saw him and he is sleeping.")

Another strong argument for Benmamoun's analysis of verbless sentences as full-fledged clauses that exhibit the same properties of tensed clauses is the fact that the subject surfaces with nominative case, as shown in (16):

(16)   ṭ -ṭ - aalib-u   fii   l-maktabati
        the- student-nom   in   the-library
        "The student is in the library."

The fact that the subject "ṭ -ṭ - aalib-u" is nominative can be straightforwardly explained if we assume that there is a T head that checks nominative case.. To account for the absence of a verbal copula in verbless sentences, Benmamoun posits that the T head in the present tense has different categorial feature specifications from the past and future tenses. In contrast to the past and future tenses which are specified for both [+D] and [+V] features, the present tense in verbless sentences is specified as [+D] only. The fact that present tense is not specified for a [+V] feature implies that the copula is not needed to check this feature. The [+D] feature, on the other hand, can be checked by the subject. Benmamoun gives the following structure for verbless sentences (Benmamoun 2000, p.49):

(17)

```
            TP
           /  \
         NP    T'
              /  \
             T    AP/PP/NP
    [+present, +D]      |
                     A/P/N
```
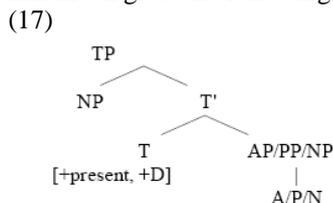
Under this analysis, the subject raises to the Spec of TP to check its [+D] feature. Since the T head is not specified for a [+V] feature, it does not need a verbal copula to check this feature. Therefore, verbless sentences lack a verbal copula. The past tense, in contrast, is [+V] and thus the presence of a verbal copula that can check the categorical [+V] feature is a must.

To conclude, Benmamoun proposes a theory of categorial features of tense to account for the absence of a verbal copula in verbless sentences. The main assumption of his theory is that the elements that fill the head of the TP have different categorial feature specifications (Benmamoun 2000, p.50):

(18)   Present [deictic]   [+D]
       Past   [+D, +V]
       Future   [+D, +V]

It follows that in both past and future tenses, a verbal copula is needed to check their [+V] feature. In present tense, there is no need for a copula since it is not specified for a [+V] feature.

Following Mouchaweh (1986), I assume that Arabic does have small clauses. For instance, in (1) above repeated here as (19), there is a predication relation between ʕaliy-an "Ali" and muxliS-an "sincere".

(19)   waʒadtu   [ʕaliy-an   muxliS-an]
       found.1SG   Ali -acc   honest-acc
       "I found Ali sincere."

Unlike Mouchaweh, I assume that small clauses in Arabic are not bare lexical projections. This is based on the fact that predicates of small clauses agree in case with the subjects of which they are predicated even when the subjects are extracted. Consider the following sentence:

(20)   Zaid-un   aʕlamtu-ka   kariim-un
       Zaid-nom   told.1s–you   generous-acc
       Lit." I told you Zaid is generous."

I thus propose that there is a functional projection that facilitates case checking in these constructions. It provides the configuration under which predicates check their accusative case features. This issue will be discussed in detail in the next section.

To sum, none of the above proposals gives an account of the mechanism under which the predicate in Arabic embedded small clauses checks its accusative case feature. In what follows, I will provide an analysis of these constructions within the current syntactic theory. I will assume that the subject in embedded small clauses checks case by entering into a Spec-head relation with the verb of the matrix clause. The predicate, on the other hand, checks its case feature under agreement with the subject of which it is predicated.

III. SMALL CLAUSES

Most of the discussion about small clauses has been devoted to the question of whether they exist. There are two distinct traditions in the literature regarding the proper analysis of small clauses: the Small Clause Theory and the Predication Theory. The Small Clause Theory assumes that each of the bracketed strings below forms a D-structure constituent:

(21)   I consider [John intelligent].
(22)   I saw [John run].
(23)   I consider [John my best friend].
(24)   I found [John in the garden].
(Cardinaletti& Guasti 1995, p.10)

This view has gained wide acceptance among linguists (Sportiche ,1995, Hayashi, 1991, Hornstein & Lightfoot ,1987, Suzuki, 1991), to cite a few). A powerful empirical argument in support of the *Small Clause Theory* is provided by Sportiche (1995), who points out that a constituency test like coordination treats small clauses as constituents:

(25)   Louis considère Marie drôle et Pierre stupide.
        "Louis considers Marry funny and Bill stupid."

The strings *Marie drôle* and *Pierre stupide* are constituents since only phrasal constituents can be conjoined.

The Predication Theory, on the other hand, holds that the bracketed strings above are not clausal constituents, but the phrases *consider….intelligent*, *saw...run*, *consider…..my best friend,* and *found….in the garden* are. This assumption led Williams (1983) to posit an analysis in which the DP is directly governed by the verb and the AP serves as the predicate to that DP:

(26)   I [consider [John] DP [intelligent] AP] VP

This syntactic configuration suggests that there is a subject-predicate relation established indirectly between *John* and *intelligent*. In other words, it is assumed that the complex predicate *consider-intelligent* is composed before the DP John is associated with the predicate *intelligent* and that this association is not direct. Williams (1983, p.293) presents various arguments in favor of the Predication theory. He argues, for example, that the phenomenon of scope lowering in raising constructions favors the Predication theory over the Small Clause theory. For a sentence like (27a), the SC theory assigns the structure (27b)

(27)   a. someone seems sick.
       b. someone $_i$ seems [t $_i$ sick] X

The claim is that the SC theory incorrectly predicts that a narrow scope reading can be derived from (27a):

(27c)   *x seems $_i$ [someone$_i$ [t$_i$ sick] X] X
        ≠There seems to be someone sick.

Under the Predication theory, (27a) has a structure like:

(27d)   Someone $_i$ [seems $_0$ [sick] $_{AP\ i}$] VP $_i$

Quantifier raising cannot lower the quantifier *someone* onto the AP because there is no trace in the AP that can function as a bound variable. Therefore, a narrow scope reading cannot be derived.

Contreras (1995) combines the two approaches in the following terms: verbal and adjectival predicates are small clauses, nominal and prepositional predicates are not. One of the facts that led Contreras to assume that adjectival and verbal predicates (i.e., predicates headed by a [+V] predicate) are small clauses while nominal and prepositional predicates (i.e., predicates headed by a [-V] category) are not and thus should be analyzed differently is that they differ with regard to the identification of the local domain for binding anaphors contained in them. In [+v] predicates, the local domain for an anaphor is the embedded clause containing it (p.136):

(28)   a. We consider [Mary proud of herself].
       b.* We consider [Mary proud of ourselves].

      c. We consider [Mary proud of us].

      d. * We consider [Mary $_i$ proud of her $_i$].

(29)   a. We saw [Mary embarrass herself].

      b. * We saw [Mary embarrass ourselves].

      c. We saw [Mary embarrass us].

      d. * We saw [Mary $_i$ embarrass her $_i$].

[-V] predicates, on the other hand, show a larger governing category:

(30)   a. They consider John each other $_i$'s friend.

      b. They $_i$ want the wind away from each other $_i$.

Given these contrasts, *Mary* is a subject in (28) and (29) while *John* and *the wind* in (30) are not. Contreras thus concludes that nominal and prepositional predicates are structurally different from verbal and adjectival predicates. In effect, he adopts Larson's (1988) analysis of double-object constructions and proposes the structures (31) and (32) for (23) and (24), respectively (Contreras 1995, p.141):

(31)
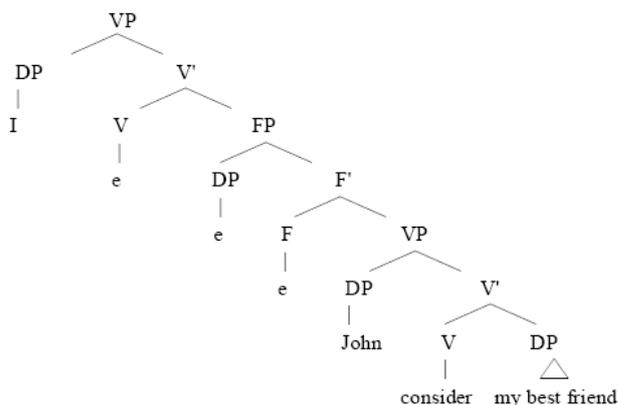
(32)
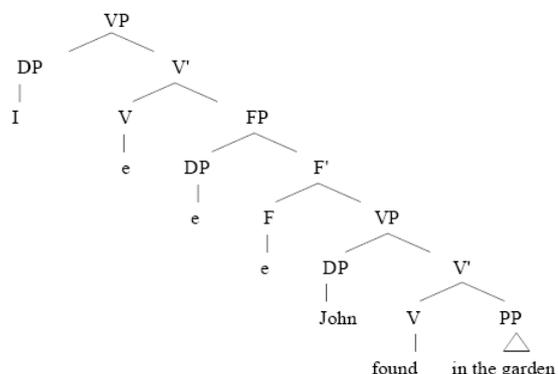

The claim is that *consider* and *found* move first to F and then to the higher V position and that *John* raises to Spec of FP in order to check its case features. Structures (33) and (34), on the other hand, are suggested for adjectival and verbal predicates, respectively, where the subject of the small clause raises to the Spec of FP to be assigned case by the matrix verb:

(33)
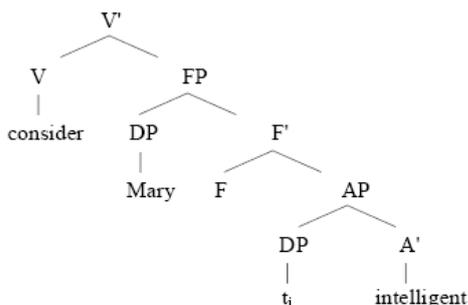
(34)
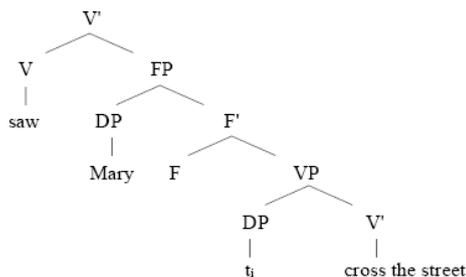
It is not clear, however, how the analysis would explain the fact that the predicate NP/AP in similar constructions in languages like Polish, Russian and Arabic are assigned accusative case. It does not provide a configuration under which these secondary predicates can check their case features. Therefore, I disagree with Contreras that adjectival and nominal predicates have different structures. I assume that there a functional projection immediately dominating the embedded AP and NP that provides the mechanism under which the predicate checks its accusative case.

To sum, if we assume the small clause theory to be correct, then what kind of syntactic category is a small clause? This question will be addressed in the next subsection.

A. The Internal Structure of Small Clauses

Among the proponents of the constituency of small clauses, there is no agreement on the precise syntactic configuration of the small clause. Two basic analyses have been proposed:

1. Small clauses as maximal projections of their predicates.

2. Small clauses as functional projections.

Small Clauses as Maximal Projections

Moro (1995), Rothstein (1995), Mouchaweh (1986) among others have argued that small clauses are lexical projections of their predicates with the subject of the predication adjoined to this projection. Moro (1995, p.112) notes that a small clause is best analyzed as an adjunction structure where a subject DP is adjoined to a maximal projection of a lexical head as in (35):

(35)
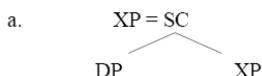
The claim is that small clauses contain a predication relation and that this relation is not established by any functional head. Moro provides a number of empirical considerations to falsify the hypothesis that the predication relation is derived by agreement (i.e., the functional head Agr) between the subject and the predicate. If a small clause is a projection of the functional head Agr, Moro argues, then two DPs mismatched in gender and number like those in (36) are expected to show agreement (Moro 1995, p.114):

(36)   a. [DP*ques*-i   *libr-i*]
            this + MASC + PL   book + MASC + PL
        b. [DP *la*   *caus-a   della rivolta*]
            the + FEM + SG   cause + FEM + SG of -riot

However, this is not the case in (37) below:

(37)   *Gianni ritiene* [SC [DP *questi libri*] [DP *la causa della rivolta*]].
            Gianni believes   these books   the cause of- the riot

The two DPs in (37) above enter into a predicative relation but agreement is not realized. The fact that nominal small clauses can consist of a predication relation that is not mediated by agreement led Moro to conclude that:

"… small clauses need not necessarily be analyzed as AgrPs. They may be AgrPs, of course, as in the case of AP predicates; however, this must be regarded as an accidental fact that has nothing to do with predication but rather with specific morphological necessities of adjectives" (p.115)

Though representing a significant generalization, Moro's analysis is inadequate on conceptual grounds. Functional projections are needed to integrate the small clause within the matrix clause. As it will be argued later, they provide the configuration under which the predicate of an embedded small clause checks its case features.

Rothstein (1995) investigates the relation between small clauses and copular constructions. She argues that "be" is obligatory in both predicational and identity matrix copular sentences but optional in predicational sentences only in those cases where they are embedded under a CP (Rothstein 1995, p.41):

(38)   a. I consider the winner (to be) a good runner.
   b. I consider the winner *(to be) Mary.

Rothstein explains that *be* is optional in (38a) because there is a predicative relation between the subject and the predicative that licenses the structure. In contrast, in an identity sentence like (38b), neither of the two lexical constituents is a predicate. Therefore, *be* is obligatory to identify the Infl node which has to be affixed onto a verbal

head. The subject NP is licensed as the subject of I' and the post- copula NP is licensed as the complement of Infl.

Under such assumptions, equative sentences do not involve a small clause because there is no way for that small clause to be licensed. Rothstein's analysis of an equative sentence gives it a structure that looks like (39):

(39)
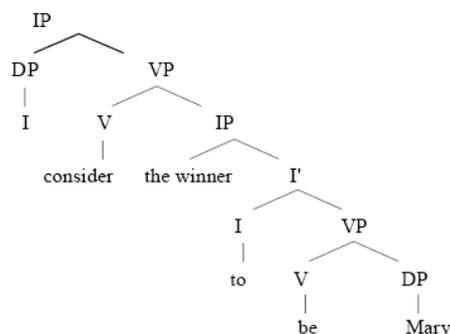
A predicative sentence, in contrast, has a structure like (40):

(40)
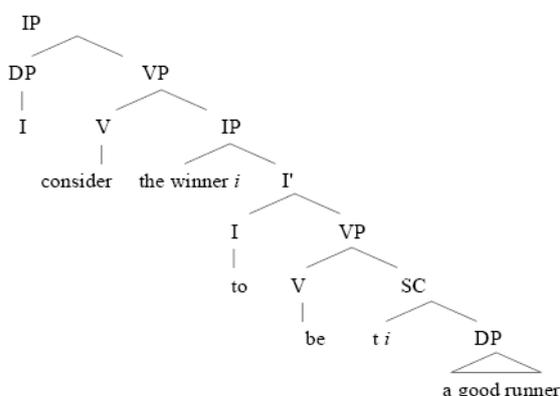
However, the above derivation does not make it clear how the predicational relation between the subject and the non-verbal predicate is licensed. This issue is tackled in the next section.

Small Clauses as Functional Projections

Guéron and Hoekstra (1995), Suzuki (1991), Nakajima (1991), Endo (1991), Kikuchi and Takahashi (1991) among others have adduced ample evidence in support of the view that small clauses are best analyzed as AgrPs. Suzuki (1991) adopts a sentence structure developed by Pollock (1989) and Chomsky (1981) as a basis for his analysis of the inner structure of small clauses. It is a structure in which Infl is split into two different heads-a T (tense) head and an Agr (agreement) head, each of which projects into a separate phrasal projection:

(41)   [$_{TP}$ DP [T'   T [$_{AgrP}$ Agr   VP]

He goes a step further and proposes that a subject is base-generated at the Spec of AgrP and can be raised to the Spec of TP to receive case from T. Under this view, (42) is suggested as an S-structure representation (p.28):

(42)   [$_{TP}$ DP$_i$ [T'   T [$_{AgrP}$ t$_i$ [$_{Agr'}$ Agr   VP]]]]

Suzuki's hypothesis is that AgrP corresponds to an SC and thus he assumes that an SC has a representation that looks like:

(43)   [AgrP DP [Agr' Agr XP]]

Suzuki presents several arguments in support of his hypothesis that an SC is Agr. One argument concerns the difference between an SC and other clauses with regard to propositional negation. We can see this difference in the following examples:

(44)   a. *Mary can not leave*
          b. ⌐ (CAN (Mary, LEAVE))
          c. CAN (Mary, ⌐ (LEAVE))
(45)   a. *John saw [Mary not leave].*
          b. John saw (NOT (LEAVE (Mary)))
          c. John saw NOT-LEAVE (Mary)

(44a) can mean "Mary is allowed to stay" as in (44c) or "Mary is not allowed to leave" as in (44b). (45a) means "John saw Mary stay" as in (45c) but there is no indication that John saw someone do something else as in (45b). Suzuki argues that an SC does not allow propositional negation because it lacks a position for the negative *not*. This can be attributed, Suzuki (1991, p.33) states "to the categorical distinction between an SC and a finite clause, to the extent that sentential negation *not* lies somewhere around a tense node: a finite clause (=TP) contains T, while an SC (=Agr) does not".

Guéron and Hoekstra (1995) propose that each lexical projection is dominated by a functional category that provides the licensing domain of the lexical projection. They also assume that each predication includes a node Agr. When a lexical head serves as a predicate, its head is checked by Agr, which itself is checked by the subject of the predication. Therefore, in a small clause such as *John is foolish* in (46a), the head of the small clause will be associated with Agr, yielding a structure like (46b):

(46)   a. We considered John foolish.

         b. [John $_i$ Agr [$_{AP}$ t $_i$ foolish]]

(Guéron and Hoekstra (1995, p.78)

The trace in (46b) above is motivated by Theta Theory, whereas Agr is motivated by predication. Predication is taken by Guéron and Hoekstra to be inclusion: "the subject is included in the denotation of the predicate (p.78)."

B. Case Checking in Complement Small Clauses

Chomsky (1993) suggests that the small clause complement of *consider* in (26) above is to be assigned the mnemonic label AgrAP:

(47)   I consider [AgrAP John [AgrA' AgrA [AP intelligent]]]

The assumption is that the NP *John* raises further to [Spec, AgrOP] at LF where it enters into a checking relation with the matrix verb. Chomsky's (1993) analysis of small clauses as AgrPs predicts that the subject will have overt agreement with the predicate. This is based on the assumption that Agr categories mediate agreement. But if the predicate of the small clause agrees with the subject, it has case features as well. It is not clear, however, by which mechanism the case-features of the element remaining inside the small clause are checked.

Bowers (1993) proposes a universally structured theory of predication that provides a unified account of both main clause and SC predication. He hypothesizes a new functional category which he calls *Pr*, a mnemonic for *predication*. *Pr* is assumed to have the following basic properties (Bowers 1993, p.595):

(a) The canonical D-structure position for external arguments is [Spec, Pr];

(b) Pr^0 F-selects the maximal projections YP of any lexical category Y;

(c) Either PrP is F-selected by I^0, or it can be subcategorized as a complement by V;

(d) The semantic function of Pr is predication.

Under this assumption, predication is represented as follows:

(48)

```
                   PrP
                  /   \
   (subject) NP      Pr'
                    /   \
                  Pr     XP  (predicate)

        X= {V,A,N,P}
```
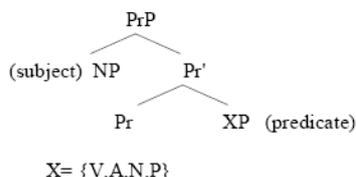
Examples like (21) above can be thus represented as in (49):

(49)   [IP I consider [PrP John [Pr' [Pr e][AP intelligent]]]]

With respect to structural cases like nominative and accusative, Bowers (1993) assumes that they are assigned or checked through Spec-head agreement. It follows that *John* enters into a Spec-head relation with V to check its accusative case, whereas the subject *I* moves overtly from [Spec, Pr] to [Spec, IP] to check its nominative case. His analysis does not explain how the predicate gets to check its case in languages where the subject and predicate of the small clause are marked as accusative.

To sum up, various proposals have been made regarding the internal structure of small clauses. The most important conclusion that can be dawn from this heated debate about their structure is to assume that there are different types of small clauses and each type should be analyzed in a way that takes account of its properties and distribution.

IV. TOWARDS A MINIMALIST ACCOUNT

In this section I present an account of case checking in verbless sentences functioning as embedded clauses. I repeat here the relevant examples:

(50)   waʒadtu   [ʕaliy-an   muxliS-an]
           found.1s   Ali -acc   honest-acc
           "I found Ali sincere."

(51)   daraitu   [al- xabar-a   Saħiħ-an]
           knew.1s   the-news-acc   true-acc
           "I found that the news is true."

What needs to be looked at here is how the case features of the predicates *muxliS-an* and *Saħiħ-an* are licensed. I will argue that these embedded clauses are predication phrases dominating an adjectival or nominal phrase. This proposal provides the configuration under which predicate NPs or APs can check their accusative case feature. Adopting the Agr-less theory of feature checking, example (51) will have the following underlying representation:

(52)

```
                      TP
                  ┌────┴────┐
                Spec        T'
                       ┌─────┴─────┐
                       T          vP
                             ┌─────┴─────┐
                            DP          v'
                             │      ┌────┴────┐
                          pronoun   v        VP
                            tu            ┌───┴───┐
                                              V'
                                        ┌─────┴─────┐
                                        V           SC
                                        │       ┌────┴────┐
                                      dara      DP        AP
                                                 │    ┌────┴────┐
                                             al-xabara Spec     A'
                                                                │
                                                                A
                                                             Saḥiḥan
```
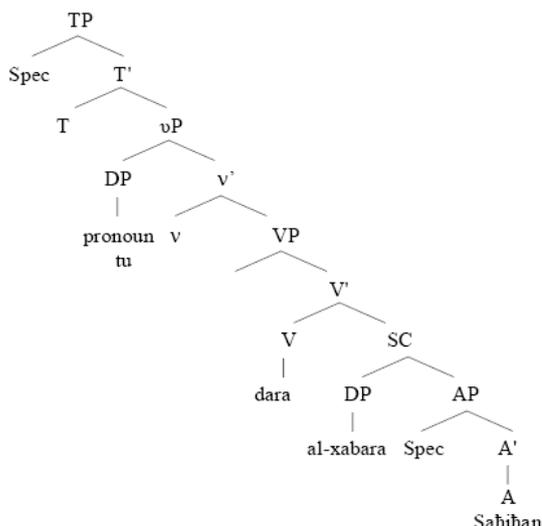
It seems that the current account faces a serious empirical problem. Since only DPs are presumed to move out of the VP for case, it is not clear how secondary predicates get their case checked. Based on the assumption that the subcategorization properties of the matrix verb require a sentence-level functional projection category to dominate the verbless sentence, I assume that there is a functional projection that mediates an agreement relation between the subject and the predicate of the verbless sentence. This is borne out by the fact that the subject and its predicate exhibit agreement in gender, number and person as is shown in the following examples:

(53) waʒadtu   ?at-taalib-a   muʒtahid-an
     found.1s   the-student.3ms-acc   hard worker.3ms-acc
     "I found the student a hard worker."

(54) waʒadtu   ?at-taaliba-ta   muʒtahida-tan
     found.1s   the-student.3fs-acc   hard worker.3fs-acc
     "I found the student a hard worker."

(55) waʒadtu   ?at-tulaab-a   muʒtahid-iin
     found.1s   the-student.3mp-acc hard worker.3mp-acc
   "I found the students hard workers."

This would be accounted for by assuming that this type of agreement is mediated by a functional projection. On these grounds, I will assume the following configuration for verbless sentences in Arabic, where PredP has agreement features (adapted from Bowers 1993):

(56)

```
         V'
      ┌──┴──┐
      V     PrP
      │   ┌──┴──┐
    dara Spec   Pr'
          │   ┌──┴──┐
      al-xabara Pr   AP
                      │
                  Saḥiḥan
```
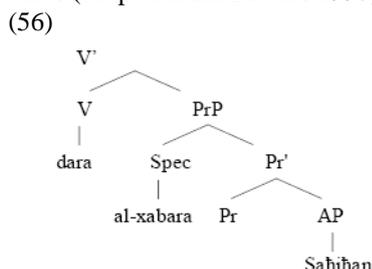
The assumption is that the case feature and the phi-features of the predicate are licensed through the trace of the subject which raises eventually to a Spec of vP where it can check its accusative case against that of the matrix verb under a spec-head configuration. In brief, the accusative case on the predicative AP *Saḥiḥan* is the result of agreement with the DP *al-xabara*. (57) is the LF representation of (51):

(57)
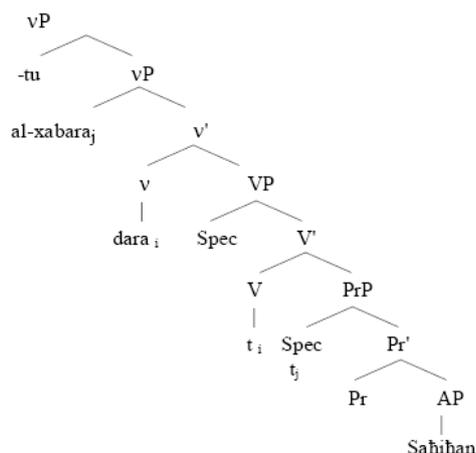
The assumption that the case of the predicate of the verbless sentence is dependant on that of the subject is based on a number of arguments. The first argument comes from the observation that negating the embedded verbless sentence causes a case shift not only on the subject of the embedded verbless sentence but also on the predicate. This is exemplified by the following constructions:

(58)   ðanantu   maa   Zaid-un   Sadiiq-un
        think.1S   neg   Zaid-nom   truthful-nom
        "I think that Zaid is not truthful."
        (From Wright 1967, p.51)

(59)   ʕalimtu   maa   at-tahawwuru   ʃaʒaaʕatun
        know.1S   neg   the-hastiness-nom   bravery-nom
        "I know that hastiness is not bravery."
        (From Hassan 1973, p.32)

As the above examples show, since the case on the predicate is the result of agreement with the subject of which it is predicated, both occur in the nominative case. Compare this to:

(60)   ðanantu   Zaid-an   Sadiiq-an
        think.1s   Zaid-acc   truthful-acc
        "I think that Zaid is truthful."

Here the negative marker *ma* does not occur in the embedded verbless sentence and the subject and predicate are marked as accusative. Case shift also occurs when the verbless sentence is introduced by the affirmative particle *La* (Wright 1976, p.51):

(61)   ðanantu   la-Zaid-un   qaaʔim-un
        think.1s   truly Zaid-nom   standing-nom
        "I think that Zaid is standing up."

Moreover, if we assume that the case marking on the predicate of the verbless sentence stems from agreement with the subject, then once the subject is moved out of its base-generated position to a sentence-initial position and is marked as nominative, the predicate should also be marked as nominative. This prediction is borne out by the following examples:

(62)   a. yaðunu   aʒ-ʒahilu   as-saraab-a   maaʔ-an
           think.3ms   the-ignorant-nom   the-mirage-acc   water-acc
           "The ignorant thinks he sees water but it is only a mirage."

        b. as-saraab-u   maaʔ-un   yaðunu   aʒ-ʒahilu
           the-mirage-nom   water-nom   think.3ms   the-ignorant-nom

        c. as-saraab-u   yaðunu   aʒ-ʒahilu   maaʔ-un
           the-mirage-nom   think.3ms   the-ignorant-nom   water-nom
(From Hassan 1975, p.23, p. 39)

(63)   a. ðanantu   Zaid-an   ʒahil-an
           think.1s   Zaid-acc   fool-acc
           "I think that Zaid is a fool."

        b. Zaid-un   ðanantu   ʒahil-un
           Zaid-nom   think.1s   fool-nom
           "Zaid; I think, is a fool."
(Wright 1976, p.51)

Examples (62a) and (63a) show that both the subject and the predicate receive accusative case from the same source,

namely from υ of the verb *yaʿunu*. However, when the subject is moved to a peripheral position, the case shifts from accusative to nominative and this affects not only the subject but the predicate of the verbless sentence as shown by (63b). This suggests that the predicte checks its case features via agreement with the subject of which it is predicated.

To sum up, the predicate of the embedded verbless sentence checks its accusative case indirectly by entering into an agreement relation with the subject which in turn checks its case against the verb of the matrix clause under a Spec-head configuration. This agreement analysis has also been adopted by Bailyn and Citko (1999) in their syntactic account of case marking of nonverbal predicates in Russian. Russian predicates exhibit two patterns of case marking: one in which the secondary predicate is marked with instrumental case and another in which the secondary predicate is marked with the same case as the NP being predicated of. (64) Shows representative examples of these two standard patterns of case marking (Bailyn and Citko 1999, p.19, p. 22):

(64) a. Ja sčitaju   ego   durakom/*duraka (Russian)
         I consider   him-ACC   fool-INSTR/*ACC
         "I consider him a fool."
      b. Ja prinimaju   ego   za duraka/*durakom
         I   take   him-ACC   as fool-ACC/ *INSTR
         "I consider him a fool."

As we see in the above examples, the instrumental case appears on the DP predicate in (64a), while the secondary predicate in (64b) exhibits a different case pattern, one that is similar to the NP being predicated of, namely accusative case. Bailyn and Citko refer to the former pattern of case marking as *Absolute Case* and the latter as *Relative Case*. To account for the fact that only these two case patterns appear on predicate NPs in Russian, Bailyn and Citko (1999) adopt Bowers' (1991) PredP analysis of predication and propose that the Pred (ication) functional head has strong Instrumental Case features. This proposal is captured in the following generalizations (Bailyn and Citko 1999, p.20, p.22):

(65) Predicate Instrumental Rule
      $Pred^0$ has strong Instrumental Case
(66) Morphological Pred Rule (MPR)
      Overt morphology in $Pred^0$ absorbs Instrumental Case

According to these principles, *za* which is the overt realization of $Pred^0$ absorbs the Instrumental Case features of the Pred(ication) head. In other words, when *za* does not occur in the construction, the $Pred^0$ head assigns an (inherent) Instrumental Case to its complement as is shown in (64a) above. Structure (67) below represents the configuration under which the assignment of Absolute Case (inherent Case assignment) by the Pred head takes place:

(67) *Structure for Absolute Case Assignment to predicate* (Bailyn and Citko 1999, p.21)
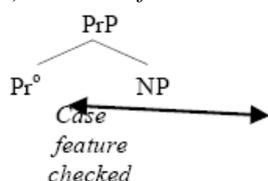

When *za* occurs in the construction, it absorbs the Instrumental Case features as is shown in (64b) above. The question that arises here is what happens if we treat *Za* as a preposition assigning accusative case. Bailyn and Citko reject traditional analyses that treat *Za* as a preposition and provide several arguments to support their analysis of *Za* as a Pred head. Their main argument is based on the observation that there are cases in Slavic where *Za* does not assign accusative case in predicative structures. Consider the following examples from Frank (1995, p.29):

(68) a. čto èto   za kniga?
         what that   as book-nom
         "What kind of book is that?"
      b. čto èto   za kniga   on   obradovalsja?
         what that   as book-dat   he   enjoyed
         "What kind of book was is that he enjoyed?"

It follows that the only way for the secondary predicate in (64b) to get case is to raise to a position in which it agrees in case with the NP being predicted of. This is further illustrated by the following representation (Bailyn & Citko 1999, p.26):

(69)
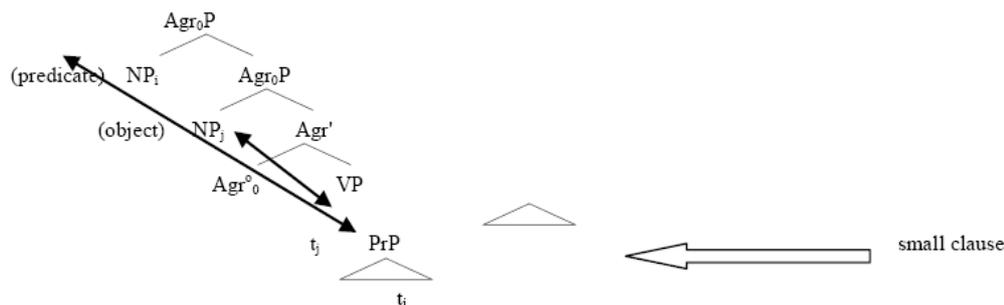
Bailyn and Citko's proposal is that structural case of predicate NPs is checked under a Spec-head configuration (AgrO in the case of accusative and AgrS in the case of nominative). It follows that in constructions where more than one element is marked with the same structural case, checking takes place in multiple Spec configurations. This is exemplified in the above representation where both the NP predicate and the NP being predicated of move to form to a multiple Spec structure. This results in having an agreeing secondary structure in which the predicate NP is marked with accusative case as the phrase being predicated of.

In the case of predicative APs, however, we find instrumental case. Consider the following example:

(70) Ja sčitaju   ego   glupym / *glupogo
      I consider   him stupid-INSTR/ *ACC
      "I consider him stupid."

Bailyn and Citko argue that these APs are in fact NPs with null-N^0 heads. In this respect, they act like all NPs predicates in Russian. They receive their case via the predicate instrumental rule.

To conclude, Bailyn's and Citko (1999) proposal that predicative phrases (APs and NPs) are case marked either via agreement with their antecedents or the instrumental of predication rule. Their analysis is similar to the analysis I have given for predicative phrases in Arabic. I have argued that predicative NPs and APs are predicatively case marked via agreement with their antecedent NPs. My analysis, however, differs in the sense that it does not recourse to the Agr-based theory of case to account for case checking in embedded predicative phrases.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper provides a minimalist account of case checking in Arabic verbless sentences functioning as embedded clauses. I have argued that the predicate of embedded verbless sentences gets its accusative case under agreement with the subject. This is based on the assumption that verbless sentences are predication phrases (PredPs) dominating nominal and adjectival phrases. The PredP mediates agreement between the predicate and the subject of the verbless sentence and thus facilitates the mechanism under which case is checked.

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A Critical Look at the Teacher Factor in Senior Secondary School Students' Poetic Appreciation Skills Development

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Abstract—The paper examines the teacher factor in the development of poetic appreciation skills among Senior Secondary School (SSS) students. A questionnaire was administered and data collected from two secondary schools in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. The data is analysed using mean average, frequency count, column chart, and rank scale. The major finding is that the teacher is a significant factor in the development of Senior Secondary School students' poetry appreciation proficiency. Moreover, the effect of book scarcity, which could be severe due to the current economic problems worldwide, could be mitigated through the teacher's creativity. A reconsideration of curriculum choices in terms of recommended poetry texts to reflect familiar African cultural products before the unfamiliar European ones is also advocated.

Index Terms—poetry, teacher factor, linguistic incompetence, L2 learners, English language, literature education

I. INTRODUCTION

Poetry has been described by many as an artistic creation which is meant to excite the senses. It has also been described as a product of imagination and emotional and imaginative discourse in metrical form, which represents ideas that have special reference to emotional significance (Senanu & Vincent, 1976; Abrams, 1981). Poetry is an imaginative art and therefore very personal to the poet. Being a product of imagination personal to the poet, it becomes coloured, inspired by the emotions of this person (Akporobaro, 2008; Dasylva & Jegede, 2005; Egudu, 1977). It is these emotions and ideas private to the poet that we must get at and try to unravel through poetic appreciation.

Poetry is also a discourse. Every discourse makes use of language (Leech, 1969; Toolan, 1998; Chase & Collier, 1985). This is why some scholars tend to call it language of feeling, which is the perceived notion of poetry by the 18th century Romanticists. William Wordsworth went as far to as to define poetry as the expression of powerful feelings recalled in tranquillity (Wordsworth, 1802). This indicates one quality of poetry that is very obvious and, to many, ominous: intensity (cf. Knapton & Evans, 1967). Beyond mere emotive display by poetry, some scholars regard it as an organisation of language (Fowler, 1981; Short, 1996; Simpson, 1997). This seems to vindicate the Russian formalists' position that poetry is all sufficient in itself.

The question however is this: Is poetry really self-sufficient? Is the structural form of a poetic piece adequate to give all the meanings derivable from it as a work of art? This remains a source of great controversy for the simple fact that poetry seems to have as its pivot language, because the forms and meanings of literature (poetry) are linguistically generated. It is the tool with which the poet creates their work. Though, it is not a kind of language, it certainly is a use of language. It is a rich exploitation of the reference and relationships inherent in language ((Empson, 1936) in Fowler, 1973).

While linguists, psychologists, and philosophers have pondered on the nature of language for years, the essential consensus is that language is a tool or channel through which information is passed from person to person (cf. Medina, 2005). Language is also seen as an avenue of expressing ideas, and one may dare say, the poet's ideas. As a channel of information (Miller, 1951), language seeks to be meaningful for the receiver of the information to decode the intended message. Poetic language may, therefore, be seen as the language of poetry, or what may also be called poetic diction. If language is thus the expression of ideas, poetic language may be called that which expresses the poet's ideas. It conveys information from the poet to their audience. Obviously, the poet makes use of ordinary language to achieve 'effect', which often arose from a rich exploitation of the references and relationships inherent in language.

It is this exploitation of the references and relationships in language to give a seeming deviatory and more than ordinary moulding of language that gives the aesthetic challenge to the sensibility. It makes language of poetry sophisticated and special. According to Lewin et al (1965) in *Encyclopaedia of Poetry and Poetics*, if poetic language is characterised by deviation from the grammatical rules, it must of necessity fall outside the scope of the study of ordinary utterances by linguists. It therefore appears that poetry is written from the grammatical rules that are different from the grammatical rules governing ordinary language. This has been described as poetic license. But the question is:

against what norm do we compare poetic language (cf. James, 1998)? For there to be a deviation, there should be a norm, whether deliberate or non-deliberate.

All literary works are verbal constructs. They are created from language, which is the tool that the creator uses to actualise their imaginary micro world. The language of the society thus becomes the norm from which the poet deviates. It is a known fact that one of the accepted characteristics of language is convention. This convention of language in society is thus seen as the norm of language use in that society, which a deviation could be safely measured against. Nevertheless, one needs to mention that the concept of deviation from the norm as a literary style remains a very controversial issue. Jan Mukarovsky calls deviation foregrounding, which involves making some distinct linguistic features prominent in a work (Freeman, 1970). But to Halliday (1971), foregrounding is also an attainment of a norm by the writer. Leech and Short (1981), however, suggest that norm should be determined in relative terms, that is, in comparison to the author's other works or to other works within the genre.

Having said this much, the concern in this paper is: how do all these affect the learning of poetry in Senior Secondary Schools (SSSs) in Nigeria? The very fact that the channel through which poetry in Nigerian schools is learnt is the English language makes a pause necessary here. Is it poetry itself that is a problem or the language that is being used to teach it? Is it that the students are not highly motivated to learn it or are they? Are the teachers and their methods of teaching poetry the problem?

The position of the English language in Nigeria cannot be overstated. It is very important in the instruction of the Nigerian students. It is actually the language of instruction in the secondary schools (*National Policy on Education*, 2004). It is thus rather difficult to avoid the use of English in the secondary schools. Moreover, as the subject in which poetry is taught in Nigerian Senior Secondary Schools is tagged Literature-in-English, English as medium of instruction is unavoidable. As poetry has been described as an organisation of language, it is clear that poetry taught to Nigerian secondary school students is the organisation of the English language.

Learning is a change in the behaviour of the learner (Tella, Ajayi & Olowoye, 2004). This change in behaviour must be positive as judged by the educator. It is considered progressive in terms of the value placed on it by this educator. The learner of poetry thus needs to be able to decipher what is put inside of the poetry they are analysing to be adjudged as having learnt that poetry. They see what is of aesthetic value and the style used by the poet to achieve this. They have some desire or interest to appreciate what is beautiful in the work. All these combine to make them want to unravel the 'defamiliarised language'. The process of defamiliarisation must become familiar (Wales, 1989).

However, this depends on how much they can relate to what they are learning (cf. Bala, 2011). Students get motivated to learn if they consider the material to be learned meaningful to them (*Encyclopaedia of Education*, 1977). The concept of meaningfulness refers to the extent to which the material relates to the things that the students are familiar with. This is however one of the identified problems of poetry learning in Nigeria. Haynes (1979) states that "in poetry teaching, we tend to confront students with 'advanced' work at the outset" (p. 207). He adds that students with little or no knowledge of poetry before get confronted with sophisticated texts of Wordsworth, Keats, Byron, etc. "which tax even the native speakers." When the native speakers of the English language have problem with English poems, how much more the learner reading them through a second language?

This method may not help the Nigerian secondary school students to perceive the message content in poems but merely get frustrated at what they cannot perceive. It may lead to fixed attitudes or even prejudice against poetry. The non-interest of many Nigerian secondary school students in poetry evidently supports this viewpoint (cf. Bala, 2011). This is without prejudice to the assertion by Knapton and Evans (1967) that even American students with English as their first language also tend to stop reading poetry after completing their English class program. They lose sight of the valuable message that may be contained in poems. The idea of noise as stipulated in Miller's (1951) model of communication consequently becomes a reality. He defines noise as any interference factor in the process of communication. This noise may take the form of lack of prior understanding of the information. Error in communication thus results.

But this may not be the only cause of 'noise' to the appreciative ability of the Nigerian learner. Another kind of interference is what may be called that which results from lack of competence. This competence is essentially the linguistic one as professed by Ferdinand de Saussure in his theory of 'langue' and 'parole' (Chomsky, 1965). This focus on competence versus performance has generated a lot of debate among linguists, especially between generativists and functionalists (cf. Adegoju, 2005; Alo, 2005; Chomsky, 1965; Daniel, 2008; Dik, 1986; Halliday, 1985; Gray, 1978; Hudson, 1980; Newmeyer, 2001; Ogunsiji, 2004; Olaoye, 2007). However, this writer's view on the matter remains that competence and performance are actually complementary elements. Competence is essentially about ability, a mastery of a particular task. Inability to perform this task will make the person ineffective. A student that lacks understanding of the language used to write a poem will definitely find it an uphill task to appreciate such a poem. Competence in the language in which the poetry to be appreciated is written thus becomes crucial to unravelling the message of the poet. How to achieve this competence is consequently crucial to the task of appreciating poems by the secondary school students.

English is a second language in Nigeria. This fact makes it one that can only be learnt to different degrees of competence under various conditions. Using English as L2 is an activity superimposed on the prior mastery of one's first language and is a different process intellectually. The degree of competence in the English language is a reflection

on how well students can appreciate poetry. If students find it difficult to understand a simple sentence in its denotative form, one can only imagine what will happen when this sentence is inverted or manipulated to seem like something else. This is because tolerance of deviation is very high in poetry (Wales, 1989). If this is so, students still grappling with the denotative use of the English language would likely encounter a greater problem in its connotation; especially, as this connotation is concentrated, intense and emotive. The meaning in the figurative language is also essentially culture-bound. It is interpreted in terms of or in reference to a culture. All these will therefore have implication for the aptitude of the students to interpret poems.

Vincent (1979) alleges that teachers of poetry in the Nigerian secondary schools were badly taught on how to teach poetry. Eriche (2012) asserts that the quality of the curriculum content of the teacher education naturally has implication for the quality of instruction given to students. Looking at the identified problems that students of literature may encounter, one fears that the capacity of such teachers to get across the necessary information contained in the poetic diction used by authors may become problematic. This is even more critical in the face of the observation by Haynes (1979) that educators tend to confront students of literature in Nigeria with poems that strain even the native speakers of English. Linking this to the problems of linguistic incompetence that confronts many of these students that have the English language as their L2 in Nigeria, one considers it pertinent that a critical look needs to be taken at the teacher factor in developing the appreciative skills of secondary school students in poetry. Literature remains an important means of preserving the culture of any people. So also is the ability to appreciate literary works a very important means of attaining levels of education and culture that only high and critical thinking can produce. The teacher factor in all these thus becomes crucial as it is the factor that coordinates the process of achieving true and positive change in behaviour by the learner.

Objective of the Study

This paper set out to investigate the effect of the teacher factor on the ability of secondary school students to appreciate poetry.

Research Design

This study is a survey of the general attitudes of students in the Senior Secondary School literature class to the appreciation of poetry, with particular reference to the role of the teacher in the process of developing the students' poetic appreciation skills.

Research Question

To what extent does the teacher affect the SSS students' interest and skill in appreciating poetry?

II. METHODOLOGY

Sample Population

A purposive sampling technique is used to obtain the sample population of 105 from two schools in Ibadan. The students used as the study sample are those offering literature-in-English in the SSS classes in the schools used. It is important to note that Ibadan is a metropolitan city, actually, the third largest in Africa. It is thus expected that at different levels, the population sample is representative in terms of background and exposure to poetry. Moreover, the population is made up of a mixture of boys and girls in the Senior Secondary School level, that is, SS1, SS2, and SS3 classes thus showing a structural make up of the population in terms of levels of formal exposure to poetry. International School (ISI), University of Ibadan, Ibadan and Orogun Grammar School (OGS), Orogun, Ibadan are the two schools used. These two schools have diverse economic and social orientations. One is what you will call a school for privileged children (ISI), while the other is for the 'boys downtown' (no gender prejudice intended). The total population from these schools is 105. This makes up the literature students who were available at the time of administering the questionnaire. Specifically, 40 students made up of 30 females and 10 males were given the questionnaires in ISI and 65 made up of 44 females and 21 males turned up for the class during which the questionnaires were administered in OGS. The impression given by the summary in the table below is that there are more females in the literature class.

TABLE 1:
POPULATION SAMPLE

Schools	Sex	No.
International School, Ibadan	F	30
	M	10
Orogun Grammar School, Ibadan	F	44
	M	21
Total		105

Does this trend have any implication for this study? This is not the issue of focus in this study.

Instrument of Data Collection

A questionnaire is used to collect data for the study. The instrument is tagged 'Questionnaire on the Problem of Poetic Appreciation among SSS Students' (QPPA). It is constructed along two main parts. These are in line with the foci of the information sought in the study while the population it was administered to could be considered representative within the Nigerian socio-educational milieu. The instrument is thus considered valid and reliable. The

first part has 14 questions, which are in the alternative choice form. These seeming questions are statements of expression of opinion on the students' attitude to poetry, poets, teachers, and possible psychological and sociological factors that may interfere with or affect their learning of poetry. These choices are expected to help narrow down their responses to manageable proportions. They are essentially meant to elicit the motivational and attitudinal postures of the students to poetry. The second part of the questionnaire seeks to unravel the linguistic difficulties they encounter in the course of studying poetry. These likely linguistic difficulties are vocabulary problems, expressions, figures of speech, grammar, and interpretation. They are expected to reorganise these items in their perceived order of difficulty. The data collected from the instrument is then analysed using descriptive statistics. The first section is analysed using the average mean as well as the frequency of occurrence. Column graph is then used to present the pictorial representation of the students' attitudes. Ranking scale is applied to the linguistic difficulties. These different sections are analysed based on the focus of information sought. They are then presented in three different tables and a column chart to demonstrate this.

Procedure

Questionnaires were administered in the two schools on two different days. The literature teachers' in the two schools were very helpful in organising the students for the successful administration of the questionnaires. The questionnaires were given out to the students in both schools on each day with the express instruction that they should take their time in giving their opinions on each of the items. They were discouraged from doing group work but rather encouraged to take options that strictly reflect their individual opinions on the items in the questionnaires. Moreover, they were encouraged to seek clarification on any item that is not clear to them from the researcher. Even though some of them attempted to do group discussions on the questionnaire, this was discouraged and they were once again reminded to direct their questions to the field personnel. The questionnaires were retrieved after some time on their filling in their responses.

Data Analysis

A corpus of data was collected from the responses given by the students in the questionnaires. The data are first studied in terms of the sex and schools of the population sample as shown in Table 1 above. Some of the statements in the questionnaires are scored with units of 4, 3, 2, 1 assigned to the alternative choices. The average means of these scores are then found. Frequency count is also done to analyse the data. These are ranked according to their frequency of occurrence and presented in tabular and graphic forms. The levels of linguistic difficulties are also ranked to reveal what the students consider their most de-motivating linguistic difficulty.

III. RESULT

TABLE 2:
STUDENTS' MOTIVATION FOR POETRY READING

Item	No.	Mean Average
How many students like poetry	1	3.5
Why do they read it	3	3.5
When do they read it	4	3.4
How much do they admire poets	5	3.4
How easy do they consider it	11	3.1
How often do they read it	13	2.8
Maximum		4.0

From Table 2, it appears that the learners' motivation for reading poetry is very high. Item 1 that seeks to find out the number of students that like poetry does well in their responses. It receives a mean average of 3.5. This shows that it remains only 0.5 for the mean to reach a perfect expression of liking for poetry. However, the not so good showing of Item 4 on their frequency of reading poetry raises doubts about how well they understand Item 1. Nonetheless, the general performance of their desire to read poetry appears passably good, indicating a high motivation for reading poetry.

TABLE 3:
ATTITUDES OF STUDENTS TO POETRY AND THE TEACHER

Items	No.	Frequency	Percentage
Those that consider poetry easy rather than difficult	12	84	80
Those finding the teacher positive though not exceptional	9	81	77.1
Those that compare poetry to tales	6	78	74.3
Those that can decipher the real nature of poetry	8	48	45.7
Those that read it to learn	10	42	40
Those that like rhythm in poetry	2	42	40
The most militating problem of book scarcity	14	40	38.1

The chart below presents a graphic representation of the frequency count of students' attitudinal postures to poetry reading and the teacher.

Fig. 1: Chart Showing Students Attitude to Poetry and the Teacher
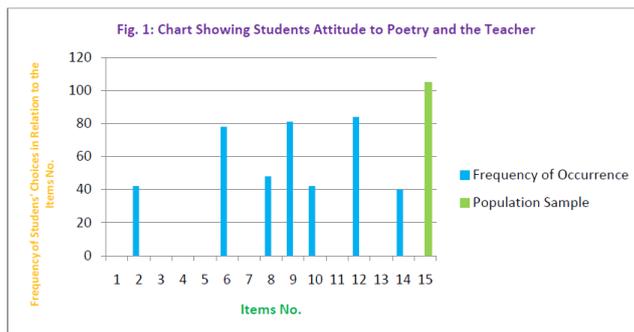
Table 3 and Figure 1 reveal the sort of attitude the students have towards poetry reading. From the table and the chart, it is observed that they apparently have a generally positive attitude towards the reading of poetry. The fact that 84 (80%) of the students think that poetry is easy rather than difficult gives this impression of a positive attitude to poetry. This marks the highest number on the students attitude frequency scale. The specifics of what they consider positive about poetry are its rhythmic nature (40%) even though it seems to them more like telling of tales (74.3%). Musicality combined with content is thus a factor in the students' attraction to poetry. This shows that they can perceive the content and form of poetry on its substantive basis. This is significant because it shows that a good number of them are of the opinion that it has information to give or a story to tell, which, in their view, it seems to tell in an enjoyable manner. Poetry to them is thus not mere form; it has substance. It can thus be deduced that poetry is not a mere abstraction to them but something they can relate to, just like story-telling.

This appears to help them to appreciate the real nature of poetry. Even though not many of them did, a mere 48 (45.7%) of them, this still makes up the majority for the question. They therefore see poetry as accessible rather than being too difficult and unrealistic in Item 6. This may also be attributed to the perception of the teacher's contribution. To their mind, the teacher makes poetry something interesting to learn about, so they want to learn about it; without much prodding, that is. 81 (77.1%) of them hold this view as shown in their responses to Item 12. It thus appears that the teacher factor is relevant as a contributory factor to kindling their interest in poetry. Nevertheless, many of the students consider book scarcity as the biggest militating factor against poetry reading as seen in their responses in Item 14. This sociological factor is seen as central to the problem facing their ability to develop a good poetic appreciation skill. It thus appears from Table 3 and Figure 1 that students generally view poetry reading in a very positive light, at least not as negatively as one feared as expressed above.

TABLE 4:
PERCEIVED LINGUISTIC DIFFICULTIES CONFRONTING STUDENTS IN POETIC APPRECIATION IN RANKING ORDER

Itemised Linguistic Difficulties			Scoring of Linguistic Difficulties			Ranking Order of Difficulties	
			Difficulties		Scores	Rank	Difficulties
A	Vocabulary Problems	1............	A	Vocabulary Problems	2	1	Interpretation
B	Expression	2............	B	Expression	4	2	Expression
C	Figures of Speech	3............	C	Figures of Speech	3	3	Figures of Speech
D	Grammar	4............	D	Grammar	1	4	Vocabulary Problems
E	Interpretation	5............	E	Interpretation	5	5	Grammar

The second section of the questionnaire asks about the linguistic difficulties the students encounter in poetic appreciation. In reordering these linguistic difficulties on a scale of 1-5 in terms of magnitude of difficulty, it becomes obvious in Table 4 that grammar is considered the least difficult and interpretation the greatest. The first column gives the list of linguistic difficulties as presented in the questionnaire while the second column presents the average scores given to each difficulty by the students. The third column presents the ranking order of the linguistic difficulties. From Table 4, interpretation ranks highest in terms of difficulty magnitude. This is followed by expression and figures of speech, which were used to beautify the poems. One could surmise that these linguistic adornments make the words lose their original meaning or just deepen such meaning. But the grammar of the language may prove least troublesome because the student has become familiar with the grammar of English, having been so frequently exposed to it since the primary education level.

IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Two important issues stare us in the face from the analysis done so far. The first one is the issue of linguistic incompetence in the L2 by many of the students, which reveals itself in the fact that they find the language of poetry top heavy, that is, inaccessible. As noted above, poetic diction tends to be a result of the poet's attempt to make even familiar English language, which poses enough challenge to the Nigerian secondary school students, unfamiliar through syntactic and vocabulary idiosyncrasies of the poet. A point made above that is also crucial to the linguistic problem is the fact that many of the poems teachers choose for their literature classes tend to be unfamiliar to the students' cultural background (cf. Young, 2010). As noted above, an unfamiliar material in the educational process will most likely turn

off the learning antenna of the student. This makes the teacher factor very crucial to students' poetry learning tasks, especially in terms of the use of their discretion in the choice of poems students study. This is not to lose sight of the part played by those who recommend the texts to be used by the teacher in all these as well as the availability of such texts as the identified problem of book scarcity shows in Table 3. In the face of the global economic meltdown that is prevalent now, a teacher's discretion in choosing available books in the country would be the wisest option. But as noted below, curriculum planners have a lot to do with this issue of text availability. For the ODL practice, the point is that the facilitator needs to be innovative in the poetry class. It goes without saying that the instructional designer is central in making such available recommended texts the focus of the material design of literature-focused English course material.

The next issue to tackle is the teacher factor. How does the teacher factor play out in the process of poetry learning by students in the secondary school level? The analysis above in Table 3 reveals a positive rating for the teacher; it is the option with the second highest frequency of occurrence. However, looking more critically at the students' responses reveals that even though these 81 respondents look at the teacher as an important factor to their developing their poetic appreciation skill, they do not consider the teacher as adding a great deal of value to their interest in poetic appreciation (Item 12). Why this may seem so is that they think the teacher is not doing enough to help them develop more than their basic skill in poetic appreciation. This agrees with Haynes (1979) observation on this same problem in poetry teaching. Even though the teacher makes poetry learning interesting, they do not consider such lessons lively enough to sustain their interest. The positive rating of the teacher by such a high number of the respondents shows hope, though, when one compares this result with Vincent (1979, p. 219) assertion that Nigerian teachers "were badly educated on how to teach poetry generally," one may therefore look at the students seeing poetry as something easy to learn as attributable to the teachers' efforts. One may, however, wonder if learning about poetry is the main reason why poems are written. Nonetheless, in a literature class, poetry is meant to be learnt and taught (Knapton & Evans, 1967). The guide for such young minds in the secondary education level is thus the teacher.

Evidently, there is no way that the attitude of the teacher towards the subject they are teaching or their approach will not affect it (Eriche, 2012). In consequence, a negative or not overtly positive attitude or approach is likely to elicit a negative response from the students. Young (2010) actually fears that teacher's bias in the classroom is an important mitigating factor to classroom effectiveness of pedagogical practices. The respondents to the questionnaire do not believe that the teacher is negative or uncommitted. They only perceive the teacher's efforts as not being (good) enough. This may not be unconnected with what Vincent (1979) calls the teachers being 'badly educated'. If the teacher does not have a good mastery of the subject they are to teach, it spells doom for the future of the subject in question (cf. Eriche, 2012). This does not really encourage the learner.

In the first place, many teachers lack the historical background in the teaching of their cultural heritage to draw from in their poetry teaching tasks. Secondly, the curriculum of their studies as student teachers does not allow them to really specialise in either language or literature. This assertion is based on the system as it exists in the Department of Teacher Education, University of Ibadan, School of Education, National Open University of Nigeria INOUN), and the college of education system as it exists in the Federal College of Education, Okene (which mostly derive their curricula from the supervising commissions' benchmark documents). Moreover, due to a lack of total mastery of the subject content, the teacher is unable to adequately impart the substance of learning to the students. What happens is that the teacher rather glides over the subject content and leaves the rest, which Haynes (1979) calls superficial teaching. To whom does the teacher leave the rest of what the students are to learn? one may ask. The learner is thus left unfulfilled and frustrated: having not learnt much about the real skills required for independent poetic appreciation.

The suggestion is thus that the teacher should be given a good and adequate education. This should be intensive, at the outset, and continual, subsequently. A teacher should constantly learn and update their knowledge on what is happening in their field of specialisation. Nigeria English Studies Association (NESA) is a good forum for doing this, through attending its annual conferences; the teacher is also someone to be educated constantly, not minding the economic implication. Eriche (2012) agrees with our postulation here as he also insists that quality (recurrent) training is what gives birth to quality delivery. One must commend the National Open University for the constant workshops that it exposes its staff to on the practice of the Open and Distance Learning. Probably, the new nature of the ODL practice in Nigeria and the fact that many of these staff members are usually drawn for the conventional system accounts for this dogged commitment to training and retraining of the NOUN staff, time will tell. The point is that a teacher should be constantly exposed to new practices in their field.

It should be taken into account that the organisation of the Nigerian educational system encourages specialisation for the maximisation of skill utilisation. A curriculum for teachers of English should therefore be drawn up which produces either language specialists or literature specialists for the secondary schools. What the teachers know very well they are likely to deliver even better. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) double major curriculum in English should be the focus in colleges of education, while the curriculum departments in the universities should let student teachers specialise in either language or literature the same way BA students do in the departments of English of conventional universities. This same generalist tendency had been seriously questioned by Daniel (2010) in critiquing the present structure of the National Open University of Nigeria BA English programme. Specialisation is a crucial means of raising effective teachers in the classroom.

The teacher in the class should make sure that the students are involved at every stage of the lesson. The teacher may ask the students to dramatise poems in an informal fashion. This brings the message home to them quickly. This writer has used this method and found it very effective in poetry teaching. The teacher could also encourage the students to write their own poems. The teacher helps them to look at the poems in order to lead, guide, and correct them where necessary. That supposedly dull child, because of poor performance in mathematics, may actually be a potentially great poet. Releasing the students' creative energy may even make the teacher's work much easier in that when they see the tricks required to manipulate language for effect in creating poems, they will become better at unravelling the poetic creations of others. This is beside the fact that this positive channelling of youthful energy could prevent some of them from easily falling prey to the deceit of terrorist gangs.

The teacher can also help by maintaining a sort of invisible or floating library in their class in which different people bring different books on poetry. These are then exchanged in the class. The students can discuss what has been read in the class while the teacher moderates. They should be encouraged to always do a critique of whatever they read, even orally. This sharpens their thinking/critical faculty.

A very crucial problem that could hinder succeeding in all these is the issue of curriculum and the works students are required to read. John Haynes (1979, p. 207) makes an important point when he connects all that has been said to the educational curriculum:

A problem in poetry teaching at the introductory level with second language students is that...we do not normally begin...with simple isolated problem, proceeding to increase difficulty in stages; in poetry teaching, we tend to confront students with 'advanced' work at the outset...sophisticated texts which tax even native speakers.

If this should be so, one wonders why this approach is used and why it is still expected that students should understand and master poetry.

The fact that students are confronted with 'advanced' work at the outset rather than starting from the simple isolated problems shows that the psychological principle of from known to the unknown, simple to complex and so forth has been turned upside-down [see a full outline of this principle expressed as Maxims of Teaching in Eya (2012, p. 25)]. Curriculum planners should be aware that this sort of approach usually leaves the poor student floundering at the sea of the unfamiliar; the teacher becomes a pilot without a real compass and can therefore not safely lead students to destination. If the learning of poetry in English sometimes confounds the native speaker, what more can be expected from the second language learner.

The teacher and curriculum planners thus have the task of making literature education relevant to the students. They should give them such materials which they can associate with as the background knowledge before all other things should follow (Tella, Ajayi & Olowoye, 2004). It should not be the other way round. Students should learn about Africa before going outside. They should first be introduced to poets and poetry books that are available in Africa before searching for the elusive foreign texts. Should not Nigerian students learn about the raining season in Africa as it exists in J. P. Clark's "Night Rain" before going to learn about the distant freezing snow? Is it not better to learn about the free flowing African blank verses before going into the staccato couplets and metres of the Europeans? The submission is YES. The curriculum planners need to answer these questions. But more importantly, the discretion of the wise and effective teacher will always provide the way out.

The Open and Distance Learning Connection

The Bachelors degree of education in the English programme should enable the trainee teacher to specialise. However, as it is only with the servicing department that this could be done, a programme that would allow this is necessary in the BA English programme to enable the BA Ed programme to have sources to feed its students. It is thus gladdening to note that a serious overhaul of the NOUN BA English programme has been done to make this possible with the increased literature content (You may see the revised DPP and the NOUN forthcoming Catalogue that contain this review). All that remains is that the education component restructures its own programme to make this possibility happen.

In addition, the place of the Open and Distance Learning (ODL) practice in the issues raised above is in terms of the material design. Usually, the teacher factor has to do with the preparation of course materials in the ODL practice. It is thus essential that the teacher curriculum be such that can allow the trainee teacher to be innovative (cf. Daniel, 2012). In this wise, the materials designed for the teacher of the subjects in the literature-in-English component of the English programme in any ODL focused teacher training institution should be such that can enable the teacher become innovative. But at a closer range, the designer of the material needs to be proactive in terms of the content of such course materials. As one has done in a practical class of literature methodology in the delivery of poetry teaching techniques, it could be such that the effective material designer for the literature class should be able to bring into play so many factors to make the material content easily accessible to the ODL students. As asserted by Daniel (2012a), technology should become an important ally of that teacher that intends to succeed in the modern class.

The class of the ODL practitioner is usually the instructional material prepared for the student, whether trainee teacher or just the plain BA students of the English programme. Attempts at not only making the local content of the material very high but also making sure that it is designed in such a manner that an interactive media like the video can be a part of the content to make the accessibility of the material of a much higher possibility. NOUN is presently using

its radio, FM105.9, as a means of doing some of these. Television delivery will definitely raise the stakes higher for the University in terms of impact and effectiveness.

At the present, the materials designed for the literature classes in the English programme of the National Open University of Nigeria are very much compliant with the local content requirement. This suggests that the material designers of NOUN have usually been made to play critical role in making literature an accessible and relevant content to the learning process of the NOUN student. Even though this study is actually focused on the secondary education level, the pedagogy of accessibility of learning content remains essentially the same. For the ODL practitioner then, the quality of the material design is the crucial issue. If the instructor, in this case the instructional designer, hopes to make any impact in the life of the students to use the material designed for self-study, it must be made such that the student's study time is exciting as well as adding to cultural pride and enrichment due to the teacher's (material designer's) efforts.

The teacher thus remains an essential pivot in the success of the educational process. Nevertheless, the end result of such a pivotal role should be the reproduction of the self in the kind of teachers that can go into the field, whether in the conventional or ODL mode, and be able to make qualitative impact in the students learning process in any class of study for that matter.

V. Conclusion

This paper has discussed the special nature of poetry, identifying some important factors that shape secondary school students' ability to appreciate it. It identified the teacher as an important factor in the whole process of developing students' skill in poetry appreciation. The capability of the teacher to help students develop a proper competence in the English language and confidence in poetry appreciation is considered a major requirement for the effective teacher of literature. It is thus concluded that, as those entrusted with the task of developing the minds of young Nigerians, the teachers have to look inward to improve their delivery. Giving quality teacher education and encouraging a frequent in-service training is considered crucial to re-invigorating literature education in Nigeria, with particular reference to poetic appreciation development skill of Senior Secondary School students. Despite the global economic meltdown, the creative teacher will produce students of the future through creative teaching. But the government cannot afford to ignore the recommendations proffered above if Nigeria will go beyond the seeming perpetual economic meltdown that has plagued it since the mid-80s.

APPENDIX QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE PROBLEMS OF POETIC APPRECIATION AMONG SSS STUDENTS

AGE: …………………………… **SEX:** …………………………………………
CLASS: …….…………………
SCHOOL: ……
All information will be treated with utmost CONFIDENCE.
INSTRUCTION: Please, circle any answer you choose from questions 1-14.
1. I like poems…………………………………………...
   a. very much
   b. fairly well
   c. only a bit
   d. not at all
2. I like poems because of its………………………………….
   a. stanzas
   b. metric lines
   c. rhythm
   d. rhyme scheme
3. Poems are……………………………………………………
   a. very easy
   b. fairly easy
   c. fairly difficult
   d. very difficult
4. I read poems……………………………………….
   a. always
   b. often
   c. once in a while
   d. not at all
5. I read poems…………………………………………….
   a. for enjoyment
   b. just for class work
   c. just to pass exams

   d. only for assignments
6. I found poetry usually ………………………………………….
   a. very deep
   b. very technical
   c. very involved
   d. very easily understandable
7. Poetry captures…………………………………….………
   a. the essence of the world
   b. the ugliness of the world
   c. nothing that I can see
   d. the beauty and essence of the world
8. In poems, ………………………………………………………
   a. a little is being said in few words
   b. a lots is being said in many words
   c. a lot is being said in very few words
   d. a little is being said in many words
9. To me, poetry is like …………………………………………….
   a. Story-telling
   b. Music
   c. Mathematics
   d. Nothing
10. I read poems ……………………………………………………
   a. for their worth
   b. for their beauty
   c. if I don't find anything else to read
   d. to learn about them
11. I read poems ………………………………………………………….
   a. only when we have poetry lesson
   b. only with the help of the teacher
   c. on my own at school
   d. on my own at home
12. My literature teacher makes poetry ……………………………... for us
   a. interesting
   b. boring
   c. uninteresting
   d. very lively
13. I …………………………………………….. poets.
   a. admire
   b. am indifferent to
   c. don't admire
   d. don't really have any opinion about
14. I don't read poetry as often as I will like to because …………………………………………………….
   a. my parents are illiterates so never introduced me to it
   b. my parents are educated but don't read such things like poems
   c. there are not many published books on poetry
   d. my teacher doesn't give us the idea of the poetry book to read
15. Here is a list of difficulties one can find in poetry. List the items in order of importance to you. Start with the most important difficulty.
   A. Vocabulary Problems   1. ……..……………………………………………
   B. Expressions   2. …………………………………………………..
   C. Figures of Speech   3. …………………………………………………..
   D. Grammar   4. ..……………………………………………………
   E. Interpretation   5. …..…………………………………………………
As precise an answer to each question as you can manage will be much appreciated.
Thanks for your co-operation.

Nonetheless, any perceived shortcomings in the paper remain absolutely mine.

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The Form and Content of Children's Poetry and Games on a Kaleidoscopic Cultural Terrain

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Abstract—This research sought to look into the form and content of children's poetry and games in Shona. It was premised on the view that these aspects are part and parcel of the rich African heritage of orature and are an important component of Shona indigenous knowledge systems, hence these cannot be simply ignored more so when it comes to the process of socialization. The objective was to analyze critically these so-called play poems and games in terms of their form and content and see what is embedded in them. Data was gathered through observation as children went about their business of play. The research concluded that these poems and games cannot be simply treated as child's play as their content is 'loaded'. They are actually a silent but powerful vehicle for the inculcation of certain values and attitudes that influence the children's own lives later whether positively or negatively, at home or away from their comfort zones in the global village. As part of the African Indigenous Knowledge System, which has sustained us for centuries such intangible heritage should not be let to just spill from our cultural hands. The various forms they take also allow children to simulate real life situations and learn adult roles vicariously and thus prepare them for the challenges life proffers not as shadows of other people but as proud beings who can cast their own shadows on the kaleidoscopic cultural terrain.

Index Terms—form and content, children's literature, Orature, changing culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Children's poetry (also called play-songs, nursery songs, nursery rhymes) and games are part of the indigenous knowledge of the particular society in which they are recited or done respectively. Of late, interest has risen in research on indigenous knowledge with researchers targeting various aspects as the following examples show: songs as ways of knowing (Mapara and Nyota, 2008); language as indigenous knowledge (Mapara and Nyota, 2007); relevance to technology (Kunnie 2000; Pikirayi, 2000), indigenous ways of knowing (Goduka, 2000) and relevance of indigenous knowledge in the teaching and learning of Mathematics (Madusise, 2010).

So far, the researchers have not come across many researches that have attempted to look at the form and content of children's poetry and games in Shona per se except one done by Nyota and Mapara (2008) cited earlier on which only sampled pre-colonial ones and not those in currency or those composed or adapted after during or after colonization. These children's poetry and games, it should be noted, are part of Shona Oral Literature, as children's literature, which Hunt (1994) argues is "a powerful literature, and … that such power cannot be neutral or innocent or trivial" (p3). What Hunt implies here is that, children's literature somehow does influence the child's worldview in terms of behavior or attitude. This in turn, by implication, means that children's poetry and games (being part of children's literature) also have some effect on the children as they recite and do them respectively even though people in the immediate culture might be tempted to think that childhood is a period of life free of responsibility and susceptible to education.

The above view is also shared by Trovato, in his article 'Ban those killer Nursery Songs' in *The Sunday Times* of April 11, 2010. He points out that children's poems (nursery songs) instill certain attitudes into the children, so they cannot be just taken lightly. What he is referring to here is their content which he argues is 'loaded'. Examples are given of English children's poems to justify his argument. 'Baa baa black sheep' is one of them and it shall be given in full below for reference later:

Baa baa black sheep have you any wool?
Yes Sir, Yes sir, three bags full.
One for the master one for the dame
And one for the little boy who lives down the lane.

From Trovato's point of view, the above poem instills the belief that black sheep are not the same as 'normal' sheep, not merely because they can talk, but because they are black. The use of 'master' and 'dame' presents a subservient tone and alacrity with which the sheep responds to demands for its wool to suggest that it has been oppressed for some time. The same goes for 'Humpty Dumpty' which he argues promotes hate speech directed at fat people yet sometimes

obesity is due to heredity and not someone's fault. Even violence, he believes, can be incited through the seemingly "innocent" rhymes.

The fact that no research known to the researchers has looked at the form and content of children's poetry and games in Shona in depth and views such as those raised by Hunt (1994) and Trovato (2010) above, that triggered the researchers into having a look at the form and content of children's poetry and games in Shona. While Trovato brings out only the negatives in terms of content of similar poems in English, the researchers would want to find out what form these poems and games take in Shona, interrogate the content and see whether positive values do not come out of these as well.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Children's Poetry and games

Children's poetry and games are part of what is called Indigenous knowledge. Madusise (2010) defines IK (Indigenous knowledge) as: "context localized knowledge which can be preserved, transferred or transmitted from one generation to another" (p4).

She goes on to give a variety of terms used to refer to it, denoting slightly different meanings to different users of the concept such as "traditional knowledge", "traditional cultural knowledge" or "traditional environmental knowledge". She further argues that there is consensus among those using the various terms that such knowledge is linked to a specific place, culture or society and is dynamic in nature (Madusise, 2010 p4). This argument is quite relevant to children's poetry and games as these vary according to societies and change with the times as shall be illustrated later in this research. In the context of this research, this indigenous knowledge is mainly found in orature of which children's poetry and games are a component as its definition explicitly shows:

Those utterances whether spoken, recited or sung, whose composition and performance exhibit to an appreciable degree the artistic characteristics of accurate observation, sound imagination and ingenious expression. (Nandwa and Bukenya, 1983: p1)

The utterances referred to above include traditional narratives, proverbs, recitations (poems), and songs among others (Finnegan, 1970). Nandwa and Bukenya [1983] further posit that the orality of the utterances emanates from the fact that in their natural state, they are composed and performed through the spoken word or by word of mouth, which is what 'oral' entails. To further show that children's poetry and games should be viewed as orature, Krog (1966:169) also makes a justification for their being recorded as poetry because of "their structure in written form, that is ,their verse form, rhyme scheme, onomatopoeia and chorus that is repeated after each line" (p169).

The above discussion clearly shows that children's poetry and games, fit into the oral literature genre as they, like all literature does, teach and delight, as they move the children by appealing to both their understanding and feelings. Those that excite, excite them, while those that instill feelings contrary to excitement for example fear, do so.

Chimhundu and Chabata (2008) call children's poetry *nhambe* (play) from the verb *kutamba* (to play). Literally they are just viewed as play but as part of Indigenous knowledge researches done by Nyota and Mapara (2008), Madusise (2008), Gokuda (2000), Kunnie (2000), Pikirayi (2000) clearly point to the fact that they are relevant and useful in one way or the other. They are a legacy which touches an all aspects of life in the context in which they are done. Nyota and Mapara (2008) call the poems play songs and view them as indigenous ways of knowing and rich sources of knowledge. They are thus part of the rich literally heritage of children's poetry in oral literature circles.

The role of Children's Poetry and Games

Stebbing (1999) points out that the major role of children's games and poetry is primary socialization. This is so important in that, when they get to the world of education, it becomes the golden link between home and school. This link is vital in the view that teachers can start with what children know and can do; then build on that since children enjoy moving from the known to the unknown, which allows for building of self-confidence. Thompson (2001) also notes that children's poetry and games stimulate children to learn and help them develop fast in their mother tongue (in this case ChiShona) by providing an opportunity for them to use their language.

Children's poetry and games are also a rich source of their cultural heritage, language, traditions and moral values (Nyota and Mapara 2008, Stebbing 1999). In as far as learning pf values and virtues that may be useful later on in life is concerned, Nyota and Mapara (2008) put forth a very strong argument that:

Shona traditional children's games and songs (poems) lead to and provide a rich environment or social context which sustains the flowering of children's curiosity and exploration on their immediate world as they play. (p189)

Thus as they explore their environment they learn that it is good to play with others. The virtues and values alluded to earlier on in the discussion, such as good behavior, honesty, hard work, healthy competition, leading and being led, handling of success or failure etc, are in turn instilled into the children vicariously as they interact in play. This helps build foundation for the philosophy of *ubuntu* (humanness) rooted in African culture, characterized by qualities such as responsibility, honesty, justice, trustworthiness, a cooperative spirit, hard work etc (Mavhunga 2008; Nziramasanga, 1999). This philosophy is also described else where as a philosophy of shared humanity well expressed in the Nguni language maxim; a person is a person through other persons (Heyns and Stefiszyn, 2008) relevant to this study is the fact that we become what we become through interacting with others who helps us become human. Thus as children interact in games and through poetry (most are performed in groups) their sense of being emerges and develops.

Theories on child development attest to the importance of play in child development. For   example Froebel has this to say about play:

The plays of childhood are germinal leaves of all late life, for the whole man is, developed and shown in these, in his tenderest dispositions, in his innermost tendencies (cited in Morrison, 1998: p49).

III. METHODOLOGY

Data was gathered through observation as children went about their business of play. The researcher would simply write down or (using cellular phones) audio- or video-record the recitals and games without disturbing their play. Some of the poems and games were gathered as children played at break time during Teaching Practice visits in both rural and urban school environments. The verbal content captured in this article only represents one element. Other elements at the performer's disposal such as the co-performers, the audience and the non-verbal aspects are unfortunately lost. As noted by Finnegan (1970)

…the connection between transmission and very existence is a much more intimate one [than in written literature]…without its oral realization and direct rendition by singer or speaker, an unwritten literary piece cannot easily be said to have any continued or independent existence at all … (p2)

With the above in mind the authors saw it prudent to provide as much background information as possible because in the case of oral literature the bare words cannot be left to speak for themselves for the simple reason that in the actual literary work so much else is necessarily and intimately involved…(Finnegan,1970:p15).

Analysis of Poems and Games

Selected children's poems and games will be analyzed below, focus being mainly on their form and content. However, before the analysis a distinction should be made here between games and poems. Games are differentiated from poems in this research by the nature of their performance. With games some form of drama or group involvement is a prerequisite. While poems can be recited individually; with a game partner or group is necessary so that some form of interaction is possible. For example with the game *Sape Sape* (clap, clap) a partner is required for the clapping, while for *Sarura Wako* a group is necessary so that the individual can then choose a partner from amongst the group members. For the purpose of this research poems and games originating in the pre-colonial era shall be referred to as traditional while those that emanated thereafter will be referred to as modern.

Poems and games originating from the pre-colonial era

Mangwana dzinani? (Who herds them tomorrow?)
Mangwana dzina Toriro (Tomorrow it's Toriro's turn)
Toriro dumbu guru gadzike (Toriro of the big tummy)

In terms of content, this is mainly used to remind the person taking over the *dzoro* (duty) to herd cattle. It is like passing on the baton stick in a relay. *Toriro* stands for the name of the person next on duty. Reference to a big tummy is meant to make the whole process humorous. The Shona believe that when work is presented in an interesting manner, it makes it acceptable as the load is made to feel lighter. Thus the task becomes quite welcome. Values instilled into the children are that of duty consciousness, responsibility and co-operation which are all part of the spirit of *ubuntu* (humanness) (Mavhunga, 2008; Nziramasanga, 1999). More importantly it should be noted that the pronoun them refers only to cattle here and not any other animal. This teaches the young boys that cattle are an important economic assert useful in many ways in African culture where they play a crucial part when it comes to issues such as *lobola*, burials of adults where one is killed as *nhevedzo* [send off token], during *kurova guva*, as payment for an avenging spirit (*ngozi*) and as draught power for all agricultural activities.

The poem takes the form of questions whose answers are known anyway because those involved are aware of who comes next as per their duty roaster.

Mwana wachema vakoma (The baby is crying, sister)
Mwana wenyu wachema vakoma
Wachemera mai vakaenda
Vakaenda kwaChidyamupunga
Chidyamupunga magaka aora
Aorera mhiri kwaMungezi
KwaMungezi kune banga jena
Banga jena rekucheka nyama
Nyama kwayo ndeyeparuware
Yapasi inozara mavhu

Heino njiva…
Hu-u!
Inogurukuta
Hu-u!
Nechana munyasi
Hu-u!

Kamwe kari kumba
Hu-u!
Kanokanga zviyo
Hu-u!
Zviyo zvavatete
Hu-u!
Shanga yangu yawa
Hu-u!
Yagonungwa nani?
Hu-u!
NaMushayadende
Hu-u!
Wagoiisepi?
Hu-u!
Kurwizi rukuru
Hu-u!
Kunodyiwa shavhi nenhengetenge
Huku inemongo muchidondova
Kwiyo goko-o!
(Your child is crying, elder sister
She's crying for her mother who went
Who went to Chidyamupunga who can afford to have cucumbers rot
Rotting beyond Mungezi
Mungezi where there is a clean knife
The clean knife to prepare the meat
Good meat is that prepared on a rock
That prepared on soil becomes dirty.

There's a dove
Coo-oo!
Having a time of its life
Coo-oo!
With one of its young close by
Coo-oo!
The other is back home
Coo-oo!
Roasting rapoko
Coo-oo!
Rapoko for the aunt Coo-oo!

My only grain has fallen
 Coo-oo!
Who might have picked it?
Coo-oo!
It's Mushayadende
Coo-oo!
Where might he have put it?
Coo-oo!
At the huge river
Coo-oo!
Where there are *shavhi and *nhengetenge aplenty.
A chicken with real marrow in its bones cuckles!)
*wild fruits

This poem is a lullaby which in terms of content is pregnant. It touches on various aspects such as natural phenomena, relationships, birds' world, wild fruits, grains and others that relate to the Shona people's way of life. The baby cries for a 'mother' (*wachemera mai vakaenda*) who has gone to Chidyamupunga across the Mungezi river. The importance of a mother figure is emphasized from this tender age. In Shona culture the mother is a pillar of the home as encapsulated in the adage, *Musha mukadzi*,which literally means 'A home is a woman'.Without a mother in the home everything crumbles. Mungezi River is a natural phenomenon, representative of the fact that children should know the world around them. Reference is also made to rice (*mupunga*) a cereal, and cucumbers (*magaka*) a vegetable/fruit, which are

food stuffs that are grown in the fields. Crop farming is part and parcel of the Shona economic system. Thus reference made to the various crops denotes the importance. There is also evidence of high productivity as Chidyamupunga can afford to have cucumbers rot,a sign of his being not just an ordinary farmer, but a farmer par excellence (*hurudza* in Shona). The name literally means 'the one who eats rice'. Rice is regarded as a delicacy in Zimbabwe where the staple food is *sadza*. The latter is partaken by the 'ordinary' while rice is for the chosen few hence Chidyamupunga is a cut above the rest and should therefore be emulated.

The poem sensuous, therefore living, vivid and picturesque and quite appealing especially to the young: there are cucumbers that rot (appealing to the sense of smell), the cooing dove (appealing to the sense of hearing),the clean knife (appealing to the sense of sight) and the eating of *shavhi* and *nhengetenge*. Children also learn about the function of everyday but important utensils/tools such as the knife (that of cutting, meat in this case) and are also alerted to the need for good hygienic practice so crucial to their life as they are urged to take care when cutting the meat, lest they spoil it, by cutting it on soil:

Banga jena rokucheka nyama
Nyama kwayo ndeyaparuware
Yapasi inozara mavhu
(The clean knife for cutting meat
Good meat is that cut on a rock bed)
That which is cut on the ground is spoiled by soil).

The reference to *njiva* (dove) introduces the children to the birds' world; while the mention of *zviyo* (rapoko) introduces them to a drought resistant crop which has to be roasted, *kukangwa* before being ground into rapoko meal. The last line of the poem makes reference to wild fruits that are found by the riverside *shavhi* and *nhengetenge*. The trees require lots of water (so the roots get this from the river), are evergreen, producing lots of fruits that are juicy and delicious. Young children love these and feast on them (when in season) while herding cattle. Thus by continuously reciting the lullaby; important aspects of life that children need to know are reinforced; and children's awareness of these is raised. It should be noted that the consumers of such art are not the child singers but also all those within hearing range of the singer. One is reminded of the poem 'The Solitary Reaper' by William Wordsworth where the reaper was singing to herself but moved a listener she did not even see.

In terms of form, the poem has lots of cross linking where the word or phrase ending the preceding line begins the subsequent line thus giving the poem/song compactness and fluidity.

... wachema vakoma
Wachemera .... vakaenda
Vakaenda ..... kwaChidyamupunga
Chidyamupunga ...

The top line ends with "… has cried sister", the next one begins with "has cried for a mother and ends with "who has gone", then the next one begins with *Chidyamupunga*. Final linking also provides rhythm in the last part of the poem with the repetition of *hu-u,* imitating the dove's cooing where *njiva* (dove) comes in. These linkages and repetitions make the poem quite exciting to recite. This, children enjoy since they learn quickly but also forget quickly hence the repetitions keep refreshing their memory (Thompson, 2001). The soothing sound from the rhythm in the end quietens the baby who might even fall asleep.

The poem makes use of the tongue in chick technique to comment on some mothering practices. The young sister sings about the child crying about her mother who has gone *mhiri kwaMungezi*, a hyperbolic statement, yet she is only working a few meters away. This can be seen as a subtle way of rebuking the elder sister for 'abandoning' the baby for her chores. We can also look at it as a complaint on the part of the baby minder. It is not always nice for the young baby minder to be disturbed in her business of play for a long time to sing for the sister's baby until she sleeps while it is strapped on her back. It should be noted that such baby minders are almost always the youngest in the family who are deemed to be too young to do the heavier tasks the other members of the family will be doing such as weeding and pounding. Therefore carrying the baby on the young minder's back is really some task hence the tinge of complaint noted in the song.

Mwedzi wagara (The moon has risen)
Mwedzi wagara Ndira
Pamusi wemba Ndira
Nhasi uri pano Ndira
Wemba wemba Ndira
Kwigo Ndira
Ptu! tenderekedziwe
Enda nourwere hwangu!
(The moon has risen, for the first time
On top of the house for the first time
Today its here for the first time
Of the house of the house for the first time

Up it goes for the first time
(the child spits) moonrise
Carry my ailments with you when you go!)

In terms of content, the poem is about seasons. Every time the moon appears starting with a quarter moon, followed by a half moon and finally the full moon, the children know another month has gone by. Children normally recite the poem the first time they see the moon rising. Making a wish at the end of the poem is in the belief in African culture that for everything there is a season, and a new season comes with new things, normally good things. So illness is not good, therefore it should go with the full moon and the new moon when it comes, should obviously bring good things.

Games

Sarura wako (Make your choice)

In this game the child who is making the choice goes on to describe the girl or boy of his or her choice using adjectives and adjectival phrases that he or she thinks bring out the best qualities or characteristics of his or her choice as follows:

Leader: *Sarura wako*
Respondents:*Kadeyadeya ane ndoro chena.*
Leader:*Wangu mutsvuku*
Respondents:*Kadeyadeya ane ndoro chena.*
Leader:*Ane bvudzi dema*
Respondents:*Kadeyadeya ane ndoro chena.*
Leader:*Ane mwoyo chena*
Respondents:*Kadeyadeya ane ndoro chena.*
(Leader: *Make your choice*
Respondents: Take your time. The one with a patch of white hair.
Leader: Mine is light skinned…
Respondents: Take your time. The one with a patch of white hair.
Leader: Has black hair
Respondents: Take your time. The one with a patch of white hair.
Leader: Is very kindhearted
Respondents: Take your time. The one with a patch of white hair.)

This goes on for a while, then the choice is made. It is like dramatization of how one chooses a partner during courtship. This is closely linked to the Shona custom of courtship and marriage where one should marry those they know as encapsulated in the proverb *Rooranai vematongo* (Marry from the vicinity i.e. those whose background one is familiar with).Apart from considering physical qualities or features (outward beauty), the young are encouraged this early to look at virtues of *ubuntu* or humanness such as kindheartedness, cleanliness, responsibility and so forth, what one can call inner beauty. Another important virtue also learnt through this game is that those who are related should not marry, because if during the game one chooses a relative, others will laugh at him or her to show that it is a taboo (Hodza,1984).

This game thus makes it easy for the children when they become young adults to make informed choices during courtship. One important fact is that as the children go through their choices the one who will remain on the shelf is described as *zai rakavora* (a rotten egg).Such a child will strive in future to be likeable and therefore choosable and avoid the ignominy of being left unchosen on the shelf. In a way therefore the game has a behavior regulatory function.

Mapere (Hyenas)

Another interesting game that children enjoy is *mapere* which takes the form of a challenge where ducking, dodging and running fast so as not to be caught is crucial. Children are divided into two groups for the children and the other for the hyenas. The mother then calls the children to come over to her and the children run fast dodging the hyenas in order to get to the mother and safety. If caught by the hyenas, the child automatically becomes a hyena and the game goes on:

Mai:Vana vana!
Vana: Mhai!
Mai:Huyai!
Vana: Tinotya!
Mai:
Munotyeiko?
Vana:Mapere
Mai:Mapere akapera kuenda Hwedza huyai henyu!

(Mother:Children,Children!
Children:Mother!
Mother:Come over!
Children:We're afraid!
Mother:Afraid of what?

Children:Hyenas!

Mother:The hyenas all went to Hwedza, come over.)

The children then run over to the mother. Clever children will get to the mother for protection while the not- so-clever will be caught and become part of the hyenas group. This trains children to be aware of the need to be alert to the dangers of life and reinforces the importance of the mother figure in one's life and the importance of obedience.

Tipeiwo mvura yokumwa (May we have some water to drink?)

Tipeiwo mvura yokumwa?

Torai! Torai!

(Can we have some water to drink?

Have it! Have it!)

The recitation can be done by the child individually or with other children. The children dance in rhythm to the recitation while they dance and dramatize asking for water and drinking it. The main point being emphasized through this game is that people should be generous and hospitable, more so with water which is something that one cannot deprive someone of since it is a free gift from God. It should be given freely hence the repeating of *Torai, torai*. The game also gives the children the opportunity to acquire appropriate register: the children *ask* for the water, they do not demand for it. They also interestingly do not ask to buy it because as a free gift from God it should be given free.

The following recitations/games are very popular with infants especially just before toddlerhood:

a) *Amiramira nhanha!*
   Kwasara kufamba!
   (The child is standing!
   What remains is walking!)

b) *Ndee nhanha ndee*
   Ndee kuna mai ndee
   Ndee kuna baba ndee
   Ndee kuna mbuya ndee
   Ndee kuna sekuru ndee
   Ndee kuna sisi ndee
   Ndee kuna bhudhi ndee etc

(Walk child, walk
Walk to mother, walk
Walk to father, walk
Walk to granny, walk
Walk to grandpa, walk
Walk to sister, walk
Walk to brother, walk etc)

The use of motherese in both poems is meant to bring the older child or adult closer to the infant. *Nhanha* is motherese for *mwana* (child).The adult or older child recites the poem while engaging the child in some form of drama. He or she praises the child for being able to stand and tells him or her that what remains is walking (poem (a).There is Skinnerian shaping as the child is rewarded for each little step he or she achieves. As soon as the child makes the step the adult or older child goes on to encourage the child further by directing him or her to various people in the family that is father, grandmother, grandfather, sister, brother etc this way the child not only gets the practice but also appreciates kinship ties from the onset. At the moment each of the relatives is ready to catch the inexperienced walker the same way they will later in life physically, socially and emotionally as need arises. The repetitions and motherese appeal to the young ears which also helps to spur the child on. It should be pointed out that as the child makes these first steps the whole family will be involved in the singing and clapping, thus instilling the spirit of familihood.

Poems and games from the colonial and post colonial era

These can be easily identified due to the linguistic code and changing images incorporated in them. The changes are due to the changing environment due to education, westernization, technology and urbanization. Thus like all other oral art forms, children's poetry and games reflect this dynamism. Researchers at the Universities of East London, Sheffield and the Institute of Education, for instance, discovered that:

children still enjoy old school yard favourite games children still spend their school break times singing the songs that have been circulating for decades, although they sometimes update them by inserting references to the latest pop stars and soap characters.(The Herald, 17 March 2011).

The few examples analyzed below will clearly show that what the researchers discovered in Britain also applies to the Zimbabwean scenario. Junod's 1913 observations on African narrative art also applies to present day children's oral art:

New elements are also introduced; owing to the tendency of Native (sic) story tellers always to apply circumstances of their environment to the narration. This is one of the charms of the Native tales. They are living, viz., they are not told as they are past and remote events in an abstract pattern, but considered as happening amongst hearers

themselves…so all the new objects brought by civilization (sic) are, without the slightest difficulty, made use by the narrator…(cited in Finnegan, 1970: p9).

Ndakatumwa kumabheka (I was sent to the tuckshops)
Ndakatumwa kumabheka
Kunotenga masamba
Ndikasangana nejaya
Richiti ndinokuda
Ndikati,sve-e handikudi
Ndinoda Mupostori
Anonditengera gemenzi
Nemudonzvo wesirivha
Kana hondo yauya
Mhai, ndovanda mundebvu
Ini ndovanda mundebvu!
Ini ndovanda mundebvu!

(I was sent to the tuckshops
To buy tea leaves
And I met a young man
Who said he loved me
And I said No, I don't love you
I love an 'apostle'
Who buys me a church robe
And a silver staff.
If a war breaks out
Mother, I hide in his lush beard
I hide in his lush beard!
Yes, I hide in his lush beard!)

The recitation is in the form of a game played by children in pairs. They clap each other's hands in style and rhythm to the recitation .The content comes from the advent of industrialization and urbanization which brought with it tuck shops/ kiosks. These are a modern phenomenon brought in by enterprising business minded people who took advantage of customers who did not want to walk to the shops which in most cases were some distance away from the residential areas. Thus the tuck shops were strategically located within the residential areas stocked with daily provisions like bread hence their characterization as *kumabheka* (from baker) in the poem or song. The scene portrayed in the poem represents a courtship scene in a different environment: on one's way to the tuck-shop, as opposed to the traditional environments where girls and boys would meet and propose during the full moon, at the well or in the forest fetching firewood (Hodza, 1984).

In a satiric manner, the young man is turned down because the girl loves a member of the apostolic sect whose men folk's trademark is the beard and a long wooden or silver staff. What makes the poem satirical is that she loves a man from this sect because if a war breaks out she will hide in the lush beard, implying that the beards are so bushy and long that one can hide and not be seen by the enemy. One cannot help but laugh at the picture portrayed here. The above poem is also in stuck contrast to the traditional courtship poem *Sarura Wako* analyzed earlier on. There was no reference to material things as focus was on beauty both physical and inward. Only wealthy members of the apostolic sect can afford to buy a silver staff, the rest carry wooden ones, hence in the modern poem, there lies implicitly, admiration for material things. One cannot just fall in love with any Tom and Dick, but someone who is well to do and can protect and provide for materially like the chosen apostolic faith man. In the poem we discern gender stereotyping: the man is supposed to protect and provide for the delicate and dependent woman .We also discern the negative perception Zimbabwean society generally has towards members of this sect as reflected in the children's work which as earlier alluded to by Trovato, is far from neutral or trivial. Children do not live on an island but are part and parcel of a society which might have its own tolerances, intolerances and prejudices.

The advent of western education also brought in creation of new children's poems and games which capture the new register of education and the subjects among other things. The following examples are all linked to this:

Zvandadzidza pano,maiwe!
Zvandishamisa!
Zvandadzidza pano,maiwe!
Zvandishamisa!
Musoro kuti head
Meso kuti eyes
Zheve kuti ears
Mhino kuti nose

Muromo kuti mouth
Huro kuti neck
Mafudzi kuti shoulders
Chifuva kuti chest
Dumbu kuti stomach
Chivuno kuti waist
Mabvi kuti knees
Maiwe!Zvandishamisa!
(What I have learnt here, mother has enthralled me…)

The child goes on to mention and touch the body parts from the head downwards, in the order in which they come on his or her body. What fascinates the child are the English names for she already knows the Shona ones. The code-mixing is very effective here as the child begins with the mother tongue then switches on to the new language which continues to surprise him or her as the English names are mentioned. The juxtaposition of the parts of the body in the two languages (Shona and English) helps the children master the concept being learnt as it is first given in the mother tongue then reinforced in the target language which in this case is English. This also links well with what is encouraged in the Zimbabwe education policy that at infant level children should be taught first in their mother tongue before the second language comes in (Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 as amended in 2006).

Mathematics has also not been spared of the children's poetic ingenuity as the following poem shows whose English equivalent is 'Five Little Ducks!' shows:

Madhadha Mashanu (Five Ducks)
Madhadha five *ari pamutsetse*
Ndikabvisa one *kunosara* four
Madhadha four *ari pamutsetse*
Ndikabvisa one *kunosara* three
Madhadha three *ari pamutsetse*
Ndikabvisa one *kunosara* two
Madhadha two *ari pamutsetse*
Ndikabvisa one *kunosara* one
Dhadha one *riri pamutsetse*
Ndikabvisa one *kunosara* zero-o-o!

(Five ducks in a row
If I remove one, four remain
Four ducks in a row
If I remove one, three remain
Three ducks in a row
If I remove one, two remain
Two ducks in a row
If I remove one, one remain
One duck in a row
If I remove one, zero-o remains!

Typical of the bilingual speech community in which the children operate, this poem also has code-mixing as one of its distinguishing characteristics. The numbers are all in English.

Industrialization also brought with it new forms and systems of health as the following poem explicitly shows:

Amina
Amina,Amina kadeya
Kungovheya
Amina wandishamisa
P.O.Box Marandellas,Marandellas
Dhumbembe dhumbembe dhumbembe
Amina's ju-u jekiseni

(Amina,Amina of the rickets Moving about unsteadily Amina, you surprise me P.O.Box Marandellas,Marandellas You go there! You go there! You go there! Amina be immunized)

The poem shows that the children are aware of the importance of immunization. They are surprised that Amina has 'deformed' legs which could have been prevented through immunization (Polio can cause one to have bent legs yet there is immunization to prevent this). In this case Amina walks unsteadily *kungovheya* due to the problems with her legs (she has rickets) The advice being given to her is that she should go to Marandellas (Marondera town) and get medical attention. The form of the poem is that of *nhango* (didactic poem) because of its advisory nature which is similar to that role played by aunts and uncles in the Shona traditional set up. These advise girls and boys on matters of life (Hodza,1984) just like the children are doing to Amina. Use of the Post Office box makes reference to letter writing

also a western phenomenon which is an indication of western influence on the culture of the people from which the poem was composed. External influence is also discernible from the persona's exotic name as well as the Anglicized town name: Marondera is anglicized to 'Marandellas'. This shows the colonial influence-colonization led to the conquered losing even the names of geographical features in their environment to their conquerors and this is sadly encapsulated in the children's songs to show how deep rooted colonization had become.

Another interesting poem is *Tambirai Masoja* (Welcome the soldiers) which goes as follows:

Tambirai masoja

Ahwinha

Adzoka

Abva kuhondo

(Welcome the soldiers! They've won! They're back! They're back from war!)

The youngsters line up like soldiers on a parade and march excitedly and triumphantly showing that they are a victorious army. They repeatedly chant as they march in unison to the left –right style of an army. This form of the poem is typical of children's poetry which as the analysis made has shown characterized by repetitions, cross linking, chanting and onomatopoeia among other features

IV. CONCLUSION

The above analysis ,though by no means exhaustive taking cognizance of the expansive and fluid nature of children's oral literature, has shown that some traditional poems and games are still being recited and done respectively by children but there are also novel creations that have come incorporating new images brought in by a kaleidoscopic cultural terrain. Their form and content still touch on both material and non-material culture of the people. The dynamism that is inherent in other oral forms of art is also evident in children's poetry and games. Themes like hospitality, courtship, advice, team-work, *ubuntu* (humanhood) among others, continue to inform children's poetry and games. Since children do not live alone on their island free from adult influence, their art reflects the norms and values of wider society as well as, sadly, its vices such as prejudice and intolerance.

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King Lear on the Arabic Stage: Linguistic, Social and Cultural Considerations

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Abstract—This paper discusses the challenges translators face when rendering Shakespeare's *King Lear* into Arabic. Issues considered include metaphor, diction, classical references, and social titles. Our strategy depends on finding out examples of the distinctive features of Shakespearean style and comparing them with their counterpart s in two Arabic translations of the play by Jabra Ibrahim Jabra and Fatima Moussa Mahmoud. Comparisons reflect various problems translators face when conveying Shakespearian language into Arabic. For example, some imagery, especially personification of abstract ideas, is either absent or modified. Such deletions and changes render the target text less effective. Translators also adopt different approaches in translating classical references relating to Roman gods. While Jabra adopts foreignization as he keeps the feel of the source text by transliterating a number of these references, Mahmoud naturalizes them by giving Arabic paraphrases. The advantages and pitfalls of each technique are evaluated to find out what aspects of the ST are rendered into Arabic and which ones are not given priority. Contextual factors involved in the decision making process are discussed to illuminate the complex nature of translation. Problems of translating social titles appear when one finds that the same title is given different renderings in different parts of the play. Shakespearean diction causes certain problems due to the absence of one-to-one word equivalence. The need to take audience's social and cultural background into consideration makes translators avoid literal renderings. Explanations and better renderings are suggested to provide the Arab audience with a better access to Shakespeare and enrich translators' knowledge of their multifaceted task.

Index Terms—translation, Renaissance drama, imagery, classical references, culture, world literature, Shakespeare, *King Lear*

I. INTRODUCTION

William Shakespeare's portrayal of the vicissitudes of human experience has gained him a special place in World Literature. His distinguished treatment of universal themes has brought him eternal fame, and his readership records attest to his worldwide outreach. His plays have invaded the stage outside the English-speaking world. This paper discusses the challenges involved in translating Shakespeare's *King Lear* into Arabic. In this play, Shakespeare excels in reflecting the fluctuations of what is usually supposed and expected to be the strongest, closest, and most stable human relationship, parent-child relationship. Action is based on a conflict between a father (King Lear) and his three daughters. Misunderstanding, misinterpretation, and misjudgment play significant roles in determining relationships among characters. The play further shows the power of language when used as a mask to hide real intentions. The tragedy reveals what is at stake when judgments are based on words rather than deeds.

II. SHAKESPEARIAN LANGUAGE AND TRANSLATION

Translating Shakespeare into Arabic poses several challenges. Written about four hundred years ago, the text stands aloof before its audiences—even those whose mother tongue is English. Annotations, handbooks, footnotes, and study guides are common resorts for both researchers and students entering the playwright's world. Since reading is an integral element of translation, we deem it appropriate to mention characteristics of Shakespearean language that make it defy easy reading. Related to this point, Sean McEvoy (2000, pp. 11-58) discusses different factors that make reading Shakespeare a demanding task. McEvoy (pp. 11-14) explains that Shakespeare addresses an audience of good listeners as the majority of them could neither read nor write. Compared with today's listeners, they had more advanced listening skills. They needed such skills to capture the import of what they listened to because, otherwise, they had no other means to access it. Thus, one finds long speeches with patterns of language having "distinctive rhythms and repetitions of words, phrases and ways of saying things" (McEvoy, p. 13). Another challenge readers and translators of Shakespeare face is the change that occurs to lexical items (McEvoy, pp. 14-18). Some of the words have died out.

Others express meanings different from those they express today. Awareness of these lexical and semantic shifts is needed for a good reading, and consequently an adequate translation.

Furthermore, drama and literature in general avoid literal or straightforward narration and description of action. Shakespearian texts are rich in figurative language including "images, comparisons, and analogies" (McEvoy, p. 28). *King Lear* abounds with imagery including personification of abstract ideas and other metaphors. Recognizing the function of these figures of speech and conveying it into the target text is necessary. Otherwise, a significant element of the source text remains unveiled. A translation lacking important aspects of the original text is likely to deprive its audience of the privileges entailed in interlingual and intercultural communication. The importance of metaphor is articulated by Stefano Arduini (1998) who states that "the metaphor is not simply a 'coating' but an indispensible instrument of knowledge and, as such, does not possess an indirect meaning"(p. 198). This suggests that metaphors are not mere linguistic ornaments to make the text more elegant. This point of view agrees with that of "cognitive linguists" who are in favor of looking at metaphor as "cognition" rather than "expression" (Gerard Steen, 1994, p. 5). Put differently, metaphor is more than a stylistic feature prettifying language.

In addition to referring to abstract ideas in terms of human or living creatures, metaphors in *King Lear* include imagery of supernatural creatures. Furthermore, elements of nature are sometimes described as human beings. In her experiment in simulated literary translation, Barbara Romaine (2003) attributes the challenging nature of Shakespearian language to being "poetic and highly figurative" and speaks of its ellipses and metaphors as "more opaque by the fact that much of the language is … archaic" (p.19).

More challenges appear when considering that Shakespeare varies his language depending on the situation, effect, and impression he makes. For instance, he writes *King Lear* in blank verse and prose. One finds that the same character may use either mode in different parts of the play. Thus, translators have the task of rendering the variations that occur in character speeches. Some variations are triggered by the circumstances under which these speeches take place. They often give clues about speaker's mood and relationship between speaker and addressee(s). Commenting on poetry translation, Eugene Nida (2001) explains,

It must be recognized that in translating poetry there are very special problems involved, for the form of expression (rhythm, meter, assonance, etc.) is essential to communicating the spirit of the message to the audience. But all translating, whether of poetry or prose, must be concerned also with the response of the receptor; hence the ultimate purpose of the translation, in terms of its impact upon its intended audience, is a fundamental factor in any evaluation of translations. (p.131)

Nida pinpoints the conflict that translators usually have to solve, especially when dealing with poetry. Translators have sometimes to choose between either preserving features of the ST or sacrificing them for the sake of renderings that give priority to audience reception of the TT. Nida is in favor of the second option which is likely to compromise the "form" of the ST.

Our study reflects differences in the options Jabra and Mahmoud make. By and large, the former's literal renditions speak of his faithfulness to the ST, whereas the latter's choices reflect a tendency to impress her audience. She does not hesitate to smoothly reach them by means of naturalizing the ST and in turn using equivalent Arabic expressions without necessarily adhering to the diction of the ST. By contrast, Jabra's literal equivalents can be sometimes confusing or they sound odd. Despite these problems, both translations unveil different aspects of the play. Both translators should be credited for giving readers/viewers in Arabic an opportunity to explore avenues to the playwright's boundless horizons.

III. METAPHOR

King Lear is rich in figurative language. Imaginative portrayals of characters, human action, feelings, and mental states pervade the text. Metaphors include comparisons that express an idea in terms of another. David Mikics (2007) uses Donald Richardson's definition which refers to metaphor as "a figure of thought and of speech that makes us see one thing as another" (pp.180-181). The significance of metaphors lies in the effectiveness of expressing experiences in special ways that draw similarities and associations between dissimilar or seemingly unrelated notions. The propriety and novelty of such comparisons are functional. Unexpected connection of ideas is likely to attract audience attention to its fresh tinge of meaning. According to Mikics (2007), "Its compactness makes it both profitable and thrifty; it seems to offer the reader a bonus of meaning" (p.181). Thus, metaphors are effective as they can have the advantage of conveying extra input in fewer words.

Certain mental processes like analysis and evaluation are involved in capturing meaningful messages in creative metaphorical combinations. D.A. Cruse (1986) explains that "The metaphorical strategy of interpretation is most likely to be triggered off by a perception of incongruity or inappropriateness in the sentence when interpreted literally" (p. 42). This mental experience boosts the text-audience relationship as it contributes to the intellectual pleasure felt in reading the text or watching it performed. Thus, readers or viewers simultaneously learn and enjoy the time spent in the author's world. In other words, metaphor can add to the beauty and charm of a text through well-built imagery and modes of expression that do more than straightforwardly convey information. Success in thought expression not only depends on what is said, but also on how it is said.

This section is dedicated to the translation of various examples of metaphors. What attracts us is Shakespeare's personification of abstract ideas. Aspects of human behavior like curiosity, friendship, ingratitude, and shame are given human traits. We deal with personifications as metaphors since the definition above applies to them. They make readers/viewers see abstractions as human beings. A variety of translation techniques are needed to convey Shakespearian style into Arabic.

If the opening lines of *King Lear* suggest anything, they attest to Shakespeare as "a master of the dramatic opening scene" (Fenella and Gamini Salgado, 1986, p.11). Distinctive choice of lexical items, personification, and sound effects combine to show important elements of the plot and introduce major characters. Gloucester and Kent start the scene discussing what went in their minds about Lear's preferring Duke Albany, his older son-in-law, to Duke Cornwall. It occurs to both speakers that the King would give a better part for the former. Contrary to their expectations, the Dukes' shares reflect the king's impartiality. In this regard, Gloucester says,

ST1: for equalities are so weighed that curiosity in neither can make choice of either's moiety. (I. i)

TT1a: laqad wazana baina ashumihima bihaith annahuma mahma daqqaqa falan yastatee'a an yufadhila baina alhussataini. (Jabra: 229)

BT1a: Indeed, he gave them equal shares; thus, no matter how closely they examine (their shares), they will not be able to decide which one is better.

TT1b: fa alansibatu mutasawiyatu tamaman, wa la majala li shubhati tafdheel. (Mahmoud I. i)

BT1b: Thus, the shares are exactly equal, and there is no possibility for suspicions of preference.

According to the source text (ST), the king succeeds in striking a balance between the portions of his in-laws. Each is satisfied with his own share. Rather than coming haphazardly or being imposed by a high authority, this satisfaction mirrors inner convictions in both sides. In Shakespeare's language, inner forces that may give rise to conflicts are silenced by the equity the king has achieved. One sentence conveys this achievement. The first clause expresses the careful distribution of possessions really intended to achieve equality. The effectiveness of the Shakespearian expression becomes more evident when considering the metaphor (personification) in the second clause. Gloucester uses the noun "curiosity" as the subject of the verbal construction "can make" in the relative clause above. In other words, an abstract notion appears as a person who is unable to choose between two good options.

This image of an abstract idea (curiosity) as human being does not appear in the TTs. Jabra's translation includes three intricately interconnected sentences. The first one is verbal starting with the emphatic "laqad" (indeed) preceding the verb "wazana" (made equal). The doer of the action is a hidden pronoun "huwa" (he) referring to King Lear. The verb is followed by a prepositional phrase which literally means "between the shares of both." The connector "bihayth" (thus) leads readers to the second sentence. It is nominal as it starts with the emphatic particle "anna" (Indeed) followed by the pronoun "huma" (both) working as the subject. Immediately, one is introduced into the third sentence. Interestingly it works as the predicate of the second sentence. The third sentence is conditional. It expresses the idea implied in the clause containing the metaphor in the ST. No reference is made to an abstract idea performing a mental process. It rather mentions that no matter how both of them (the Dukes of Albany and Cornwall) closely examine their shares, they will not be able to tell which part is better. Put differently, instead of referring to abstract ideas "making choice," this rendering mentions human beings trying to make judgment about two good options.

As for Mahmoud's rendering, the complex sentence is rendered into two sentences in Arabic. Both of them are nominal. The first sentence expresses the meaning of the first clause in English. However, the TT mainly states that the shares are equal without including any reference to the meticulous distribution suggested in the English "so weighed." The polysemous connector "fa" (thus/as) is used to achieve coherence. In this context, it explains and justifies the opinion that the king treats his in-laws equally. Another connector "wa" (and) is used between the sentences in the TT. Unlike its counterpart, the second sentence includes no metaphors. It rather starts with the particle "la" negating any possibility for thoughts inviting suspicions about the king's impartiality. This rendering achieves brevity at the expense of the imagery in English. A significant stylistic feature is sacrificed and the audience in Arabic is not exposed to Shakespeare's way of personifying abstract ideas.

In addition to personification, choice of lexical items endows the text with sound effects as "curiosity" rhymes with "moiety." This combination of stylistic features strengthens the text's appeal to audience's imagination and senses via imagery as well as melodic effects. The playwright's choice of "moiety," a word borrowed from Latin, further enriches his text. This is reminiscent of a significant aspect of the Renaissance and its interest in classical learning.

We suggest the following rendering to keep the metaphor:

Fa'ayyu tadqeeqin min altarafain lan yu'ifa ayyan minhuma fi ikhtiyari ayyin mina alhussatain.

BT: for any close examination on the part of the two sides will not help either of them make choice of either share.

More personifications pose further challenges to translators. Gloucester is disappointed at the drastic course events take with the royal family. The King disinherits Cordelia because he does not like the way she expresses her love for him. Kent is also banished because he disagrees with the King on the way Cordelia is punished. Kent's efforts to make the King change his mind go in vain. Gloucester says,

ST2: Friendship falls off. (I. ii)

TT2: Wa alasdiqa'u yatamarradoon. (Jabra: 246)

BT2: And friends rebel.

Friendship, an abstract idea, is vividly described as someone or something that "falls off." The verb "fall off" suggests meanings like "withdraw, backfire, betray, decrease, fall down (from a tree)." In Shakespeare's language, failure in friendship is associated with going backward, getting unfavorable results, betrayal, shrinking, and falling. No metaphor appears in Arabic. While the part of conversation including the sentence is deleted in Mahmoud's rendering, the plural "friends" is given as a counterpart to "friendship" by Jabra. Thus, he highlights the human aspect of this relationship while English places it in an abstract position. The effectiveness of the TT recedes more as the verb "yatamarrad" (rebel) does not convey all the shades suggested by "fall off." The verb in Arabic, for example, lacks the sad associations of fruits falling off trees. Death, separation, and loss of vitality are just some of the shades encompassed in the image in the ST. Imagery adds to the worth of the text as friendship is one of the central themes in the play. Hence, translators are expected to bear in mind that form and content intertwine to bring about a powerful text with memorable effects. Absence of imagery in the TT renders it less vivid and less expressive. We suggest the following rendering:

Wa tanharu alsadaqatu.
BT: And friendship collapses.

Although our rendering suggests the destruction caused by friendship failure, it does not explicitly convey the tinges of rebellious, mutinous behavior and betrayal felt in its English counterpart. The difficulty of rendering all aspects of the ST brings to mind the notion that "all translation is only a somewhat provisional way of coming to terms with the foreignness of languages" (Walter Benjamin, 2001, p.19). Having full access to the ST in one version is unlikely to happen no matter how translators grapple with the potential that text offers. Fortunately, this possibility can motivate other translators to uncover further avenues of the same text.

Ingratitude is a significant theme in the play. Metaphorical portrayals of ingratitude express character frustrations. Shocked by the way his daughter Gonerel deliberately mistreats him, King Lear expresses his disappointment and anger. He says,

ST3: Ingratitude, thou marble-hearted fiend, (I. iv)
TT3a: ayyuha al'uqooq, ya shaitanan qalbuhu min rukham. (Jabra: 260)
BT3a: O, ingratitude. O, fiend whose heart is (made) of marble.
TT3b: ayyuha al'uqooq, ana shaitanun qudda qalbuka min sakhr. (Mahmoud: I. iii)
BT3b: O, ingratitude, you are a fiend with a heart cut out of rock.

Comparing the two renderings of "marble-hearted," one finds that Jabra adopts formal equivalence and keeps the image of marble in "qalbuhu min rukham" (his heart is made of marble). We think that this literal rendering can be confusing since the word "rukham" (marble) is used in Arabic to express deceptive appearances which is not intended at this point. The expression is uttered at a time when Gonerel shamelessly and openly deals with her father's men as an annoyance. Rather than referring to deceptive appearance, the metaphor conveys the merciless and cruel treatment the king receives at the hand of his daughter. As for Mahmoud, she resorts to functional equivalence. She aptly uses "sakhr" (rock) as an equivalent to "marble." This image is commonly used in Arabic to express lack of emotions. Her choice indicates her closeness to her audience. Interestingly, both translators render "ingratitude" into "oqooq" commonly used in religious and didactic discourse to refer to one's misbehavior or disobedience to parents.

People's tendency to imbue nature with mysterious good or evil powers inspires Shakespeare's imagination. Edmund inflames his father's rage at his brother Edgar by telling lies about the latter's resorting to magic and seeking extraordinary support from nature. After a fabricated fight ending in a fake injury, Edmund persuades Edgar to run away to avoid the sentence of death. In a conversation with his father, Edmund fabricates the following account of that encounter:

ST4: Here stood he in the dark, his sharp sword out, Mumbling of wicked charms, conjuring the moon To stand auspicious mistress. (II, i)
TT4: tarabbasa huna fi aldhalami, wa saifuhu almadhi masloolun, Wa huwa yutamtimu bi ta'aweetha shirreeratin, muheeban bil qamari an yuhsina fa'lahu. (Jabra: 269)
BT4: He lurked here in the dark with his sharp sword drawn, Mumbling of evil charms, appealing to the moon To be optimistic.

To bring about a convincing relation of the event, Edmund does not limit himself to drawing a dramatic scene encompassed in darkness and violence. He rather adds a sense of mystery represented in uttering indistinguishable words to gain supernatural effects, and seeking good luck from nature. Although Jabra manages to capture the atmosphere of the ST, a challenge arises as the moon is personified as a female figure that Edgar appeals to for help. The associations and emotiveness of this image are not fully expressed in Arabic which views the moon as a male figure. In the TT, Edgar asks the moon to be optimistic. Thus, a metaphor is used in Arabic although it is not as vivid as its counterpart. Due to differences in the way the moon is personified, there is no image of the moon as a mistress portending success.

More metaphors express strong human feelings. Edgar's alleged attempt on his father's life brings to the foreground Regan's prejudice against her father. She cunningly draws a connection between Edgar's assumed conspiracy and her father who names him. She expresses suspicions that her father's knights are engaged in enticing Edgar to kill Gloucester. Unfortunately, the latter takes the bait. In response to her, he says

ST5: O, lady, lady, shame would have it hid! (II, i)
TT5a: Ah ya sayyidati, aktumu thalika khashyata al'ari. (Jabra: 271)
BT5a: Oh, (vocative particle) my lady. I hide that in fear of shame.
TT5b: innani min shiddati khajali atamanna an okhfi hatha al'amr. (Mahmoud: I. iv)
BT5b: Indeed, I am so terribly ashamed that I wish to hide this matter.

In the ST, the vocative mode, repetition, and metaphor express the speaker's sadness, disappointment, embarrassment and rage. The metaphor draws an effective image of shame itself being so ashamed of Edgar's deeds that it would have them unrevealed. In other words, an abstract notion "shame" is personified as someone who "would have hid" Edgar's evil. Jabra's attempts to give access to the playwright's style are obvious. For example, the vocative mode and repetition appear in his rendering with some modifications. While English repeats the noun "lady," his version uses two vocative particles "Ah" (Oh) and "ya" which convey the speaker's sad mood. It also includes the possessive pronoun "y" (my) attached at the end of "sayyidah" (lady). This pronoun expresses respect, care, and closeness. English uses the pronoun "it" to refer to Edgar's plotting while Jabra uses the demonstrative "thalika" (that). However, no metaphor appears in Arabic. A verbal sentence starting with "aktumu" (I hide) expresses its meaning. Thus, a hidden (implicit) pronoun (I) works as the doer of the action. The object is "thalika" (that) which refers to Edgar's alleged attempt to take his father's life. The object is followed by the causative object which is a governing word "khishyata" (in fear of) followed by "al'ar" (shame) the governed noun of the genitive construction. Hence, by sacrificing metaphor, the enlivening effect of personification is lost rendering the TT less appealing.

Metaphor is also absent in Mahmoud's rendering. Instead of personification, the speaker straightforwardly conveys his feelings of embarrassment that make him wish to hide his son's alleged conspiracy.

Rendering the metaphor into Arabic is important since it highlights the way Gloucester starts to feel about his two sons. A significant change is noticed in the mood of the father who used to blush to acknowledge the illegitimate Edmond. Upon Gloucester's request, Edgar has now to face the sentence of death with procedures taken to give Edmund inheritance rights. These procedures mark the beginning of Gloucester's downfall which leads to his consequent suffering and loss of eyesight. We suggest the following rendering to keep the metaphorical touch of the ST:

Inna al'ara kan layuwari wajhahu min fi'latih.
BT: Indeed, shame would have his face hidden because of his deed.

Imagery also figures in descriptions of the deterioration in the mental state of the king. Referring to his condition, Kent says

ST6: All the power of his wits have [sic] given way to his impatience. (III, vi)
TT6: nafatha sabruhu fa inharat quwa rushdihi (Jabra: 313)
BT6: He ran out of patience, so his mental powers collapsed.

The ST strongly expresses the sympathy of the speaker. The King's problem is portrayed as an internal encounter between two opposing traits, "wits" and "impatience." Using the predeterminer "all" indicates the speaker's awareness of the gloomy and serious condition of his friend. The pain the King feels because of his daughters' ingratitude impacts all his mental powers which include "common sense, imagination, fantasy, estimation, and memory" (William Shakespeare, 2008, p.134). The verb "given way" conveys the notion of "wits" receding before impatience which seems to win the conflict and take command of the King's mind. This image of withdrawal does not appear in Arabic. The TT conveys the King's plight in two sentences connected by the coordinating conjunction "fa" which expresses a cause-effect relationship. The first sentence mentions the cause "running out of patience," and the second one mentions the result "the collapse of mental powers." This rendering is less vivid than its counterpart as it lacks the image of two forces competing to control the king's mind and mood. Our suggestion is:

Istaslamat quwa sawabihi kulliha amam qillati sabrihi.
BT: All his mental powers have given way to his impatience.

The discussion above illustrates the problems involved in translating metaphors. Various personifications of abstract ideas are not kept in Arabic. Literal renderings can be confusing. Although we have suggested some renderings to better convey the messages in the ST, some aspects of Shakespearean metaphorical expressions remain unattainable in Arabic.

IV. SOCIAL TITLES

Courtesy is a significant aspect of Renaissance dialogues. Social titles figure in conversations throughout the play. Such titles are sometimes noticed in interactions between family members or friends. In the opening scene and upon seeing Edmond with Gloucester, Kent keeps titles when asking his friend about his son. He says,

ST1: Is not this your son, my lord?
TT1a: alaisa hatha ibnuka ya mawlay? (Jabra: 229)
BT1a: Is not this your son, my lord?
TT1b: 'afwan ya sadeeqi, hal alfata ibnuk? (Mahmoud: I. i)
BT1b: Excuse me/pardon me my friend! Is the young man your son?

Comparing the two renderings above, one realizes that the first one keeps the formality of the ST, whereas the second one switches register. Jabra's option illustrates his tendency to give priority to text, so he opts for "mawlay," a very formal title that can be used in addressing a king. It can also be used in religious discourse to address God. As for the

second rendering, one finds a less formal mode of address. First, the speaker uses the word "'afwan" (excuse me) which makes it more appropriate to ask about whether the young man he sees is his addressee's son or not. Second, no formal titles appear in the conversation as "sadeeqi" (my friend) is given as an equivalent to "my lord." This suggests that priority here is given to audience. It may sound odd in Arabic to hear the word "mawlay" used among friends as both of them are acquaintances of the king. However, the attention given to audience has resulted in sacrificing the spirit of the Renaissance pervading the ST.

Other examples show the difficulties involved in translating social titles. One notices the inconsistency in conveying the title "lord" into Arabic. For instance, "My Lord of Kent" (I. i) is rendered by Jabra into "sayyidi allord Kent (p. 229)" (sir/my master Lord Kent), transliterating the title and adding "sayyidi" (sir/my master). Mahmoud transliterates it into "Lord Kent (I. i)" without any additions. In another example, the phrase "the Lords of France and Burgundy" (I. i) is rendered by Jabra into "douq faransa wa douq bugundia" (p. 230). This means that the title is replaced by another one applying to characters in other parts of the play. However, this rendering may be inaccurate as the play mentions the king, not the Duke of France. Mahmoud uses a similar strategy giving "ameerayy faransa wa burgundia (I. i)" (the two princes of France and Burgundy). This choice is more accurate as France and Burgundy are referred to as princes by King Lear himself. Furthermore, "My Lord of Burgundy" (I. i) is rendered into "ya azeezi ameer Burgundia" (Jabra: 237) (My dear prince of Burgundy). Not only does Jabra vary his translation of the title, but he also adds "dear" which makes the conversation more intimate. This addition seems to express the intimacy felt in the pronoun "my." Mahmoud's rendering is "sayyidi ameer burgundy" (I. i) (Sir/my master prince of Burgundy). What is added "sayyidi" (my master) is more formal than "dear." Both additions by both translators mirror efforts to reflect aspects of the ST.

Renaissance courtesy appears in family interactions. "I will fitly bring you to hear my lord speak" (I. ii) is rendered by Jabra as "to make preparations for you to hear my father talk" (p. 247). Here, Edmund refers to his father as his lord. This observance of formality even among family members is not kept in Arabic. Again, readers/viewers of the text in Arabic have no clues about the significance of hierarchy in English society during the Renaissance. It could be that Edmund keeps the title when conversing with his brother to fulfill his own goals by ascertaining his respect and devotion to his father. His mode of address may prevent any suspicions regarding his secret plotting. This maneuvering is not felt in Arabic as the speaker uses no titles in reference to his father. Avoiding oddness could be behind translator's choice.

Different methods of translation are used to deal with other titles. An example is the title "duke." The sentence "the Duke of Cornwall and Regan his duchess will be here" (II. i) is rendered into "doaq Cornwall wa 'aqeelatihi Regan sayakoonani huna" (Jabra: 267). (The Duke of Cornwall and his wife Regan will be here). In Jabra's translation, the feminine form of the title "duchess" becomes "aqeeltuhu" a formal word referring to the wife of a man of a high rank. Brevity could be behind sacrificing the title. Another problem appears when translating the plural "Dukes." Jabra renders the phrase "the Dukes of Cornwall and Albany" (II. i) into "doaq Cornwall wa doaq Albany" (p. 267). The singular form "doaq" is repeated as no plural of the title is used in the Arabic.

The examples above reflect several challenges involved in translating social titles into Arabic. The two translators give different renderings for the same title. Furthermore, inconsistency in rendering the same title by the same translator reflects the difficulty of finding a word for word equivalent for it. Other problems include the absence of a plural form of some of these titles. We believe that sacrificing social titles deprives TT audience of an important concern in Renaissance writings which is order and power. Sean McEvoy (2000) explains, "Crowns, thrones and rich robes on public display were of course important parts of this, but so were the rituals and the formal language of power" (p. 200). Observing courtesy rules is a manifestation of respect for established order and its authority.

V. CHOICE OF LEXICAL ITEMS

Diction choice creates a web of semantic associations and sound effects. Although action is set in pagan England, Gloucester's experience of having an illegitimate son was not without its own frustrations and inconveniences. Gloucester says,

ST1: I have so often blushed to acknowledge him that now I am brazed to it. (I.i)
TT1a: latalama khajiltu bili'tirafi bihi hatta bittu la astahi min thalik. (Jabra: 229)
BT1a: Many times I felt so embarrassed to acknowledge him that I don't feel shy of that.
TT1b: katheeran ma ihmarra wajhi mina al'I'tirafi bil amri hatta nuhissa bil khajal. (Mahmoud: I. i)
BT1b: Many times my face got red when acknowledging the matter until we feel shy.

Differences in lexicalization of meaning gives rise to translation problems. English uses the word "blushed" which expresses shyness as well as the color of the speaker's face as it reddens with embarrassment. Jabra opts for "khajiltu," a verb which means "felt shy." However, this verb does not convey the color red which indicates the speaker's inability to hide the discomfort that shows on his countenance. Mahmoud paraphrases the verb into two words "ihmarra wajhi" (my face got red). Her strategy effectively highlights the color element without explicitly referring to "shyness" which is understood from context. As for the word "brazed" (hardened), it conveys the change in Gloucester's mood towards acknowledging his illegitimate son. Neither the element of hardening nor the alliteration in "blushed" and "brazed" appears in the TTs. Jabra's "I don't feel shy" reflects the change in the speakers feeling but it lacks the "hardness"

suggested by "brazed." Regarding Mahmoud's rendering of "brazed," we find that the phrase "hatta nuhissa bilkhjal" (until we feel shy) is confusing.

Using Mahmoud's rendering of "blushed," our suggested rendering goes as follows:

Wa katheeran ma ihmarra wajhi mina ali'tirafi bihi hatta sirtu aissian la astahi min thalika.

BT: And many times my face became red to acknowledge him until I became invincible/hard not feeling shy of it.

Contextual factors shed more light on translator's decisions and choices. Right from the beginning, Shakespeare makes his audience aware of the strong relationship between Gloucester and his illegitimate son. Through sense of humor, readers' attention is attracted to the speaker's story about his mistress. When Gloucester talks about his sons, he remembers the good old days of his love affair that results in having his illegitimate son Edmond. Gloucester says,

ST2: But I have a son, sir, by order of law, some year elder Than this, who yet is no dearer in my account. Though This knave came something saucily into the world before He was sent for, yet was his mother fair; there was good Sport at his making, and the whoreson must be acknowledged.

TT2a: Wa lakinna lee ibnan shar'iyyan, ya sayyidi, yakburu hatha bizuha'i sanatan, a'azza alayya minhu. Ja'a hatha alfata ila alddunia ma'a ba'dhi almujooni qabla an ursila fi talabih, ghaira anna ummahu kanat jameelatan. Wa kana lana fi sun'ihi lahwun wa mut'atun, fala'atarifu bi ibni alzaniyati. (Jabra: 229)

BT2a: But I have a legitimate son, sir, about one year older than this and dearer to me. This young man came to this world with some impudence before I send for him. But his mother was beautiful, and we had fun and joy in his making. So let me acknowledge the son of adultress.

TT2b: 'ala anna lee ibnan akhara shar'iyyan- yakburu hatha bisanatin taqreeban, wa lakinnahu laysa a'azza indi minhu, wa law anna hatha al'ifreeta ja'a ila aldunia bijasaratin doona an yatlubahu ahad, illa anna ummahu kanat hulwatan wa kanat ayyamuha mumti'atan, wa la budda an a'tarifa bi ibni alkhaleelati hatha ikraman laha. (Mahmoud: I. i)

BT2b: But I have another son who is legitimate and about one year older than him. However, he is not dearer to me although this afreet/demon came to the world boldly without anyone seeking him. Still, his mother was pretty and her days were joyous, and I must acknowledge this son of mistress for her sake.

Various translation issues arise when comparing the ST with its counterparts. First, the negation in "no dearer" is not conveyed in Jabra's translation. This negation is significant as it introduces an important aspect of the speaker's character. Actually, Gloucester sadly orchestrates his own tragedy as he blindly loves and trusts his illegitimate son. Not being aware, from the beginning, that Gloucester loves his illegitimate son Edmund more than his older legitimate one may confuse readers or viewers of the play in Arabic. As for Mahmoud's rendering, it successfully conveys the father's preference. Second, translators differ in rendering the word "knave" which conveys associations like deception, being unprincipled or crafty fellow. It also indicates a man of a humble birth. Gloucester playfully uses the word to refer to his favorite son. Humorously, the word conveys the atmosphere in which Edmond was born. Unexpectedly he comes to this life as his father has a love affair for the sake of fun rather than having children. Connotations of humble birth also apply here. Later, one notices that Edmond's awareness of his birth background torments him. The man's bitter feelings even trigger his plotting against his brother. All these associations are lost in Jabra's rendering since it includes a lexical item "fata" (young man) commonly used in formal discourse. This rendering suggests youth, and, unlike its counterpart, it has no indications about social background, unusual skills, or circumstances of one's birth. Therefore, the audience of the TT has no glimpse of the sense of humor felt in the ST.

To capture the humor and associations of "knave," Mahmoud uses "'ifreet" (demon), a supernatural creature with extraordinary powers usually mentioned in fairy tales. This rendering conveys some shades of "knave" like craftiness and deception. At the same time, the TT incorporates an imaginary creature not mentioned in the Shakespearian text. Contrary to what is said about Edmund, this creature is usually not handsome, and could be mentioned to scare small children in the hope of making them avoid something bad. Despite these discrepancies, we think that the contrast between what is said and what is seen about Edmund's countenance contributes to the sense of humor felt in Gloucester's words. Furthermore, introducing an extraordinary element helps attract readers/viewers attention to the play. Translator's choice shows her awareness of the need to achieve an effect similar to the one intended by the ST even if the literal meaning of the lexical item she chooses is not identical to that in the ST.

The cultural background of the audience is one of the factors successful translators should take into consideration. Let us consider the differences between the two renderings of the sentence "there was good sport at his making, and the whoreson must be acknowledged." Jabra shows a tendency to be faithful to the words of the ST. In "Wa kana lana fi sun'ihi lahwun wa mut'atun" (we had fun and joy in his making), he directly refers to joy and fun the speaker feels in having a relationship thwarting acceptable social norms. Adherence to the ST is also noticed in rendering "whoreson" into "ibni alzaniyati" (son of adultress). It seems that the word "whoreson" gives rise to humor in English. By contrast, we believe that Jabra's rendering does not give a similar effect as the phrase is derogatory and insulting in Arabic. Using it in the opening scene of a play that may attract families and viewers from various backgrounds can be offensive. Such considerations may have triggered less direct references to inappropriate behavior and its perpetrators. For example, instead of (we had fun and joy in his making), Mahmoud opts for "wa kanat ayyamuha mumti'atan" (her days were joyous). Evading direct reference to taboos makes the language more acceptable and less offensive. A similar strategy appears in rendering "whoreson" into "ibni alkhaleelati" (son of mistress). We believe that this phrase is less

offensive because of the associations of the word "khaleelah" with friendship. Mahmoud adds the phrase "ikraman laha" (for her sake) which clearly justifies the commitment of the father towards his son. Shunning offensive words conveys the playfulness of the scene.

The analysis above reveals various translation problems Shakespearean lexical items pose. There is no one-to-one equivalence between words in the ST and their counterparts in Arabic. In addition, sound effects are likely to be lost in translation. Literal renderings may produce offensive or unacceptable rendering. Thus, translators should take the social and cultural background of their audience into consideration. This usually results in renderings that change certain aspects of the ST. The difficulty of finding an equivalent may lead to less appealing renderings. However, these obstacles should not keep translators from continuing their mission.

VI. CLASSICAL REFERENCES

Classical references in *King Lear* include words referring to Roman gods. Such references coincide with the pagan atmosphere in which action takes place. In addition, they illustrate the spirit of the Renaissance in Shakespeare. Incorporating aspects of Roman and Greek civilizations is expected at a time witnessing an interest in classical learning and philosophy. Sean McEvoy (2000) indicates the rise of a group of "intellectuals" who believed that "through careful reading of Greek and Roman texts they could recover the understanding of the world which, they thought, made ancient times superior to their own" (p. 155). Translators differ in rendering classical elements. To get a glimpse of these differences, some examples of Shakespearian classical references are compared with their counterparts in Arabic.

Cordelia chooses to be honest rather than hypocrite. Instead of claiming that her heart has no place for anyone other than her father, Cordelia states that she loves him and owes him due respect and honor. However, misinterpreting her brevity and frankness, King Lear is enraged by her answer. Consequently, he disinherits her and banishes her. The following is the oath he takes in this regard.

ST1: For, by the sacred radiance of the sun, The mysteries of Hecate and the night, (I. i)
TT1a: qasaman bi dhiya'i alshamsi almuqaddasi, wa asrari hakati wa allayli, (Jabra: 233)
BT1a: I swear by the holy sunlight and the mysteries of Hecate and the night,
TT1b:oqsimu bi noori alshamsi wa rabbati alssihri (Mahmoud: I. i)
BT1b: I swear by the sunlight and the goddess of witchcraft.

One notices different renderings of "Hecate" (goddess of witchcraft). Jabra transliterates the name into Arabic. He also uses a footnote explaining the name and its connections with the underworld and witchcraft. Jabra's faithfulness to the ST is evident as he renders every single word into Arabic. Unlike Jabra, Mahmoud uses "rabbati alsihri" (goddess of magic/witchcraft). Thus, rather than acquainting the Arab audience with the foreign name mentioned in the ST, she paraphrases it offering a direct access to its referent. Clarity and brevity justify her choice.

ST2: Now by Apollo
TT2a: qasaman bi Apollo (Jabra: 236)
BT2a: I swear by Apollo
TT2b: qasaman bi alshams. (Mahmoud: I.i)
BT2b: I swear by the sun.

While Jabra transliterates "Apollo" and explains in a footnote that the name is one of the several pagan references mentioned throughout the play, Mahmoud renders it into "alshams" (the sun). Swearing by anything or anyone other than God is not acceptable from an Islamic point of view. Using a nonreligious oath, Mahmoud's rendering conveys the pagan atmosphere of the play. Thus, in two different ways, the TT audience can feel the pagan element. Again translators' options illustrate the former's tendency to foreignize his translation, and the latter's willingness to naturalize it. However, neither Jabra nor Mahmoud refer to Apollo as the god of music and poetry. In other words, certain aspects are lost in translation.

ST3: By Jupiter, (I. i)
TT3a: qasaman bi Jupiter. (Jabra: 237)
BT3a: I swear by Jupiter.
TT3b:fa wa Allahi. (Mahmoud: I.i)
BT3b: By Allah (God).

Without using footnotes, Jabra transliterates "Jupiter" into Arabic. Mahmoud renders it into "Allah" (God). Changing a pagan oath into a religious one reflects the translator's cultural background and closeness to her audience. The need to take the TT audience into consideration is expressed by Carla Di Franco (2000) who states "Constructions in the target text are formed not only with the source text and its intended meaning in mind, but also with the target text audience and the modification or translation of the message from the source to the target language" (pp. 372-373). In addition to the change from a pagan mode of expression to a religious one, both renderings avoid any reference to Jupiter as the king of the gods in Roman mythology. Eliding certain details is a reminder of the sacrifices that may be inevitable in translation.

The examples above reflect the difficulty of rendering classical references into Arabic. Footnotes are needed in a written rendering when the names are transliterated. In performance, paraphrasing these names make the text accessible

to TT audience. However, the foreignness indicating the origin of these names disappears. Thus, the TT loses the classical touch which is a significant aspect of Renaissance writings.

VII. CONCLUSION

Shakespearean language in *King Lear* poses different translation problems. Considering the renderings by Jabra and Mahmoud, we have found certain differences in their approaches. Jabra reflects a tendency to convey the ST diction, while Mahmoud never falters in her efforts to reach her audience. Most personifications in the previous examples are not kept in the TT. Jabra paraphrases them. Unlike the ST, instead of describing abstract ideas in terms of human beings, he rather substitutes the abstract ideas with human figures. This substitution causes loss of the enlivening effect that personification offers. Mahmoud's renderings of the same stylistic feature show that she paraphrases it in some examples, and deletes it in others. Deletions may be attributed to time constraints. Twenty-first century audience may not have the time that Renaissance audience had for entertainment.

More differences can be noticed between the TTs and their counterparts. Some metaphors are rendered literally by Jabra. Such literal renderings may be confusing as they may include images with associations not intended by the ST. Certain challenges result from differences in the way languages view the world. A metaphor can be effective and emotive in English. However, it becomes less emotive because its image is viewed differently in Arabic. These differences show the sacrifices involved in translation. Rather than adhering to the words of the ST, Mahmood sometimes opts for metaphors used in Arabic to convey similar messages. Her choices coincide with her focus on modes of expression familiar to her audience.

Social titles in *King Lear* are functional. They reflect the importance of observing courtesy rules in Renaissance society. They can also be seen as manifestations of the themes of order and power in the play. Problems involved in their translation include resorting to different renderings for the same title. This indeterminacy can be attributed to the polysemous nature of some of them. Different strategies like paraphrasing and transliteration are used to render these titles.

Shakespearian diction and its intricate associations pose different translation challenges. Emotive and humorous portrayals are rendered less effectively due to the difficulty of finding words conveying the connotations in English. Another challenge is the loss of sound effects in translation. Classical references referring to gods show clear distinctions between Jabra and Mahmoud. While the former transliterates them and uses footnotes to show their origins, the latter paraphrases them. Again Jabra's emphasis on conveying the feel of the ST is evident. His approach differs from Mahmoud's audience-oriented translation.

These differences in translators' options and techniques are reminiscent of the complexity of their task. Translation is a process in which contextual factors like text type, author, and audience have to be taken into consideration. Jabra's rendering is useful for students and researchers interested in Shakespeare's language. As for Mahmoud's version of the play, it has been well received by its audience. It has successfully attracted viewers for about eight years.

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Mixed Method Research: Instruments, Validity, Reliability and Reporting Findings

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Abstract—**The mixed method approaches have recently risen to prominence. The reason that more researchers are opting for these types of research is that both qualitative and quantitative data are simultaneously collected, analyzed and interpreted. In this article the main research instruments (questionnaire, interview and classroom observation) usually used in the mixed method designs are presented and elaborated on. It is believed that using different types of procedures for collecting data and obtaining that information through different sources (learners, teachers, program staff, etc.) can augment the validity and reliability of the data and their interpretation. Therefore, the various ways of boosting the validity and reliability of the data and instruments are delineated at length. Finally, an outline of reporting the findings in the mixed method approaches is sketched out. It is believed that this article can be useful and beneficial to the researchers in general and postgraduate students in particular who want to start or are involved in the process of conducting research.**

Index Terms—**research methods, instruments, reliability, validity**

I. INTRODUCTION

There are various procedures of collecting data: tests, questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations, diaries, journals, etc. Quite often, quantitative designs use tests and closed-ended questionnaires in order to gather, analyze and interpret the data. However, the qualitative methods mostly make use of interviews, diaries, journals, classroom observations and open-ended questionnaires to obtain, analyze and interpret the data. On the other hand, mixed method approaches usually use closed-ended questionnaires (numerical data), interviews and classroom observations (text data) to collect information. In order to triangulate the data, the researchers can obtain information through different procedures to heighten the dependability and trustworthiness of the dada and their interpretation. This article only investigates the virtues and weaknesses of the questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations because of their importance and widespread use. Generally, before and after collecting the data, the researchers need to consider the validity and reliability of their data. Therefore, the various ways of magnifying the validity and reliability of the data will be described in detail. In the end, the researchers need to put their study together and report it. The final section illustrates how the inquirers can write and report their study.

II. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Generally, there are various procedures of collecting data. The main instruments used in the mixed method researches consist of closed-ended, open-ended questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. These different ways of gathering information can supplement each other and hence boost the validity and dependability of the data. In the main, the quantitative data are obtained through closed-ended questionnaires and the qualitative data through open-ended questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. The items of the questionnaires are mainly developed based on the research objectives and research questions.

A. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are doubtless one of the primary sources of obtaining data in any research endeavor. However, the critical point is that when designing a questionnaire, the researcher should ensure that it is "valid, reliable and unambiguous" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 438). On the whole, questionnaires can appear in three types:
1- closed-ended (or structured) questionnaires
2- open-ended (or unstructured) questionnaires
3- a mixture of closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires.

As a matter of fact, closed-ended questionnaires provide the inquirer with quantitative or numerical data and open-ended questionnaires with qualitative or text information. In this regard, Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 170) divide questionnaires into "seven basic question types: quantity or information, category, list or multiple choice, scale, ranking, complex grid or table, and open-ended." Generally, a questionnaire might make use of one or several types of these question forms.

The fact is that each type of questionnaire has its own strengths and weaknesses. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) are of the opinion that closed-ended questionnaires are more efficient because of their ease of analysis. On the other hand,

Gillham (2000, p. 5) argues that "open questions can lead to a greater level of discovery." He too admits the difficulty of analyzing open-ended questionnaires. In this regard, Alderson and Scott (1996, p. 53) acknowledge the usefulness of qualitative data but state that "their open-ended nature made it more difficult to compare reports of discussions and interviews …" The important issue in open-ended questions is that the responses to these types of "questions will more accurately reflect what the respondent wants to say" (Nunan, 1999, p. 143). Therefore, it is better that any questionnaire include both closed-ended and open-ended questions to complement each other.

It is safe to say that appropriately developed questionnaires have many advantages. The following statements are some of the advantages of the questionnaires (Seliger & Shohamy 1989; Robinson, 1991; Lynch, 1996; Nunan, 1999; Gillham, 2000; Brown, 2001).

- They are one of the efficient means of collecting data on a large-scale basis.
- They can be sent simultaneously to a great number of people.
- The inquirer can fairly easily gather data in field sites.
- Respondents' anonymity makes them to share information more easily.
- When similar questions are administered simultaneously to a large number of people the acquired data are more identical, correct and standard.
- They are a time-efficient way of collecting data from many people.
- Closed-ended questionnaires can easily be analyzed in a straightforward way.
- They are cost-efficient.

On the other hand, questionnaires have some disadvantages which should be kept in mind whenever and wherever they are used (Gillham, 2000; Brown, 2001).

- Sometimes the answers are inaccurate and questionable.
- There is usually low return rate when sent by post or email.
- Ambiguity and unclearness of some questions might lead to inaccurate and unrelated responses.
- Some questions may cause misunderstanding.
- Wording of the questions might affect the respondents' responses.

In general, there are different ways of administering questionnaires which each one has its own advantages and disadvantages. For instance, whenever the respondents are not within the reach of the evaluator, they might be sent by post. However, the return rate of this procedure is rather low. They can also be sent over internet. In this procedure the return rate is a little higher than by post because it is easier for the respondents to return them. Moreover, they might be administered through the telephone. In this procedure the respondent is rather obliged to answer the questions. Finally, they can be administered face-to-face. In this procedure too the respondents are relatively compelled to answer the questions. So that the return rate is high and any ambiguous question can be clarified on the spot by the researcher (Gillham, 2000).

On the other hand, Brown (2001, p. 6) divides administering questionnaires into two methods. The first one is the self-administered questionnaire which is usually mailed out to the indented respondents. This procedure has some major defects. That is, the respondents usually hardly return the questionnaire. Also, if any misunderstandings arise, or if there be any vague questions, the researcher is not available to clarify them. Finally, the researcher has no idea how the questions were answered. The second type is the group administered questionnaire. In this procedure the questionnaire "is administered to the groups of individuals all at one time and place …" (ibid). It is believed that this method of administering the questionnaire is more preferable than the self-administered one. That is, the return rate is high, the researcher is present to explain any unclear questions and the researcher knows the conditions under which the questionnaires were filled out.

B. Interviews

The second main type of data to be collected in the mixed method design is the interview. Burns (1999, p. 118) contends that "Interviews are a popular and widely used means of collecting qualitative data." To this end, the researcher wants to get firsthand information directly from some knowledgeable informants. The inquirer intends "to obtain a special kind of information" (Merriam, 1998, p. 71) and investigates for himself/herself what is going on in the respondents' mind. The point is that the researcher cannot observe the informants' feelings and thinking, so that interviewing is a key to understand what and how people perceive and "interpret the world around them" (ibid: 72). In this juncture, Flick (2006, p. 160) adds that the purpose of interview "is to reveal existing knowledge in a way that can be expressed in the form of answers and so become accessible to interpretation."

In general, interview can be conducted in two forms: person-to-person and group or collective formats. Merriam (1998) believes that both of these forms of interview are a kind of goal oriented conversation. On the whole, Johnson and Turner (2003, p. 308) list the strengths of the interview encounter as follows:

- Good for measuring attitudes and most other content of interest.
- Allow probing by the interview.
- Can provide in-depth information.
- Allow good interpretative validity.
- Very quick turnaround for telephone interviews.
- Moderately high measurement validity for well-constructed and well-tested interview protocols.

- Relatively high response rates often attainable.
- Useful for exploration and confirmation.
Weaknesses:
- In-person interviews expensive and time-consuming.
- Perceived anonymity by respondents possibly low.
- Data analysis sometimes time-consuming for open-ended items.

There are several different types of interviews. The decision to choose one over another depends on the purpose of the research, the type of data, phenomenon under study, etc. Merriam (1998, p. 72) asserts that our choice rests on "determining the amount of structure desired." Patton (1990, p. 288-9) divides interviews into four major types:
- Informal conversation interview
- Interview guide approach
- Structured open-ended interview
- Closed, fixed response interviews

The informal conversation interview is usually conducted without any predetermined questions and without any order. The questions emerge from the natural flow of conversation. This type of interview is exploratory in nature and indeed difficult for the new researchers. At the other end of the continuum is the structured open-ended interview. In this type of interview the questions are predetermined with almost fixed order. However, this form of interview is too rigid and "adhering to predetermined questions may not allow you to access participants' perspectives and understandings of the world" (Merriam, 1998, p. 74). Also, the closed or fixed response interview is similar to a closed-ended questionnaire in which the respondent only answers the interviewer's questions in a fixed format and order. In fact, the respondent is barely free to express himself/herself. This type of interviewing is too mechanistic and bores the interviewee. However, at midposition on the continuum is the interview guide approach. In this form of interview, the topics and questions are specified but they can be reworded in any sequence based on the situation. One of the advantages of the interview guide approach is that the collected information "can later be compared and contrasted" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 456). In this approach data collection is rather systematic and conversational.

Furthermore, interviews can often be specified based on the amount of control that the inquirer exercises over the conversation. In this juncture, Burns (1999, p. 119) presents three types of interviews: structured, semistructured and unstructured.

It can be argued that Patton's (1990) and Burns' (1999) proposals are relatively similar. However, Patton's list contains one more option. These two types of interviews can be illustrated as follows:

Patton		Burns
Informal conversational interview	=	unstructured
Interview guide approach	=	semistructured
Structured open-ended interview	=	structured
Closed, fixed response interview	__	

Clearly, the most preferred type of interview is the semistructured interview guide approach. This type of interview is flexible and allows the interviewee to provide more information than the other ones. This form of interview is neither too rigid nor too open. It is a moderate form in which a great amount of data can be elicited from the interviewee.

The important issue in any interview encounter is the type of the questions that are asked. The interviewer can prepare questions according to the focus of the study. In order to obtain more relevant data from the interviewee, the researcher ought to ask good questions. To this end, Flick (2006, p. 160) proposes that "the different types of questions allow the researchers to deal more explicitly with the presuppositions they bring to the interview in relation to aspects of the interview." Furthermore, in order to obtain more data, the interviewer should use familiar language. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) believe that technical jargons can be used in the scientific circles and the interviewer should use ordinary everyday language during the interview process. Merriam (1998: 79) cautions against using the following type of questions:

Multiple questions (e.g. How do you feel about the instructors and classes?)
Leading questions (e.g. What emotional problems have you had since leaving your job?)
Yes-or-no questions (e.g. Has returning to school been difficult?)

Generally, multiple questions confuse the respondents. Merriam (ibid, 78-9) points out that "Leading questions reveal a bias or an assumption that the researcher is making, which may not be held by the participants. These set the respondent up to accept the researcher's point of view." Finally, the yes-or-no questions hardly provide any useful and relevant information.

The researcher should in the mean time try to find out some knowledgeable and appropriate informants. In order to obtain more valid and reliable information, the interviewer should select the respondents more carefully. There are different ways of identifying suitable informants. First of all, the researcher can find a knowledgeable person based on his/her experience and on-site observations. The second way is asking other participants to introduce a reliable informant. Finally, the person being introduced can also be asked to introduce other key informants in the field.

In any interview endeavor the interviewer should explain to the respondents the purpose of the interview. Flick (2006, p. 169) states that you should attempt "to create a good atmosphere in the interview and to give room to your

interviewees to open up." The interviewer should try to consider the following points during the interview process (Merriam, 1998; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003; Johnson & Turner, 2003; Flick, 2006):
  - The interviewees should be provided with scope to express their opinions.
  - The interviewer should be nonjudgmental and neutral during the interview.
  - The interviewer should be respectful, natural and nonthreatening.
  - The interviewer should create rapport.
  - The interviewer should not interrupt.

Generally, the interview can be recorded in three ways (Merriam, 1998). The first method is to tape record the interview. The second way is to take notes. In this method the interviewer manages to write the important points during the interview process. The final method is to attempt to write down every detail of the interview immediately after the interview. This method of recording data is not recommended because it is difficult and rather an incorrect and inaccurate way of collecting information.

C. Classroom Observations

Observation is a preplanned research tool which is carried out purposefully to serve research questions and objectives. When using this method, the researcher observes the "classroom interactions and events, as they actually occur" (Burns, 1999, p. 80). Flick (2006, p. 219) also contends that observation "is an attempt to observe events as they naturally occur." More importantly, observation enables the researcher to combine it with questionnaires and interviews to collect "relatively objective firsthand information" (Johnson & Turner, 2003, p. 314). To this end, Merriam (1998, p. 96) believes that observation is a kind of data triangulation in order to "substantiate the findings." In this regard, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 453) state that the observers "study the subjective factors objectively." However, Nation (1997, p. 276) asserts that the researchers try to study the "representations of behavior rather than the behavior itself."

Certainly, like every other research instrument, observation has its own strengths and weaknesses. Observational data represent a firsthand picture of the events, is carried out in a natural field setting and enable the researcher to obtain contextual factors. However, analyzing observational data is time-consuming, observing large population is difficult, there is the possibility of observer bias, reactivity and investigator effects on the students and instructors, etc. On the whole, in order to carry out observation, the observers need to determine the setting. Then, they should identify what to be documented. Next, the inquirers ought to gain "an initial, general presentation of the field" (Flick, 2006, p. 217). After that, the researchers might attempt to conduct focused and selected observations which are pertinent to the research objectives and questions.

In the main, observation can take place through two methods: nonparticipant and participant. In nonparticipant observation, the observer only watches and records the classroom activities without any involvement. Burns (1999, p. 82) expresses that the inquirer's goal "is to remain aloof and distant and to have little or no contact with the subjects of the research." Also, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 451) confirm that "researchers do not participate in the activity being observed but rather sit on the sidelines and watch." However, in participant observation the observers enter the classroom and integrate with the students directly. Burns (1999, p. 82) is of the opinion that "The researcher becomes a member of the context and participates in its culture and activities." In this regard, Flick (2006, p. 220) emphasizes that the observers "dive headlong into the field." Nevertheless, participant observation has attracted some criticism in the field. For instance, Merriam (1998) notes that the researcher loses sight of the students and their activities. The observer becomes too much involved in the classroom processes which consequently cannot concentrate on selected behaviors and activities.

In this process the crucial issue is what to be observed. It is clear that several classes cannot be observed at a short period of time. Therefore, the researcher must be selective and choose randomly in order to maintain the representativeness criterion. Inside the classroom the observer must pay particular attention to details in order to record them objectively without personal bias. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 452) propose two types of observations: "narrow focus and broad focus observations." Narrow focus observation usually concentrates on a single element and broad focus on an overall picture of what is happening in the classroom. In this regard, there are several factors which determine and influence what should be observed. These factors involve the observer's goal, the research objectives, research questions, the inquirer's field of study, practical issues, researcher's personal impressions, the topic under study and so on (Merriam, 1998). Therefore, according to these considerations the researcher can select and observe the classroom setting, the students' and instructors' activities and behaviors, etc. In the main, the observer can either enter the class and observe what is happening or prepare a checklist of activities and tick accordingly. To implement the latter option, Ross (1996, p. 173) sets forth four categories of classroom activities: "student activities, sources of input to students, student behavior and the distribution of classroom time."

The next essential point in the observational process is the amount of time spent on observation. Almost often the duration of observation depends on the research objectives and questions. To this end, Merriam (1998, p. 98) maintains that "There is no ideal amount of time to spend observing." In this regard, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 452) distinguish between "single observation of limited duration and multiple observations." Mainly, it is clear that the more time spent observing, the better and reliable information can be obtained. Flick (2006, p. 219) emphasizes that "How far this aim can be fulfilled remains doubtful."

One of the main drawbacks of the observation is the reactivity problem. That is, the students react differently because of the researcher's presence in the classroom. To overcome this problem, Johnson and Turner (2003, p. 312) suggest that reactivity may "decrease significantly after the researcher has been observing for a while." The point is that at the first session the observers had better not record or take notes. That is, they should only sit and observe and let "the students become accustomed to their presence and go about their usual activities" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 453). Therefore, it is preferable that the observers begin to focus on the classroom, students' and instructors' activities and behaviors from the second and third sessions onwards.

One more problem in the observation process is the observer bias. That is, the researchers' viewpoints and backgrounds may considerably affect what they see. The observers are human beings and possess some peculiarities which have a tremendous effect on how they observe. Therefore, it is imperative that the observers try hard to remain nonjudgmental and "control their biases" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 453).

The final issue in the observation process is the recording of information: "This written account of the observation constitutes field notes" (Merriam, 1998, p. 104). Therefore, the observers should attempt to write down their observations either during or soon after the end of the class, i.e. the sooner the better. The researchers had better "take extensive field notes during and after the observation sessions" (Johnson & Turner 2003: 313). The inquirers should prepare an appropriate form and put the information in it. In this regard, Nation (1997: 279) adheres to "designing a suitable data sheet."

The data collection should be continued till the saturation point is obtained. The following checklist is an example of how also used to collect information through the classroom observation process. One of the advantages of this checklist is that it is fairly detailed and the observer can easily tick the appropriate boxes according to his/her observations. This method of collecting information is used to complement field notes.

III. VALIDITY

The principles underlying naturalistic and/or qualitative research are based on the fact that validity is a matter of trustworthiness, utility and dependability that the evaluator and the different stakeholders place into it. As Merriam (1998, p. 202) states in qualitative research "reality is holistic, multidimensional and ever-changing." Therefore, it is up to the researcher and research participants who attempt to build validity into the different phases of the research from data collection through to data analysis and interpretation. In the main, validity is concerned with whether our research is believable and true and whether it is evaluating what it is supposed or purports to evaluate. In this regard, Burns (1999, p. 160) stresses that "validity is an essential criterion for evaluating the quality and acceptability of research." Generally, researchers use different instruments to collect data. Therefore, the quality of these instruments is very critical because "the conclusions researchers draw are based on the information they obtain using these instruments" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 158). Thus, it is imperative that the data and the instruments to be validated. On the whole, the following miscellaneous procedures can be used to validate the instruments and the data.

A. Content Validity

Content validity is related to a type of validity in which different elements, skills and behaviors are adequately and effectively measured. To this end, the research instruments and the data might be reviewed by the experts in the field of research. Based on the reviewers' comments the unclear and obscure questions can be revised and the complex items reworded. Also, the ineffective and nonfunctioning questions can be discarded altogether. In addition, the questions could be face validated by these persons.

B. Internal Validity

Mainly, internal validity is concerned with the congruence of the research findings with the reality. Also, it deals with the degree to which the researcher observes and measures what is supposed to be measured. On the whole, to boost the internal validity of the research data and instruments, the researcher might apply the following six methods recommended by Merriam (1998): triangulation, member checks, long-term observation at research site, peer examination, participatory or collaborative modes of research and researcher's bias.

1- Triangulation. In order to strengthen the validity of evaluation data and findings, the investigator should try to collect data through several sources: questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. Gathering data through one technique can be questionable, biased and weak. However, collecting information from a variety of sources and with a variety of techniques can confirm findings. Therefore, if we obtain the same results, we can become sure that the data are valid. Certainly, through triangulation we can gain qualitative and quantitative data in order to corroborate our findings.

2- Member checks. Through member checks the results and interpretations are taken back to the participants in order to be confirmed and validated. Therefore, the results and interpretations of interviews might be handed over to the interviewees in order to confirm the content of what they have stated during the interview encounter. In this way the plausibility and truthfulness of the information can be recognized and supported.

3- Long-term observation. Repeated observations over an extended period of time can naturally enhance the validity of research data and findings. The researcher should try to visit different classes in order to obtain the intended information. The observation continues as long as the saturation point is achieved.

4- Peer examination. In peer examination process the research data and findings are reviewed and commented on by several nonparticipants in the field. However, these peers need to be familiar with the subject under study and possess enough background information in it. Therefore, the researcher might ask two or three experienced experts who have taught the same course for some years to review and comment on the interview, classroom observation and questionnaire data and findings. It is certain that the plausibility of data analysis and interpretations by these peers can tremendously augment the validity of the research.

5- Participatory or collaborative modes of research. This means that the researcher should try to involve most of the participants in all phases of inquiry. The purpose "is to arrive at evaluation conclusions as a result of a consensus among persons from different perspectives in relation to the program" (Lynch, 1996, p. 62). Clearly, it is very difficult for the researcher to conduct a study single-handedly. But sharing ideas with different students, learners, teachers and instructors can strengthen the research findings and interpretations. The researcher should, therefore, try to involve the students, ex-students, language instructors, subject instructors and program staff in the different phases of the study in order to enhance the validity of the research. Their varied ideas and views can be constructive and useful.

6- Researcher's bias. It is clear that every researcher has his/her own particular values, beliefs and worldviews. The point is that the investigator should try to collect, analyze and interpret data as impartially as possible. The inquirer needs to be explicit, critical and faithful at different phases of the inquiry process. Therefore, the researcher should try to remain as nonjudgmental and clear as possible throughout the research process. He/She should try to stick to the ethical rules and principles, perform the evaluation as accurately as possible and report the findings honestly.

C. Utility Criterion

In addition to the above-mentioned six criteria of checking and contributing to the validity process, we can add the utility criterion. Lynch (1996, p. 63) asserts that "Utility refers to the degree of usefulness the evaluation findings have for administrators, managers and other stakeholders." This criterion intends to inquire whether or not the research works. That is, utility criterion asks whether the evaluation endeavor generates enough information for the decision-makers with regard to the effectiveness and appropriateness of the program. Clearly, when the evaluation process provides the different stakeholders with proper and ample information, it can be surmised that the utility criterion has been met and consequently achieved validity requirement.

D. External Validity

One more issue to be considered is the external validity. External validity is concerned with the applicability of the findings in other settings or with other subjects. As Burns (1999, p. 160) notes "How generalisable to the other contexts or subjects is our research." In fact, it might depend on the underlying similarities between our context and other contexts. Nunan (1999, p. 17) puts emphasis on the research design and states that "Is the research design such that we can generalize beyond the subjects under investigation to a wider population?"

IV. RELIABILITY

One of the main requirements of any research process is the reliability of the data and findings. In the main, reliability deals with the consistency, dependability and replicability of "the results obtained from a piece of research" (Nunan, 1999, p. 14). Obtaining the similar results in quantitative research is rather straightforward because our data are in numerical form. However, in qualitative approaches to research achieving the identical results are fairly demanding and difficult. It is because the data are in narrative form and subjective. To this end, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288) point out that instead of obtaining the same results, it is better to think about the dependability and consistency of the data. In this case, the purpose is not to attain the same results rather to agree that based on the data collection processes the findings and results are consistent and dependable. Merriam (1998, p. 206) believes that "the human instrument can become more reliable through training and practice." In general, Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Merriam (1998) suggest that the dependability of the results can be ensured through the use of three techniques: the investigator's position, triangulation and audit trial.

1- The investigator's position. In order to increase the reliability of the research, the investigator needs to explain explicitly the different processes and phases of the inquiry. Therefore, the researcher should elaborate on every aspect of the study. He/She should describe in detail the rationale of the study, design of the study and the subjects.

2- Triangulation. The researcher should use different procedures such as questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations to collect data. Also, this information needs to be obtained through different sources such as learners, students, ex- students, language instructors, subject instructors and program staff. Therefore, collecting varied types of information through different sources can enhance the reliability of the data and the results. In this way the replication of the study can be carried out fairly easily.

3- Audit trial. In order to fulfill this procedure, the researcher should describe in detail how the data are collected, how they are analyzed, how different themes are derived and how the results are obtained. Therefore, this detailed information can help replicate the research and contribute to its reliability.

A. External Reliability

On the whole, external reliability is concerned with the replication of the study. As Burns (1999, p. 21-20) states "Could an independent researcher reproduce the study and obtain results similar to the original study?" It is believed that the external reliability of the research can be increased if the inquirer pays heed to five important aspects of the inquiry (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; Nunan, 1999). These five aspects include the status of the researcher, the choice of informants, the social situations and conditions, the analytic constructs and premises and the methods of data collection and analysis.

1- The status of the researcher. This aspects requires that the researcher's social position with regard to the participants of the study to be clarified.

2- The choice of informants. This aspect demands that the investigator describe the participants as fully as possible. Therefore, if any independent inquirer desired to replicate the study, it could be done fairly easily.

3- The social situations and conditions. The study might be conducted in an academic situation, therefore, in that case the social situation and condition is fairly constant and uniform for most of the learners. That is, all the learners have equal opportunity to study and learn English language. However, it is clear that there are grave differences among the learners from the proficiency, social and economic point of view.

4- The analytic constructs and premises. The main terms, constructs, definitions, units of analysis and premises should be delineated and their underlying assumptions elaborated on explicitly. Therefore, the identification and description of constructs and premises can ease the process of replication and consequently enhance reliability.

5- Methods of data collection and analysis. The different procedures of collecting data need to be explicitly explained. The main methods of gathering information in mixed method research are questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. Mainly, the quantitative data are analyzed through descriptive statistics and qualitative data by means of descriptive and thematic interpretations.

B. Internal Reliability

Internal reliability deals with the consistency of collecting, analyzing and interpreting the data. Internal reliability might be obtained when an independent researcher on reanalyzing the information comes to the similar findings as the original researcher. Burns (1999, p. 21) asserts that "Would the same results be obtained by other researchers using the same analysis?" In the present study, in order to guard against threats to internal reliability, the researcher has used the four basic strategies suggested by LeCompte and Goetz (1982) and elaborated on by Nunan (1999). These are: the use of low inference descriptors, multiple researchers/participant researchers, peer examination and mechanically recorded data.

1- Low inference descriptors. Low inference descriptors are "easily observable and can be readily quantified (i.e. counted or measured)" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 239). For example, 'asking factual questions' can be counted and measured. On the other hand, high inference descriptors are categories "of behavior which cannot be observed directly but which has to be inferred" (ibid). For example, it is difficult to observe and measure the students' motivation and interest. These elaborate descriptions and explanations enhance the internal reliability and any independent observer can observe and replicate them rather easily.

2- Multiple researchers/participant researchers. As Nunan (1999, p. 60) acknowledges "In much research this is not feasible, because a research team consisting of several members can be extremely expensive." However, he suggests that the researcher can ask the experienced participants to help him/her verify and confirm in the data collection, analysis and interpretations. Therefore, the researcher can involve two or more participants in the analysis, interpretation and validating conclusions.

3- Peer examination. Based on Lecompte and Goetz (1982) this method can be implemented through applying and utilizing other researchers' findings. The investigator can use other researchers' results and conclusions in his/her report. Thus, the researcher can utilize some relevant studies in his/her research in order to enhance the internal reliability.

4- Mechanically recorded data. The interviews can be recorded and preserved, therefore, the reanalysis or the replication of the data can be rather easily implemented by any independent investigator. This procedure can increase the internal reliability of the data and findings.

V. REPORTING THE STUDY

Generally, the outcomes of the whole research process should be reported to the relevant audience. Lynch (1996, p. 174) states that "The final product of an evaluation is a report, which can take many different forms, depending on the audiences and goals …" In this regard, the researcher describes the procedures that he/she performed and explains in detail the results or outcomes of the study. As Creswell (1994, p. 169) emphasizes the important issue is that "how this outcome compares and contrasts with theories and the literature." That is, the results ought to be collated and examined in comparison with other related studies, theories and so on. The researcher should try to expound the study, the results

and his/her interpretations as clearly as possible to the relevant audience. In this way the readers can make sense of the whole study "and what the study means to them and to the language teaching profession as a whole" (Brown, 2001, p. 12).

Mainly, the researcher must try not to hurt the different stakeholders. That is, sometimes the results of the study may be provocative and create some controversial issues. However, Lynch (1996, p. 9) believes that "The critical issue is how to communicate the findings of the evaluation honestly and successfully." It is safe to say that the researcher should consider the social and political atmosphere of the context and situation and act accordingly. This does not mean that he/she might make some compromises. Rather, the researcher should be considerate and take into account every aspect before reporting the outcomes. Creswell (1994, p. 169) argues that the inquirer should impart his experiences so that "allow readers to vicariously experience the challenges he encounters and provide a lens through which readers can view the subject's world." On the whole, the researcher should report the results based on the pre-agreed goals and objectives of the study.

Generally, there are different formats for reporting the results. The inquirer should, therefore, report the findings according to the specific design in which the data were gathered and analyzed. Brown (2001, p. 253) divides the research design into four parts: "purely statistical, statistical with some qualitative, qualitative with some statistics, and purely qualitative." The quantitative research report is usually presented in numerical forms along with the relevant tables, diagrams and figures. However, the qualitative research report appears in narrative form and its organization is fairly flexible. As Creswell (1994, p. 168-9) puts it "the results will be presented in descriptive, narrative form rather than as a scientific report." The important issue in this process is to represent the outcomes as completely and clearly as possible. In qualitative research the researcher makes every effort to recount the process of research. That is, the process is more important than the sheer product. As Brown (2001, p. 257) asserts this account of the "story may differ in structure from project to project and report to report."

On the other hand, a study might be a mixture of qualitative and quantitative researches. To this end, the organization of the report might be in a hybrid form. Therefore, if the design is a mixed approach a combination of descriptive and statistical report forms might be rendered. However, Brown (2001, p. 259) cautions that "you may need to decide whether it is primarily a statistical study or mainly qualitative in nature. Therefore, the researcher should know which of the approaches is the predominant one and accordingly prepare a report on those bases. By and large, if the research approach is a mixed design, the following outline might be a workable option to report the evaluation process and outcomes:

I. Introduction
   A. Background/Literature Review
   B. Statement of Purpose
   C. Research Questions
II. Methods
   A. Participants
     1. Sampling
     2. Characteristics of the Participants
   B. Materials
   C. Procedures
III. Results
IV. Discussion
V. Conclusions

VI. CONCLUSION

This article discussed and elaborated on the strengths and weaknesses of three different procedures of data collection: questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. As was explained in the introduction section of this paper, there are other ways of gathering information. However, these three (questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations) instruments were selected because of their extensive utilization and their application in mixed method approaches to research. By using these instruments, the researchers can obtain both quantitative and qualitative data. In addition, it was argued that any researcher needs to enhance the validity and reliability of the data. Therefore, these two ways of extending the steadiness and stability of the data were delineated in detail. Finally, an overall outline of writing the research paper and/or report was presented and discussed.

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A Comparative Study of Perfect Aspect Category in English and Chinese

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Abstract—Based on the definitions of "category" and "aspect", the article analyzes the similarities and differences between English and Chinese perfect aspect in terms of formation, meaning, and usage. Main findings are that in the first place the perfect aspect in both English and Chinese expresses the same basic meaning, and it can be used to show the accomplishment of an action, the duration of an action as well as the anteriority of an action; secondly, the perfect aspect in English must be realized by grammatical device, but that in Chinese can be realized by means of grammar together with the lexical device; thirdly, there exist differences between English perfect aspect and that in Chinese in some specific usages. The study will be of benefit to have a deeper understanding of aspect as a grammatical category, and a more skillful application of English aspect and Chinese aspect. In the meantime, such analysis will deepen the understanding of differences of grammatical category between languages and the linguistic universality and diversity.

Index Terms—English, Chinese, aspect, perfect, comparison

I. INTRODUCTION

English and Chinese are of different language families. English belongs to the Indo-European Language Family, while Chinese to the Han-Tibetan Language Family. English is between an analytic language and a synthetic language, whereas Chinese is the most typical analytic language. They are different at all levels, especially in terms of the form, meaning and function of grammatical categories. A comparison of English and Chinese can reveal the similarities and differences between them, and deepen the understanding of Chinese and English. This paper will first define the concept of category and aspect, and then compare and analyze English perfect aspect and Chinese perfect aspect from the perspectives of form composition, meaning expression and specific use so as to find out the similarities and differences between them and to analyze the cause of differences, thus achieving a new understanding of English perfect aspect and Chinese perfect aspect and also of the grammatical category aspect.

II. CATEGORY AND ASPECT

Categorization is a complicated activity of human cognition. It is a process where human brain converts the world into orderly information by means of a system of symbols. It is a mental process of classification and is the basis of construal category (Ungerer E. & H. J. Schmid 2001, p.2). In this process, human beings use their own subjective initiatives to classify the objective things in the process of interaction with the objective things and give the world certain structure. The result of such classification is category. Category is the result of categorization and is also the starting point of semantic and conceptual formation.

Also, people classified many categories of the language they use. In his *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, Lyons(1968) classifies three major grammatical categories, "the primary grammatical category are word classes, and the secondary grammatical categories are grammatical features of the word classes, such as gender, number, case, tense, aspect and voice, while sentence constituents like subject, predicate and object belong to the functional categories." According to such a classification, aspect is a secondary grammatical category, which also can be called specific grammatical category.

Aspect was originally put forward as a category in general linguistics, but not specific to any particular language. Aspect, as a grammatical category in general linguistics, is indicated mainly by changes of verb forms. However, different languages vary greatly in the way the aspect is expressed. Some inflected languages like Russian and Bulgarian which belong to the Slavic languages have rich forms to show aspect. English is between an analytic language and an inflectional language. Without special form to show aspect, English resorts to inflectional changes of adding auxiliary verbs to verbs to indicate aspect. Chinese is a language without inflectional changes, so aspect is revealed by semi-dependent function words.

III. ASPECT, CATEGORY AND PERFECT ASPECT CATEGORY IN ENGLISH

Traditional English grammar regarded the prescriptive Latin grammar as a model, in which no distinction is made between tense and aspect, and only tense is emphasized while aspect is always ignored. It assumed that aspect is

included in tense. There is no exaggeration that it is an oversight in the field of linguistics and leads us to a vague understanding of aspect and a confused use of terminology. As a result, we cannot explain scientifically and reasonably some grammatical phenomena that are related with aspect. This paper tries to analyze aspect of English from different perspectives and tries to work out a clear relational schema between different aspects. Therefore, we could have a more clear understanding of aspect.

In English, aspect is first a grammatical category of verb. It presents the inner time structure of a certain event. Aspect is different form tense: tense is used to describe the relationship between the time an action occurred or a state existed and the time of speaking, whereas aspect uses specific verb forms to show situations of action and process in a situation within a certain time and also to show methods for carrying out actions. For example, it can be used to indicate whether the action is going on or has been completed; whether it is continuous, transient or repetitive.

Aspect is also a semantic concept. Semantic aspect is the inherent property of the action expressed by verb or verb phrase. A verb itself contains the necessary time on which the action expressed by the verb rely, namely, the "implicit time". A verb has certain properties of aspect. "Aspect property is the lexical-semantic category of English verb, and it is the situation type of verb or verb centric phrase and it is about the type of the inner structure of situation, primary of the inner time structure" (Yi 1999, p.158). "Grammatical aspect reveals the speaker's different ways of observance towards the inner time structure of the situation, while semantic aspect is determined by other constituents of the sentence" (Olsen 1997).

Despite the objective existence of difference between the two aspects, there is no strict distinction in literatures, and many authors tend to blend the two (Gu 1998, p.193). Studies in recent years regard the features of aspect as the features of the whole sentence rather than the features of words. This feature is produced under the joint action of verb aspect property and verb aspect (grammatical aspect). Zhang Jin and Chen Yunqing (1981, p.310) once remark that the situational meaning (aspect property meaning, the author's note) expressed by the predicate of a sentence is often the algebraic sum of verb aspect property and verb aspect.

As for how many types of aspect there are in English, there is no consistent view among grammarians, because when aspect is classified, some are classifications of grammatical aspect and others are classifications of semantic aspect. For example, Frawley (1992, p.294) thinks that there should be six kinds of aspects: perfective/ imperfective, punctual/ durative, iterative, telic/ atelic, progressive and habitual. Grammarians like Quirk only make a distinction between perfective and progressive. Still there are books using such dichotomy as perfective and imperfective. This paper will only discuss grammatical aspect and accept the dichotomy as perfective and imperfective in English and will only focus on English perfective aspect. During the process of discussion, the aspective character of verb may be related.

What is perfect aspect then? *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* defines perfective as "(in grammar) a kind of aspect that indicates the relationship between a state or event" (Richards 2000, p.337). Simply speaking, the meaning of perfective aspect is that the action was fully presented before the reference time. If the reference time is the speaking time, it is present perfect; if the reference time is a time point in the past, it is present perfect; if the reference time is one in the future, it is future perfect. They are respectively expressed as "have (has) + done", "had + done" and "will have + done". Among the three perfective aspects, present perfect is frequently used and it is more important than the other two kinds of perfect either in meaning expression or in frequency of use.

Present perfect aspect in English has two main usages, one of which is to express the association between actions happened in the past and the present. As the following examples show:
(1)   a. Professor Wang **has left for** Beijing for a conference.
         b. I'**ve closed** the window.
         c. The price of vegetables **has increased** rapidly these days.
         d. He'**s traveled** a lot.
         e. I'**ve told** you about it, but you did not listen.

In example (1a), *has left* expresses the action happened in the past, and the result is that Professor Wang now is not at the place where the speech took place. It can be shown that present perfect is an aspect which is concerned with two time periods, of which one refers to some time in the past, and the other refers to present time, and they are closely related. Although the action that is expressed by present perfect aspect happened in the past, it is an aspect with retrospective meaning. We can find this feature from the following aspects: the model verb *have (has)* expresses the present tense and it can be used together with temporal adverbials including the present time, such as *now*, *today*, *this week*, *these days*, and so forth; what's more, it cannot be used with phrases expressing the past time, such as *just now*, *yesterday*, *three days ago*, *last year*, etc. As the present perfect aspect belongs to the present tense, the emphasis of employing the present perfect lies not in the action that happened in the past and the time when it happened (such usage is not in collocation with any adverbials of time) but in the result or influence of this action to the present time, and sometimes the result or influence is direct and specific. For instance, in example (1b), the direct and specific influence of *I've closed the window* is that "the window is now closed". For another example, in *The price of vegetables has increased rapidly*, the direct result is that "the price of vegetables is rather high now." Sometimes, the result is indirect, for instance, in (1d) *He's traveled a lot*, one possible result is "He has seen a lot and known many things". Apparently, the result is indirect. But sometimes, the action is over and the situation has changed, so the result no longer exists. For example, in example (1e) *I've told you about it, but you did not listen*, the result of the behavior "telling" no longer

exists, so it becomes only an experience in the past.

The second usage of present perfect is to express the duration of an action. As the following examples show:

(2)   a. I've **stayed** here for about three months.
       b. He **has been** a teacher in the Inner Mongolia University since 1996.
       c. The family **have enjoyed** better health since they moved to the countryside.
       d. I've **been here** for three hours. I have to leave now.
       e. You **have watched TV** too long, so you'd better have a rest.

In the above examples, "stayed", "has been", and "have enjoyed" are showing the duration of actions, of which several actions and states started from a certain past time and lasts to the present time. In addition, in general, the actions will continue, as in the examples of (2a), (2b), and (2c). If the relationship of co-text is clear, the actions will not continue, as in the examples of (2d) and (2e). We can find out that the verbs of such usage are all durative verbs and they generally collocate with the structures of "for+ a period of time", "since+ the past time", and "since+ the clause with the past tense". That is to say, the grammatical marker of present perfect is to be concert with the aspect of the verbs used. The aspects of non-durative verbs contradict the meaning of duration expressed by perfect aspects, so they cannot be applied in these sentences. But there is an interesting phenomenon that the negative forms of such verbs can be employed in such present perfect. As the following examples show:

(3)   a. * I've **bought** the stereo for one year.
       b. I've **not bought** anything for three months.
       c. * I've **come** here for two weeks.
       d. I've **not touched** any beer for a whole week.

In fact, non-durative verbs represent actions, and their negative forms can represent a state of duration; for instance, the verb *marry* is a non-durative verb, but *don't marry* show a durative state. Therefore, in the place of durative verbs, the negative forms of non-durative verbs can be used, too. It can be seen from the above examples (3a) and (3c), the Chinese translations of these two sentences are correct while their English counterparts are incorrect. This shows that Chinese grammar of aspect is not as rigid as English grammar.

The above two usages are the typical usage of present perfect. Besides, there are some marginal non-typical usages of present perfect. The present perfect is used in the compound sentences with adverbial clause of time and condition with the coordination of tense of the main clause (the simple future tense) to express "the actions that has finished before a future action". On such occasion, present perfect is only to express "anteriority", and it has no relation with "the present" as the following example (4) shows:

(4)   a. I will go to see the film as soon as I've **finished** my homework.
       b. When we've **finished** the project, we'll go on a vacation.

Contrary to such a usage, if the present perfect is applied in the main clause, the subordinate clause uses the simple present tense. And it expresses an "occasion that often appears", and it has no certain time concept as the example (5) show:

(5)   a. When a man goes back to look at the house of his childhood, it **has always shrunk**.
       b. Once we realize the truth, we've **gained** freedom.

Another special usage of present perfect is to express that "somebody has done something for several times" as the example (6) shows:

(6)   a. It's the first time I've **been** here.
       b. It is the second time he **has been** out with her.

In English, the uses of past perfect and future perfect are basically the same as present perfect. The differences lie in different reference time points, in which past perfect regards some time point in the past as reference point, and future perfect regards some time point in the future as reference point. Here the author will not discuss it in detail.

IV. ASPECT AND PERFECTIVE IN CHINESE

The research about aspect in Chinese is less developed than in English. Moreover, a great divergence exists in many ways; for example, whether there is aspect, the name of aspect, the range of aspect in Chinese, the property of Chinese character reflecting aspect including 着, 了, 过 and so on (Wan 1996). According to Hu Zhuanglin (1990), the studies on aspect in Chinese can be basically classified into three types:

The first type does not talk about the grammatical category aspect and it just divides time auxiliaries 着, 了, 过 and so on expressing the progress of action in auxiliary words item. This type is more or less equal to perfective and imperfective in English.

The second type is represented by Zhao Yuanren. He thinks there is aspect in Chinese and comes up with the explicit concept "suffix of verb aspect". These suffixes which can be added to all the verbs are unlimited and have very few forms. The aspect in Chinese is not restricted to the dichotomy of perfective and progressive in English. In Chinese there are seven types of aspects: zero aspect, perfective, progressive, infinitive past aspect, and durative.

The third type is represented by Halliday's model which thinks the suffixes of perfective and imperfective semantic aspect are 着, 了, and 过. Modal particles having perfective and imperfective meanings are 啦, 来着 and 呐. They

are corresponding to aspects.

Now the opinion people usually accept is that there are perfective, progressive and experiential aspects in Chinese, whose symbols are respectively 着, 了 and 过. This paper also accepts this opinion. Unlike the aspect system in English, aspect system of Chinese is still not fixed and has a great divergence. For convenience of discussion, here this paper will use V+ 了 *(le)* to indicate the perfective in Chinese aiming to correspond with the perfective *have+done* in English.

Now we talk about the properties of the character 了. What we discussed above is grammatical aspect and grammatical category. Grammatical category is based on the inflectional Indo-European Language. Gao Mingkai (1957, p4) also said, "Narrowly speaking, grammatical category refers to the summary of those grammatical meanings expressed by all the inflections of nouns, verbs, and adjectives that grammarians usually discussed in word classes." But the main feature of Chinese is that there are no strict inflections. Like the grammatical category of aspect, there are many means of expression in Chinese, including the repetition, substantive use, zero form of verb. Besides, others are words with adhesiveness, among which aspect auxiliary or modal particle is recognized as half independent word (Zuo 1997, p111). 了 is undoubtedly a modal auxiliary expressing perfective. Its attached object is not only a verb, but also an adjective, a predicative phrase and a sentence, as can be illustrated by example (7):

(7)   a. 他今天干了一件漂亮的事情。（了 is attached to the verb concerned.）

      b. 保姆擦干净了地面。（了 is attached to an adjective concerned.）

      c. 今天星期五了。（了 is attached to a nominal predicate.）

      d. 经过几小时颠簸，我终于回到家了。（了 is attached to the end of the sentence.）

The perfective in Chinese has basically three uses. The main use is to express the completion of action, i.e., the effect and result of the action that has happened, as can be shown by example (8):

(8)   a. 我把窗户关上了。（The window is closed at the moment of speaking.）

      b. 他来了。（He is at the place of speaking.）

      c. 我们赶到车站时，火车已经开了。（The train has left the station.）

      d. 修建的大楼今天完工了。（The building is in shape now.）

The second use of perfective in Chinese is to express the anteriority of the action. *V+le*, unlike what some scholars said, is to express past tense. The anteriority that it expressed is the past which regards reference time point as reference, i.e., the action happened before the reference time point. Moreover, this reference point can be present, past or future. There is no grammatical category tense in Chinese, but vocabulary can be used to express relative time relation. Example (9):

(9)   a. 他已经做完了作业。（relative "present"）

      b. 今年雨水多，五月前就下了两场雨。（relative to "past"）

      c. 明天等你来的时候，我早就走了。（relative to "future"）

      d. 你明年毕业了，分配了工作，我就放心了。（relative to "future"）

But it can not be denied that 了 indeed can be used in the sentence of past tense. So what are the differences between the past tense sentences with "le" and the present perfect aspect sentences with V+ 了? Differences exist, but not too big. V+ 了 form is established in seeing the past from the present while the past tense is based on the past radically. Example (10):

(10)   a. 他昨天完成任务了。（past tense, focus on "past"）

       b. 他昨天完成了任务。（现在完成体，立足于现在）

       c. 今天早晨下雨了。（past tense, focus on "past"）

       d. 今天早晨下了一场雨。（present perfective, focus on "present"）

There is another use of perfective in Chinese, expressing the continuing of action or state, example (11):

(11)   a. 这件事我后悔了好几年，现在提起来仍然觉得很遗憾。

       b. 我祖父去世好几年了。

       c. 我来北京快四个月了。

Now we will analyze temporal adverbial types occurring with the perfective in Chinese. Occurring with the first two uses are adverbials of time with certain time point, including past adverbials of time, for example, (10b) and (10d); without adverbials of time, it expresses the time point of speaking, such as, example (9a). Because the first kind of usage expresses the completion of specific action and the time must be certain; the second kind of usage expresses the anteriority and there must be a specific time reference point, or there is no "anteriority". The third kind of usage usually uses with the adverbials of time showing a period of time, such as, example (11), and it also can uses with uncertain

adverbials of time, such as example (12):

(12)什么时候复习完了功课，就什么时候叫你出去玩。

<div style="text-align:center">V.   COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PERFECTIVE ASPECT BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE</div>

After analyzing the use and characteristics of English and Chinese perfective aspects, we will summarize the similarities and differences between them.

It can be seen that the meanings expressed by English perfective and Chinese perfective are almost the same with the same function of indicating completion (the influence on present), lasting and present, which means that the meanings that can be expressed by English perfective can also be expressed by Chinese perfective. This can be thought as a kind of reflection of language universality. Meanwhile, it indicates that aspect is rather a semantic concept actually.

Nevertheless, it should not be neglected that there are also many distinctions between English and Chinese perfective aspects. Firstly, the perfective aspect in English must be expressed by particular grammatical forms, the morphological changes of verb. Aspect is prescriptive or obligatory. In order to express completion of an action, the verb must be used in the form of *have + done*, and the concept of tense which is combined with perfective aspect will be expressed through auxiliary verbs such as *have*, *had* and *will*. However, in Chinese, although the character 了 is a marker of perfective, not all perfective aspects have to use this character. Sometimes, the perfectives can be shown through words. Aspect in Chinese is neither prescriptive nor obligatory and the concept of tense combined with perfective in Chinese is usually indicated through adverbial clause of tense. For example, although the sentences below express the same meaning, some use the character 了 while others do not:

(13)   a. 我刚吃了饭。（perfective aspect of using character 了）

b. 我刚吃完饭。（without 了, but 完 indicates the same perfective meaning）

c. 我刚吃完了饭。（using both perfective marker "了" and word 完）

(14)   a. He **has been** monitor since he entered the university.

b. 自从他上大学以来就一直当班长。（Chinese perfective aspect without 了）

However, in most cases, the Chinese perfective aspects without 了 are incorrect or incomplete. For example (15):

(15)   a. ？修建的大楼今天完成。

b. 修建的大楼今天完成了。

(15a) makes people have a feeling of not finishing and it is rather an imperative sentence than a perfective aspect. Besides, in negative sentences of Chinese perfectives, 了 is usually not used. It is correct to add 没(有) only while the corresponding parts in negative English perfectives have to use *have* like the positive ones, like example (16):

(16)   a. 昨天下了一场雨。

b. 昨天没有下雨。（to negate with "没有"，without "了" followed）

c. It **has rained** a lot this summer.
今年夏天下了很多雨。

d. It **has not rained** a lot this summer.（to negate with "has not"）
今年夏天没有下很多雨。

Secondly, although the meanings expressed by English and Chinese perfectives are almost the same, the two perfectives are not identical in using aspect. In another words, the English perfective can be expressed in other ways in Chinese and vice versa. We can make appropriate adaptations according to each language habit when translating. For instance, Chinese differentiate perfective aspect and realizing aspect with markers of V+了 and V+过, but the meanings of both the two aspects can be expressed by perfective aspects in English, like the example (17):

(17)   a. He has been to Beijing.

b. He has gone to Beijing.

c. 他去过北京。

d. 他去了北京。

Apparently, (17c) is the right translation of (17a) and (17d) is the right translation of (17b). Both English sentences of (17a) and (17b) use perfective aspect, and the differences of meanings are shown with different verbs. However, (17c) uses Chinese experiential aspect while (17d) uses Chinese perfective aspect.

There are not enough forms to express TENSE and ASPECT separately, so the two grammatical categories are expressed with same forms. They are marked by the verbs in same ways. Taking the perfective of *have done* as an example, if our minds focus on the time when the action happened, it expresses that the action happened before the reference moment, that is TENSE; if our minds focus on the process, it expresses that the action was finished before the reference moment, that is ASPECT. There is only grammatical category to express ASPECT but no one to express TENSE in Chinese. So, sometimes, if an English sentence intends to emphasize that an action happened in the past, it will use past simple directly while the corresponding Chinese translation will use perfect aspect. For example (18):

(18)   a. He lost two sons in the war.（English past simple）

  b. 在战争中他失去了两个孩子。（Chinese perfect aspect）

Finally, the adverbials of time appear with perfect aspects are almost the same in English and Chinese but there is one difference. The adverbial of time which indicates "past" can appear in Chinese perfectives. However, it can not be used in English perfective sentences. If it needs to be used, the sentence should be in past simple form, like example (19):

(19) a. It rained yesterday.

   b. 昨天下了一场雨。（"昨天"is used in perfective sentence）

VI. DISCUSSION

Based on the above comparative analysis, we can see that although the meanings expressed by English and Chinese perfect aspect are almost the same, their usages do not correspond with each other; as a kind of grammatical category, English and Chinese perfect aspects have typical usages and marginal usages respectively; both English and Chinese perfect aspects have fixed ways of expression, but the use of English perfect is obligatory, while Chinese can also use lexical means to express perfect aspect; besides, in perfective sentences, verbs with different semantic aspects can be used in English and Chinese.

Through the comparison of English and Chinese perfect aspects, we can see the similarities between the two languages and the particularities of each language. Aspect is rather a semantic concept with universality and it can be expressed in every language. However, when expressing the same meaning, different languages can employ different ways, using grammatical method or lexical method. Meanwhile, the meanings expressed by one grammatical category are not the same in different languages, which shows that the users of different languages have different ideas when observing and classifying the world.

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The Effect of Socio-affective Strategies on Students' Test Anxiety across Different Genders

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Abstract—In the school setting, anxiety is often experienced by students when the students are evaluated, such as when they are taking a test or giving a public performance. When test anxiety is harsh, it can have outstanding negative effects on a student's ability to carry on at an optimum level. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of socio-affective strategies on male and female high school students' test anxiety across different genders. The participants of the study were 100 EFL Iranian students, including 56 male and 44 female, aged 15-16. The students were selected randomly and divided into four groups. The experimental groups consisted of one male class and one female class. Likewise, the control groups included one male class and one female class. In experimental groups, the teacher used socio-affective strategies; however, in control groups, no socio-affective strategies were used. The results of the ANCOVA statistical analysis indicated that there is a significant difference between experimental and control groups in terms of level of anxiety. Another finding of the study revealed that the difference between test anxiety of male and female was significant. The results of this study might be of interest for practitioners, especially, material developers and teachers in terms of various input-oriented tasks enriched by socio-affective strategy-based tasks to increase learners' autonomy and lower their test anxiety.

Index Terms—socio-affective strategies, test anxiety, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Anxiety refers to an uncanny emotional condition in which one feels danger, loses power and experiences tension exposing an expected danger. Anxiety associated with foreign or second language learning and communication has long been in the focus of second language (L2) researchers (Ellis 1994). It has been investigated in the broader context of individual learner differences potentially responsible for differential success at language learning since the 1970s (Dörnyei, 2005). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) describe L2 anxiety as the perception experienced when a situation in which the individual is required to use the second language but he is not enough proficient. Thus, according to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), L2 anxiety is described as a situation-specific anxiety. As a result, *test anxiety* is an an uncomfortable emotional state in evaluation. Test Anxiety is a fear of not being successful in test situations and an uncanny feeling learners experience consciously or unconsciously in many situations (pp. 157-194). It is a kind of anxiety considering apprehension over academic evaluation resulting from a fear of not being successful (Horwitz & Young, 1991).

According to Dörnyei (2005), differential success is due to individual learner differences. Test anxiety came from fear of failure. It is thought that they have investigated the source of unsuccessfulness in the exam, but they have not presented a strategy to reduce test anxiety Horwitz and Young (1991). The purpose of the present study is to examine the role of socio-affective strategies used by teachers on learners' test anxiety across gender.

A. Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

There are many students who suffer from the day of the exam. They have studied well and they have been taught well but they are as well afraid of exam and they can't be successful as they expect themselves. A study by Horwitz and Young (1991) showed that test anxiety is a kind of anxiety considering apprehension over academic evaluation resulting from a fear of not being successful. Most learners study well and hard before they take an exam; they have confidence in what they have studied and what they have learned but they are afraid they can't take an exam as well as they expect themselves. The studies have revealed that the source of this test anxiety is due to the failure of not getting good marks. The problem is that why the learners are worried about not getting a good mark on the exam, although they have studied well and hard.

Ohata's study (2005) proved that most of the learners told that they were afraid of taking tests, because test-taking situations would have them be worried about the negative result of getting a bad mark. But there might be another source of this anxiety which makes the students fear getting a bad grade. Maybe the socio-affective strategies which the teachers apply in their classes are the source of this test anxiety.

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of socio-affective strategies, used by teachers in the class, on learners' test anxiety. The end of the study, as well, is to know whether the socio-affective strategies which teachers use in the classroom affect the learners' test anxiety and the researchers are to examine learners' test anxiety across genders.

B. Significance of and Justification for the Study

Learners of English as a foreign language are well aware of the fact that despite of the fact that they have studied well and hard, they have not got good grades thanks to test anxiety. Language anxiety is a specific complex of self-awareness, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning coming from the uniqueness of language learning process (Horwitz et al., 1986).

According to Chastain (1975), there was a negative correlation showing that greater successfulness was due to low test anxiety. As O'Malley and Chamot (1990) mentioned, by means of socio-affective strategies, language learners can lessen anxiety by utilizing some mental techniques and solve problems through teacher-student or peer interactions. Therefore, socio-affective strategies used by teachers, similarly, can be regarded as a useful strategy to accelerate students' interaction with the teacher in the classroom, which might lead to students' lowering of anxiety.

C. Research Question and Hypothesis

Young (1991) reported that studying long hours for a test made the students be worried about question types with which they had no exposure. Anxiety associated with foreign or second language learning and communication has long been in the focus of second language (L2) researchers. It has been investigated in the broader context of individual learner differences potentially responsible for differential success at language learning since the1970s (Dörnyei, 2005).

Moreover the assumption of the study is to examine whether the socio-affective strategies utilized by teachers in the classroom lead to learners' test anxiety or not. To this end, the two following research questions are asked:

1. Is there a difference between test anxiety of the learners exposing the socio-affective strategies and the test anxiety of those not exposing socio-affective strategies?

2. Is there a difference between test anxiety of male and female learners exposing the socio-affective strategies?

And the following hypotheses, accordingly, were formulated:

1. There is no difference between test anxiety of the learners exposing the socio-affective strategies and the test anxiety of those not exposing socio-affective strategies.

2. There is no difference between the test anxieties of male and female learners exposing the socio-affective strategies.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

According to Ellis (1994), Anxiety refers to an uncanny emotional condition in which one feels danger, loses power and experiences tension exposing an expected danger. It is generally categorized into three types: *Trait*, *state* and *situation- specific* anxiety. Trait anxiety refers to an aspect of personality. State anxiety deals with an uncomfortable emotional state that is experienced as a response to definite situation. Finally, situation-specific anxiety is concerned with apprehension resulting from specific situations and events. Language anxiety, as an effective parameter that interferes achievement in L2 (Gardner, 1985), is a separate complex of self-understandings, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning resulting from the uniqueness of language learning process (Horwitz et al.,1986).

A study by (Koralp, 2005) showed that EFL learners observed some English language learning anxiety on two anxiety level measures, being afraid of negative assessment and test anxiety, which were also positively correlated.

Vanin (2008) describes anxiety as when a student experiences extreme and uncontrollable worry about future and past happenings, overweening concern about performing pertinently and significant self-consciousness. Students with anxiety often have negative attitudes about their own ability to get along with stressful academic situations. They believe that they do not have the skills which are useful to adjust with a particular threat. Thus, they believe they monitor the situation or are losing their control over. Students who suffer from anxiety often misunderstood or boosted the importance of the situation.

Huberty (2009) claims that text anxiety overtime, tends to chip in more extensive underachievement. He describes the outcomes of severe test anxiety including lowered self-esteem, lessened effort, and loss of motivation for school tasks.

Silvestri (1986) reported that females have a greater likelihood of experiencing test anxiety. Some theorize that this is because society has different expectations for the genders. Many children are reared according to societal norms and mores that determine which roles are appropriate for which gender. Due to this biased upbringing, children perceive activities to be either masculine or feminine in nature. Excelling in an area that is not gender-appropriate often leads to punishment (Silvestri, 1986). This early conditioning encodes certain gender-specific behaviors and activities, as well as gender-specific expectations. Generally, males are expected to achieve in math, science, and technology, whereas females are reared to be interested in the arts (Silvestri, 1986). There has been some research to support the assertion that females are more test anxious with regard to math studies and have lower levels of test anxiety with regard to verbal exams than their male counterparts (Benson & Bandalos, 1989; Dew & Galassi, 1983; Meece, Eccles, &

Wigfield, 1990; Richardson & Suinn, 1972; Rouxel, 2000; Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996); however, in some other researches, these differences have been nonsignificant and slight (Hyde, J., Fennema, E., & Lamon, S. 1990; Pajares & Graham, 1999). It can be comfortably asserted that more research must be conducted to determine whether this is a result of gender-based differences in test anxiety or if the etiology is rooted in the different types of academic disciplines (Furst, Gershon, & Weingarten, 1985).

According to Stern (1975, p. 311), "the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques." All language learners use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom. Since language classroom is like a problem-solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks given by their instructors, learners' attempts to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required, that is, using language learning strategies is inescapable (Stern 1975).

Socio-affective strategies are the ones that are non academic in nature and deal with intriguing learning through setting up a level of empathy between the instructor and student. They consist of considering factors such as emotions and attitudes (Oxford, 1990). Socio-affective strategies strongly take into account the student's relation to society as a whole ranging from family to the global community. Tummala-Narra (2009) found that anxiety is experienced both by students and educators. To augment the effectiveness of learning, teachers are motivated to recognize anxiety-provoking situations and provide a helpful learning situation in order that the learners can devote their complete working memory resources to the learning tasks.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 100 EFL Iranian high school students, including 56 male and 44 female, aged 15-16. The students were selected randomly out of 627 students and divided into four groups. The experimental groups consisted of one male class and one female class. The control groups included one male class and one female class. In experimental groups, the teacher used socio-affective strategies; however, in control groups, no socio-affective strategies were used.

B. Instruments

The book the students were studying was pre-university English one (2005). The Test-Anxiety questionnaire designed by Suinn (1969) was given to students in order to investigate the students' test-anxiety. A pretest including 10 Reading Comprehension questions, one cloze test consisting of 5 items, 3 grammar questions and 8 vocabulary questions was given to students in order that the researchers could be sure of homogeneity of the groups.

C. Design

This study is a quasi experimental research with pre-test, post test and control group. Socioaffective strategies used by the teacher is the independent variable and students' level of test anxiety is the dependent variable. In this study, ANCOVA was used to investigate the effect of socio affective strategies used by the teacher on students' test anxiety.

D. Procedure

The subjects were classified into four classes. Two classes including one male and one female class were considered as experimental groups while the other two classes consisting of one male and one female class were regarded as control groups. The subjects had English classes twice a week. Each session took 80 minutes.

The first session, a test anxiety questionnaire was given to the learners so as to be sure of their test anxiety level. The researchers wanted to know whether the control and experimental groups are at the same level or not. The second session, the teacher says hello to the students. He talks to them warmly, asks them if they are ready, happy, fine. Then the teacher answers the students' questions smoothly, explains the areas of difficulty on which the students have some problems. He also speaks about the exams the students are going to take during the course. He explains the role of the exams, the effects of the exams on the achievements of the students and very useful feedbacks which students will get from the exams. He finally explains the very important function of exams for language learning purposes. The teacher can see confidence, happiness, and relaxation on the students' face. The teacher sometimes lowers or raises his voice and respects the students' opinion. One of the students wants to comment on the exams, the teacher lets the student express what she is going to tell.

Then the teacher uses positive self-talk and encourages students to use the positive self-talk. An example of a positive self-talk is:
- I know that with hard work, I will pass the exam.
- I am prepared for this test and will do my best.
- I feel good about myself and my abilities.
- I am not going to worry about the difficult points. I'm going to use all my test time and check for careless errors. Even if I don't get the grade I want on this test, 'it is not the end of the world'.

The teacher not only encourages the learners to use the above self-talks, but he also tries to help them not to use the negative self-talks at all. Whenever any student says, "I am too weak in English to pass the exam." The teacher tries to help him/her to be aware of his/her own ability. The teacher attempts to tell him/her "you can pass it; you are progressing well; I know you can prepare yourself for the exam well."

Sometime later the teacher gives the learners some samples to do together and cooperate with each other in doing the exercises. Having done the exercises together, the teacher tells them "these exercises are like the exam questions. How easy you can do them; on the exam you can solve problems very easily without the help from anyone." Finally the teacher checks their group work and write one hopeful sentence on their papers. Everyone is happy at the end of the class. The teacher assigns homework for the next session. Some more socio-affective strategies used by the teacher include the following:
  - Encouraging students to share their anxiety with the group members and the teacher
  - Using soft tone of voice and smile
  - Encouraging positive thinking to increase students' self confidence
  - Letting students know about their progresses
  - Not criticizing students for their mistakes
  - Using humor and creating cheerful atmosphere

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Having collected data, ANCOVA was used in order to find out if socio-affective strategies have any effects on test anxiety of learners. Having administered the pre-test of anxiety, the following results were obtained (Figure 1):
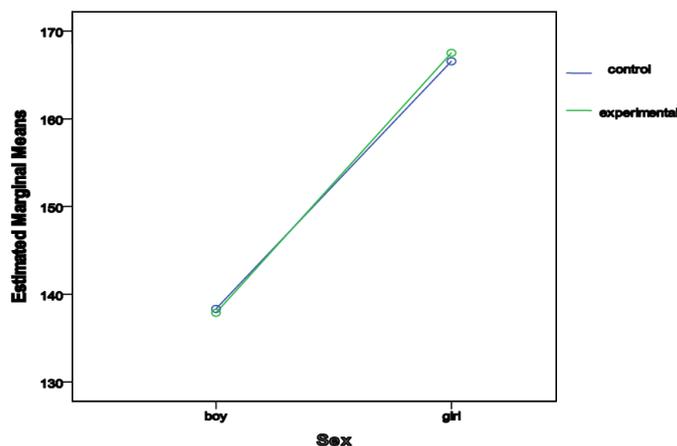
Figure 1   Test Anxiety before exposing Socio-Affective strategy in pre-test

As depicted in Figure 1, there is no difference between female control and experimental groups in terms of test anxiety in pre-test. There is also no difference between male control and experimental groups in terms of test anxiety in pre-test. However, there was a difference between male and female's test anxiety before the instruction.

Table I shows the analysis of the results obtained from the Pre-Test and Post-Test. (Table I):

TABLE I
TEST ANXIETY AFTER EXPOSING STUDENTS TO SOCIO-AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES IN POST-TEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	84662.230[a]	4	21165.557	101.596	.000
Pre-test of Test Anxiety	30778.766	1	30778.766	147.740	.000
Gender	378.683	1	378.683	1.818	.181
Post-test of Test Anxiety	44934.629	1	44934.629	215.688	.000
Gender * SAS	5896.120	1	5896.120	28.302	.000
Error	19374.801	93	208.331		

TABLE I I
THE EFFECT OF SOCIO-AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES ON TEST ANXIETY OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS (SAS)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-test of Test Anxiety	44934.629	1	44934.629	215.688	.000

Table II shows that integrating socio-affective strategies in the classroom reduces the amount of anxiety which learners have when they face the exams.

The other important case which the results tell us is that the difference between test anxiety of male and female was significant (p-value < 0.00). That is to say, there is a relationship between gender and test anxiety. The results show that

socio-affective strategies are gender-based. It means that the test anxiety of one group, female, has been reduced more than the male one (Table IV).

TABLE IV
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND TEST ANXIETY OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS (SAS)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender * SAS	5896.120	1	5896.120	28.302	.000

V. DISCUSSION

Comparing the results among groups showed that socioaffective strategies used by the teacher resulted in decreasing students' test anxiety on the exam. This finding supports the results of Tummala-Narra (2009) who concluded that reducing test anxiety of the students resulted in increasing the learning achievement and effectiveness of the learning process. It also supports a study related to anxiety level of Turkish EFL learners done by Dalkilic (2001) emphasized the relationship between anxiety and achievement. In the study, test anxiety was not at the center of the study, but a parameter which influenced language anxiety.

Students' anxiety can be reduced greatly if instructors have a relaxed and positive error-correction attitude (Young 1999). Teachers' use of affective strategies such as humor, friendly relationship, supportive, and relaxed classroom atmosphere that encourage risk-taking are effective in decreasing foreign language anxiety and facilitating learning. Findings support the view that classroom teaching is a relational endeavor and experienced teachers emphasize the importance of warm socio-emotional atmosphere of the class (Wette 2010). It also supports Ohata (2005) who concluded that the test anxiety of students were lowered by the use of socio-affective strategies.

Comparing the mean of test anxiety scores between two experimental groups of male and female students shows that Female students have the highest test anxiety level. In addition, the test anxiety of female groups have decreased far more than that of male groups exposing to socioaffective strategies. Females reported significantly higher levels of test anxiety than males. This is consistent with the previous researches on gender effects on test anxiety (Mousavi & Haghshenas & Alishahi, 2008; Lashkaripour, 2006).

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The Adjective Frequency in Advertising English Slogans

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Abstract—**In the modern world, every seller has got used to making full use of advertisement to promote their purchases, and advertising has become an important part in human life. However, because the advertising time is limited and every minute is measured by money, how to make the advertisement persuasive but concise is the big problem confronted by advertisers. Therefore, the advertising slogan becomes a powerful weapon. The process of making an advertising slogan is not only making a carrier of information, but should also taking the local culture, the advertising effects and the lexical meaning into consideration. Through the statistic of words frequency about 100 English advertising slogans, the present authors work out the top 8 adjectives. They are: good, beautiful, real, better, best, great, perfect and pure. Finally, the authors analyze the reason from the angle of lexical meaning, the advertising effects and the human civilization.**

Index Terms—**English advertising slogans, adjective, word frequency, human civilization**

I. INTRODUCTION

Advertising is with us all the time: whenever we open a newspaper or a magazine, or turn on the TV, or look at the board in subway stations or on buildings, we are confronted with advertisements. Most of these will be of the type that Leech (1966) describes as "commercial consumer advertising". This is indeed the most frequent type, which affects us most deeply.

Each year, the volume of expenditure on advertising reaches 155 billion dollars worldwide. Samuel Hopkins Adams, a renowned expert on advertising, warned nearly a century ago in 1909, "There is no hour of waking life in which we are not besought, incited, or commanded to buy something of somebody." Everyone living and working in the modern world is under the influence of advertising. Advertising exists in every nook and corner of human society and it touches every aspect of human lives. Wherever we human get, there is advertising.

Crystal's study (1997) showed that the most frequently used 20 adjectives in advertising slogans are: *new, crisp, good/better/best, fine, free, big, fresh, great, delicious, real, full, sure, easy, bright, clean, extra, safe, special.*

Advertising is business of words. 50 to 75 percent of selling power of advertising lies in the words of advertising.

Abundant and profound studies have been conducted on the lexical features of English advertising: language addressing to different sexes and social classes by Vestergaard, T. & K. Schrderoder (1985), verbs in English, stylistic features of English advertising and lexical features in English advertising and linguistic features of advertisement slogan by Zhao (2005). Several researchers have published their founding in the field of comparative study of English and Chinese advertising.

Statistics of word frequency is a kind of method based on lexical analysis. It adopts the way of working out the word frequency in a certain language material, then discussing the results to depict some lexical rules. At first, this method is only used to determine the wording of a certain language. However, after several years, it is applied to the field of calculating the basic terms of a subject, describing the style of authors, finding a relationship among the chosen subjects and so on. And in the field of information science, the statistic of word frequency has been drawing more and more attention and now it has become a new approach to information analysis and information retrieval.

Many researchers have studied it from different angles. However, it is rare to look into advertisement from the study of adjective frequency in advertising slogans. The present authors try to find out the top 8 adjectives in English advertising slogans and analyze the inner reasons for that.

II. ADVERTISING

A. Definition of Advertising

Although we are very familiar with the concept of advertising because we see advertisements or hear commercials all the time, it is still hard for the scholars to define it. The original meaning of "advertisement" was "news" and "to advertise" meant "to take note" or "to consider". After the 15th century, it developed into"to all the attention of another to something. In the 16th century, it was "to give notice of anything" or "to make generally known". It was not until the

18th century that the advertising became a pure commercial activity. In 1905, John E. Kennedy, described adverting as "selling in print".

And according to Dunn, a well- known American advertising expert, advertising is "any paid form of non-personal communication through various mass media by business firms, non profit organizations, and individuals who are in some way identified in the messages and who hope to inform or persuade members of a particular audience.

Whatever the definition is, advertising is to inform, remind and persuade consumers. It is a basic form of communication.

B.   Functions of Advertising

Advertising performs a variety of functions for any business with a product or service to sell. One of the most basic functions of advertising is to identify products and differentiate them from others. Another is called informational function. Advertising is used to communicate information about the product or service advertised, to inform, report, and describe the features and its location of sale. Directive function is typical of advertising. Language, pictures, or other devices are employed to influence the audience's action, emotions, beliefs and attitudes, and to persuade, advise, recommend and induce consumers to try new products and to suggest reuse.

In one word, advertising plays an increasing important role in today's world. Without it, the products or services cannot flow from the distributors or sellers to the consumers or users. And buyers would not know about or remember products or services, and the modern industrial world would collapse.

There is no doubt that the ultimate aim of advertising is to sell the commodity or increase the sale. To be more specific, AIDCA formula is worth discussing.

A stands for *Attention*: to attract attention. When a product comes on the market, the advertising goal may be to get people to notice it.

I stands for *Interest*: to arouse interest. Once the reader's attention has been caught, the advertisement should also hold his attention and convince him that the subject of the advertisement is of interest to him.

D stands for *Desire*: to stimulate desire. The advertisement has to convince the reader that the commodity or service will satisfy some need or create a need which he has not felt before.

C stands for *Conviction*: to create conviction. The customer is convinced that the particular brand advertised is superior to other similar brands.

A stands for *Action*: to get action. The advertisement may argue the customer to try or buy what is advertised directly or indirectly.

This formula plays an incredible effect on every aspect of advertising including its structure and language. In other words, the verbal message, the visual and audio elements of advertisement all aim to achieve these objects.

C.   Definition of Advertising Slogan

A slogan is a short phrase in part used to help form an image, identity, or position for a band or an organization and is established by repeating the phrase in a firm's advertisement and other public communication as well as through sales people, event promotions, and rocket launches. Similarly, Leech (1966) noted that slogan is short, laconic phrase that a company uses it over and over in its advertisement. It is especially useful to reinforce the product identity. A slogan can prove to be more powerful than a logo. People can remember and recite the advertisement slogan while they are unlikely to doodle over the logo. It is more important for the advertisement slogan to "clearly state what the advertisement is about than to be clever, but if the slogan can accomplish both, all the better" (Jefkins, 1985).

Slogans are often treated as trademarks in many countries. The use of the symbol is merely assertion of advertisers that they are treating the line as a trademark, though it does not assure any legal right. For legal protection, the line must be registered with the appropriate government trademark office, which then confers the right to use the registered symbol, and then they get the full protection of the law against poaching.

D.   The Criteria of Advertising Slogan

As the most important part in the advertisement, the advertising slogan should attract the consumer's attention as soon and long as possible. Therefore, an advertising slogan should obey the following rules: attentive value, memorability and readability and selling power.

Attentive Value

The language of advertisement slogans must be a language of immediate impact and rapid persuasion. It must bring the advertised product into attention, focus on its quality and service in the most attractive way, and clearly outline the reason for buying it and leave a memorable impression on what has been said about the product. So the important effect of the advertisement slogan language is what is referred to as "attentive value".

Memorability and Readability

An advertisement slogan has to make a lasting, longer impression on the audiences, if it is to affect the audiences' buying behavior. So it has to make them remember it either consciously or unconsciously. Memorabilia has to do with the ability the line has to be recalled unaided. A lot of this is based on the brand heritage and how much the line has been used over the years, that is to say, the big idea should be told in the advertisement slogan. The more the slogan resonates with the big idea, the more memorable it will be.

Memorability is much dependence on readability. Readability puts much emphasis on the simple, colloquial style and familiar vocabulary so as to make the message easy to read and grasp, while the phonological regularities make the message easy to remember, contributing significantly to memorability.

Selling Power

Anyone in business must consider the force of slogan, either because he uses it himself or his competitors use it. An ordinary consumer buys what he is influenced directly or indirectly, consciously or unconsciously. All of these effects contributed together can be summarized as the final criterion of the advertising slogan—selling power. It concerns about the questions how human sells products and service. One basic way of increasing the selling power is to make a product appear unique.

III.   ADJECTIVE FREQUENCY IN ENGLISH ADVERTISING

A.   Subjects

Advertising slogans always present the most major information about goods. And in the advertising slogans, adjectives can show the buyers' feelings when they use the products or enjoy the services. Therefore, adjectives can give consumers good images which will cause them to buy the products or services. Is Crystal's study result on adjectives in advertising slogans still available today? That is the question we should answer. So the present author makes the adjectives in English advertising slogans as the research subject. Then the first step is to collect 100 suitable English advertisement slogans. The chosen slogans should obey the following rules:

1) Slogans are still available after the year of 2000.

2) Slogans are used in Western countries.

3) Each slogan uses at least one adjective.

4) The range of slogans should cover every field, like clothing (12), beauty (4), beverage (13), food (10), households (10).

In order to find the appropriate slogans, the present author should refer to a great number of advertising magazines like *International Advertisement* and also search on the internet. Still, some are quoted from certain books.

B.   Methodology

The method the present author adopts to study the subject is called Content Analysis which is a methodology in the social science for studying the content of communication. Barbbie (1990:89) defines it as "the study of recorded human communications, such as books, websites, paintings and laws." It is most commonly used by researchers in the social science to analyze recorded transcripts of interviews with participants. Content analysis is also considered a scholarly methodology in the humanities by which texts are studied as to authorship, authenticity of meaning. This latter subject includes philology, hermeneutics and semiotics.

Having obtained the appropriate samples, the present author is going to work out the adjective frequency in the 100 advertising slogans for the next step. To avoid unnecessary troubles, the authors count the statistic by hand. Firstly, identify the adjectives by the form. Then, list all the adjectives in the slogans. Finally, figure out the word frequency of every adjective.

C.   Result

TABLE 1.
THE ADJECTIVES WHICH ARE USED MORE THAN TWICE.

Adjective	good	beautiful	real	better
Word frequency	15	8	7	6
Adjective	best	great	perfect	pure
Word frequency	4	4	3	3

TABLE 2.
THE ADJECTIVES WHICH ARE USED TWICE.

Adjective	bigger/biggest	clean	colorful	easy/easier
Word frequency	1/1	2	2	1/1
Adjective	fastest	favourite	fresh/fresher	long
Word frequency	2	1/1	2	2
Adjective	new	simple	small	smart
Word frequency	2	2	2	2
Adjective	smooth	whole		
Word frequency	2	2		

The adjectives which are used only once are: absolute, addictive, advanced, balanced, breezy, comfortable, conditioned, dedicate, defined, delicious, enduring, elegant, fair, fine, free, friendly, forever, glad, hard, harsh, healthy, higher, impossible, local, low, nice, possible, precious, relentless, safe, successful, sustainable, timeless, ultimate.

IV.   DISCUSSION

A.   Lexical Meaning

Every adjective has its own meaning and has several specific nouns it can modify. When you want to use an adjective, the first thing you should do is to make sure its meaning is proper for the noun. In the advertising slogans, this point is particularly critical because advertisement is performed in pubic, it must use right adjectives to make good advertising effect come true. In this chapter, we will discuss the top 8 adjectives from their lexical meanings.

Looking up these adjectives in Oxford Illustrated English-Chinese Dictionary, the present author found their lexical meanings.

Good

The basic meaning of *good* is *having the right or desired qualities; adequate, and (of a thing) reliable, efficient.* This makes *good* proper to embellish nouns which have high level of fashion or style or quality or type of a product. Besides the basic meaning, there are still many adjectives used to define the adjective, like *enjoyable, agreeable, considerable, beneficial, valid, sound, right,* and *proper.* These multiple definitions determine that *good* can modify a variety of nouns, such as, *look*, *color*, and *size*; it can also collocate with abstract nouns: *fashion, ideas, trend,* even many nouns which don't denote concrete products, such as *flavor, gravy.* It is no wonder that *good* is used most frequently in advertising slogans.

Example 1

See how good they feel.   (Van Dal, women's shoes)

Example 2

It looks good, it tastes good, and by golly it does you good.   (Mackeson Beer)

In Example 1, *good* describes the feeling when you put on the shoes of Van Dal. The most interesting is Example 2, three *good*s are used to portray different subjects: the subject of the first *good* is about feeling, the second *good* is about taste, and the last is about the general healthy.

Beautiful

There are three definitions for *beautiful* in the dictionary: delighting the aesthetic senses, pleasant and enjoyable, excellent. *Beautiful* is an adjective used to describe things as possessing beauty. This implies it can be used to describe beauty, and things about beauty can modify itself as *beautiful*. This phenomenon relates to pragmatic rules. Pragmatics encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicate, and focuses on interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, and linguistics. When people want to use the word *beautiful*, they should first make sure the noun is about aesthetic.

Example 3

Beautiful. Colorful. You.   (Bonne Bell brand, makeup for eyes, lips, face)

Example 4

It's going to be a beautiful evening.   (Bella Sera, Italian table wine)

In Example 3, the noun which "beautiful" modifies is the effect after using the makeup. Besides the usage in cosmetics advertisements, as an adjective of "beauty", "beautiful" can also be used to modify nouns like evening, smiles etc. See Example 4, it is *a beautiful evening.*

Real

"Real" has two definitions: "actually existing or occurring", "genuine; rightly so called". This will make people think in two ways: first, the noun which *real* embellishes should exist in reality; second, it must be the genuine thing, and not a faux thing. By using this adjective, the advertiser is telling his goods from others: their goods are not in virtual and not the faux ones.

Example 5

Real ice creamier.   (Tip Top Ice Cream Company, New Zealand)

Example 6

Real health. Real beauty.   (Glow, Canadian Beauty and Health magazine)

In the two examples, the word *real* can give consumers strong desire to purchase, for the goods are genuine, which won't make you feel cheated.

Better

As the comparative form of *good, better* means "*of a more excellent or outstanding or desirable kind*". Generally, when using *good*, people are in a situation that they are not satisfied with what they have already done, so they want to step further. And when listeners hear this word, they will praise their spirit. So the word *better* is very helpful for the advertisers who want to attract buyers with an enterprising spirit.

Example 7

Make it better.   (Timberland boots)

Example 8

Mudd. Better when it's on you.   (Mudd jeans, American youth brand)

In Example 7, the concise slogan shows the belief of the company: they want to make the boots better to give customers more comfort. And in Example 8, *better* tells that the jeans are more suitable for you than other jeans brands.

Best/Great/Perfect

Best is the superlative degree of g*ood*. It means *of the most excellent or outstanding or desirable kind. Great* means

preeminent; worthy or most worthy of consideration; grand, imposing. Perfect means *complete, not deficient; faultless.* These three adjectives convey the supreme quality of goods or product.

Example 9
The best part of the day.   (Evening Herald tabloid newspaper)
Example 10
The best a man can get.   (Gillette)
Example 11
Great seafood. Not a lot of clams. (ROCKFISH Seafood Grill Restaurant, Dallas, Texas)
Example 12
For great American food… Think daily.   (Daily Grill restaurant, California)
Example 13
Perfect for when friends drop in.   (Houghton Australian Wines)
Example 14
The perfect moment between past and future.   (Rochas watches, France)

Like the word *good*, these three adjectives can also be used to modify almost every kind of goods or services. And when customers see these adjectives which show the highest level of quality, they will pay attention to them.

Pure

The definition for *pure* is *unmixed, unadulterated.* This definition implies the goods are original and not mixed up with dirt.

Example 15
Pure. Fresh. Clean.   (Colgate Oxygen toothpaste)
Example 16
Pure life.   (Nestle Natural Spring Water)

In Example 15, pure shows the toothpaste will make your oral cavity only have fresh air without any peculiar smell. And in Example 16, the advertisers get the effect of the water to a level of life: if you drink Nestle Natural Spring Water, you will find your life will become pure.

At the meanwhile, the above 8 adjectives belong to the same category according to the classification of lexicology. The English vocabulary consists of different kinds of words, which may be classified by different criteria. The classification made by levels of usage is: common words, technical or special words, literary words, colloquial words, and slang words. All the top 8 adjectives are common words. And some of them can even be regarded as colloquial words. For example, *good, great, perfect* are adjectives which can be heard to value matters all the time. The advantage of using these common adjectives is that they are so familiar to every person, so when people see them, these adjectives are easy for people to obtain enough information at the very sight without looking up them in a dictionary which makes buyers annoyed.

B. Advertising Effect

The main idea of advertising is to sell a product to as many as possible. The most effective advertising slogan is the one which give useful information about goods or service and can attract buyers at the very sight. To do so, many adjectives which can show the audiences the outstanding qualities are used to describe the advertised product and service. The author will analyze the top 8 adjectives from the aspect of achieving advertising effect one by one.

Good

In the modern world, all the markets are full of various kinds of products and services. What the consumer worry about is not where and how to buy these common goods which happened in the days lack of material but how to collect proper goods in the sea of merchandises. Once the advertisers realize this point, they start to use the adjectives which show a high quality. Combined with lexical meaning we have known about *good*, it becomes their favorite adjective. By using *good*, the advertisers tell that: our products are good ones compared with others. And the buyers would also pay attention to these slogans with *good* contained.

Example 17
The good stuff.   (Tequila Corazon de Agave)
Example 18
Good food, good life.   (Nestle Food Company)

Beautiful

As the basic needs of human being are satisfied, they start to seek after beauty. The pursuit of beauty is becoming more and more important for people. In the field of cosmetics, the most attractive function is that they can make you beautiful and other products or service which can give buyers scenes of beauty also have the similar function. Therefore, in order to sell products or service, the advertisers should use an adjective which can give buyers a good image about beauty. Considering the adjective should instruct the function of goods fully and be easy to accept, the common word *beautiful* becomes a good choice.

Example 19
Roll that beautiful bean footage.   (Bush Beans)
Example 20

For life's most beautiful moments.   (Bucherer, leading retailer for watches and jewelry in Switzerland)

Real

With the development of the society, a variety of products or services come out and among them, there is a mingling of good and evil, which make consumers hard to discriminate. Clever advertisers use advertisements to sell product, while cleverer advertisers use it to make their goods unique. The latter ones know customer's need about real goods, so they use *real* to satisfy them and claim the belief that they only make real products and faux ones never. This action is killing two birds with only one stone, which attract customs and also show the faith of the company – this will last the company forever.

Example 21

A real company in a virtual world.   (Amazon.com)

Example 22

Tastes like real milk because it is.   (Devondale milk, Australia)

Better

In the analysis of *good*, we see most advertisers prefer to use *good* to depict the high quality of product or service. And other advertisers who want to make a difference think of the word *better*. Better is the comparison form of *good*. It can achieve good advertising effect in two ways: first, better shows a higher level of goods. As a comparison form, it has the function to attract the buyers who want to have products of higher quality. Second, it also can show the company's attitude: good is not enough, and we are trying our best to make things better, this attitude will bring many customers who highly praise it.

Example 23

A better way forward.   (Michelin tires brand)

Example 24

Better Ingredients. Better Pizza.   (Papa John's pizza)

Best/Great/Perfect

These three words have one effect in common: they can all be used to describe goods or services of the highest quality. By using these three words, the advertisers show their company's standing in their business: they are No.1 in every aspect. And the customers' desire for perfection also encourages them to try this product or service, which makes advertising slogans effective.

Example 25

The best part of waking up is Folger's in your cup!   (Folgers Coffee)

Example 26

Great ideas for small rooms.   (Ikea)

Example 27

The perfect moment between past and future.   (Rochas watches, France)

Pure

In the market, some products which were once original are becoming weaker and weaker in function day by day. And some sellers lust to make biggest benefit with lowest cost make them to mix their product with other unrelated material. Therefore, more and more clients want complete goods. Responding to the action, advertisers blend the belief of pure goods into their advertisements. In these advertisements, pure may not be used to describe the goods directly, but the feeling it brings about is original and complete.

Example 28

Pure inspiration.   (Ambi Pur, air freshening products for home and car)

C.   Human Civilization

Man have experienced survival development in primitive and agricultural civilizations, increscent development in industrial civilization and sustained development in the early stage of industrial civilization. Industrial civilization is the developing system in which we human beings master nature. With the development of technology and social productive forces, economy and education expand unprecedentedly. Answering for the call of economy, the sellers can't be satisfied with the pure "selling", therefore, a new kind of "selling" comes out, and that is advertisement.

Advertisement is the advanced outcome of human civilization, and as the core of advertisement, the advertising slogan also plays as a reflector of human civilization.

Firstly, the appearance of advertising slogan tells the progress of human history. Then the changes in the content of slogan show the speedy development of human society. Crying out for their own goods is the main way the sellers use many years ago, however, so many advertisement companies burst out to make advertising slogans for their "consumers" these years. What's more, if the society is static and human civilization comes to a standstill, how can this word frequency come out?

Secondly, compared with the study of Crystal (1997) on adjective frequency in advertising slogans, the present author's result is different. Can't we say the difference show the progress of human civilization?

The most important is the top 8 in the list of word frequency also give us a clear track of human history. When exchange happens, people only want to get their goods to meet their necessity like food and tools. If their goods can't get exchanged, they can wait until another one, so advertisements don't appear. Later, in the early stage of industrial

civilization, people have extra money to make their desire meet, so they inquire about where to buy these things, therefore, in order to answer their questions, sellers begin to cry out for their goods. During the prosperous industrial age, people are not restricted in the general goods, and they want to get the goods of high quality and good level. To attract more consumers, advertisers use almost every adjective which can give a good meaning in the dictionary to make advertisement, and the slogan is paid much attention, too. With the development of society, the needs of human being become various and changes in advertising slogans witness them. That's to say, the top 8 adjectives mirror the change in needs of human beings which is determined by human civilization. From the usage of comparative degree slogan, we can see the renewable idea of human beings. They are not only satisfied by what good things they have had, they want more, they want better and best, so in advertising slogans, *better, best, perfect, great* are used frequently. To claim their goods and service are not faux, advertisers use *real* and pure to attract buyers who can't make a choice between real and faux goods. In respond to the pursuit of beauty of people, more and more advertisers add *beautiful* into their advertisements. Only because these adjectives are match for the progress of human, they are used frequently.

On the other hand, advertising slogans offers people a cornucopia of products and promises, and the frequent use of adjectives in slogans makes buyers dazzled. At the meanwhile, a great variety of choices in products and services stem from the increasing factories and firms. For the purpose of keeping most consumers and defeating other competitors, the sellers should first prove their products and service or help their goods to make their colorful adjective slogans come true. This is in turn making much effort on the road of human history. To sum up, the adjectives in advertising slogans are impetuses to human civilization.

V. CONCLUSION

After the statistics of adjective frequency in 100 advertising slogans, we find the top 8 adjectives are: *good, beautiful, real, better, best, great, perfect,* and *pure*. Then we can answer the question "Is Crystal's result still available today?" No, the adjective frequency in advertising slogans has changed during the 15 years.

After the analysis of the result of word frequency, we can undoubtedly identify the relationship among human civilization, advertising effect, lexicology and word frequency. No matter what the advertising slogans are, the primary goal is to sell products. And in order to sell products, obeying the advertising rules to make advertising effects realized is very important. In this process, lexicology plays a very important role in choosing proper adjectives. So our conclusion is: the lexicology is the best instrument, the advertising effect is the supreme aim and the human civilization is the grand background.

Lexicology is the best instrument. Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, inquiring into the origins and meanings of words. English Lexicology aims at investigating and studying the morphological structures of English words and word equivalents, their semantic structures, relations, historical development, formation, and usages. The experience of many successful advertisers suggests us, if their advertisements obey the rules stated in lexicology, there is a real risk that we fail to recall it when the time comes to make choice in the market place. The frequently used adjectives in advertising slogans meet the requirement well.

Advertising effect is the supreme aim. Advertising is a social activity which communicates some messages to a group of people. People learn about the products that are available to them, and they learn how they can better their lives. But the advertising is much more than communication of information. It persuades people to take actions. That's to say, advertising motivates them to buy. With this purpose, advertisers do their best to make buyers lured. Using concise slogans becomes the best way. The adjectives which describe the products vividly are the best weapons. However, there are some adjectives which have best persuasive power. They are the ones in the list of word frequency.

The primary goal of all advertisers is to increase sales. This is only achieved when customers are aware and convinced to act positively towards the products or service. It is of no use to have an excellent product or provide an excellent service but lack the tact to communicate about their existence and benefits.

Human civilization is the grand background. If we human beings don't march on the road of human history, we will not exchange goods at all; If we human beings don't have the ability to buy necessity goods, we will not cry out for selling them at all; If we human beings don't have a big step on the economy, we will not advertise for product at all; If we human beings don't have the capacity of competition, we will not witness the scene of various adjectives used in slogans, and there will be no word frequency at all.

Under the background of prosperous human civilization, the creative advertisers should obey the useful information that lexicology teaches, or the use of adjectives needs much caution. The long and uncommon adjectives will increase the length of advertisement slogans and reduce the force to grab audience's attention. The short, common and colloquial words are the real magicians to achieve advertising effect.

APPENDIX

1. Impossible is nothing.   (Adidas)
2. Paula Lishman. Timeless, elegant, sustainable.   (Paula Lishman garments, an original knit fur)
3. For successful living.   (Diesel jeans)
4. Mudd. Better when it's on you.   (Mudd jeans, American youth brand)

5. It's hard to be nice if you don't feel comfortable. (Dockers Jeans)
6. Make it better. (Timberland boots)
7. See how good they feel. (Van Dal, women's shoes)
8. Worn by the world's most precious feet. (Startrite children's shoes)
9. Enduring comfort. (Bridgedale socks)
10. As delicate as a caress. (Liz underwear brand for women)
11. Real solutions for today's women. (Playtex lingerie brand (bras, panties and shapewear))
12. A better way forward. (Michelin tires brand)
13. The ultimate driving experience. (BMW automobiles)
14. The relentless pursuit of perfection. (Lexus cars (a Division of Toyota Motor))
15. Beautiful. Colorful. You. (Bonne Bell brand, makeup for eyes, lips, face)
16. More defined. More conditioned. More beautiful lashes. (Estee Lauder / More Than mascara)
17. Easy breezy beautiful covergirl. (CoverGirl, line of products for face, lips, eyes and nails)
18. The most colourful name in cosmetics. (Barry M fashion cosmetics, UK)
19. The Beer so good it's Bad. (Bad Frog beer)
20. It looks good, it tastes good, and by golly it does you good. (Mackeson Beer)
21. So smooth. Good times last longer. (Gilbey's special dry gin)
22. A whole new slant on things. (Pisa, Nut Liqueur)
23. Life is harsh. Your tequila shouldn't be. (Sauza tequila brand)
24. The good stuff. (Tequila Corazon de Agave)
25. Talk is good when wine is fine! (Aspect Invest Vin, trademark of Moldavian wines)
26. Good things take time. (Redwood Creek, Californian wine)
27. Perfect for when friends drop in. (Houghton Australian Wines)
28. It's going to be a beautiful evening. (Bella Sera, Italian table wine)
29. Where do you do your best thinking? (IBM ThinkPad notebooks)
30. Advanced software made simple. (LANSA software company)
31. Bigger! Better! (WindMill, fast food)
32. Better Ingredients. Better Pizza. (Papa John's pizza)
33. Unbelievably delicious. (McVitie's Jaffa Cakes, chocolate covered biscuits)
34. Milk's favorite cookie. (Nabisco / Oreo sandwich cookies)
35. Share something good. (Tostitos crunchy chips brand)
36. Good food, good life. (Nestle Food Company)
37. Real ice creamier. (Tip Top Ice Cream Company, New Zealand)
38. Tastes like real milk because it is. (Devondale milk, Australia)
39. Healthy, beautiful smiles for life. (Crest brand, oral care products)
40. GoodNites mean good mornings. (Goodnites underpants: diapers for bedwetting kids)
41. Surprisingly smooth. (Wilkinson Sword / Quattro lady razors and blades)
42. Soft for our seasons. (Scotties Facial Tissue, Canada)
43. For a whole mouth clean. (Colgate 360° Toothbrush)
44. Pure. Fresh. Clean. (Colgate Oxygen toothpaste)
45. Winston tastes good like a cigarette should. (Winston brand)
46. The best part of the day. (Evening Herald tabloid newspaper, Dublin, Ireland)
47. It makes perfect. (The Sunday Post, Scottish newspaper)
48. The world's local bank. (HSBC)
49. Real health. Real beauty. (Glow, Canadian Beauty and Health magazine)
50. Pure inspiration. (Ambi Pur, air freshening products for home and car)
51. It's good to be home. (Air Wick air fresheners)
52. All day strong. All day long. Aleve drug brand, pain reliever / fever reducer)
53. Britain's favourite department store. (Debenhams stores, retailer for clothing, electrical, and furniture brands)
54. Always low price. Always. (Wal-Mart Stores)
55. Great seafood. Not a lot of clams. (ROCKFISH Seafood Grill Restaurant, Dallas, Texas)
56. For great American food… Think daily. (Daily Grill restaurant, California)
57. Food so good… it's addictive! (The Plum Tomato Brick Oven Pizza Restaurant, Connecticut)
58. Everything is easier on a Mac. (Apple Computer)
59. A diamond lasts forever. (De Bierres)
60. The best a man can get. (Gillette)
61. All the biggest stories. (Guardian)
62. We bring good things to life. (GE)
63. Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia. (eWikipedia)
64. A very good place to be. (Ramada Hotel)

65. Life is good.   (LG)
66. For life's most beautiful moments.   (Bucherer, leading retailer for watches and jewelry in Switzerland)
67. The perfect moment between past and future.   (Rochas watches, France)
68. A real company in a virtual world.   (Amazon.com)
69. Technically, everything is possible.   (Mitsubishi)
70. Discover new territory.   (Nikon D3)
71. Good to the last drop.   (Maxwell)
72. The best seat in the house.   (Jockey underwear)
73. Absolute cleanliness is Godliness!   (Dr. Bronner's magic soap)
74. You've got a good thing going.   (Kent Cigarettes)
75. Fly the friendly skies.   (United Airlines)
76. Fair and balanced.   (FOX News)
77. Seeing small business differently.   (SBC Communications)
78. Higher standards.   (Bank of America)
79. Like a good neighbor, State Farm is there.   (State Farm Insurance)
80. You're in good hands.   (Allstate Insurance)
81. Too good to hurry mints.   (Murray Mints)
82. The best part of waking up is Folger's in your cup!   (Folgers Coffee)
83. That was easy.   (Staples)
84. Always first.   (DHL)
85. Great ideas for small rooms.   (Ikea)
86. World's fastest auto focus.   (Olympus E3)
87. Extra strong tissues.   (Kleenex)
88. Pure life.   (Nestle Natural Spring Water)
89. The greatest tragedy is indifference.   (American Red Cross)
90. Smart. Very smart.   (Magnavox)
91. Making smoking 'safe' for smokers.   (Bonded Tobacco Co)
92. Roll that beautiful bean footage.   (Bush Beans)
93. Oh Fab, I'm glad they put real borax in you.   (Fab Detergrent)
94. Where good ideas grow on trees.   (International Paper Company)
95. Nothing beats a great pair of L'eggs.   (L'eggs)
96. Don't hate me because I'm beautiful.   (Pantene Shampoo)
97. It's so simple.   (Polaroid)
98. The fastest way to send money – worldwide.   (Western Union)
99. If it tasted any fresher it would still be on the tree.   (Tropicana Orange Juice)
100. Since 1868. And for as long as there are men.   (IWC watches)

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A Theory of Literary Structuralism (in Henry James)

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Abstract—**Structuralism provides innovative grounds for the analysis of prose literature. The role of the fiction reader, story in the service of language, and story no longer for representing the concrete reality but for manufacturing new, relational, and pluralistic realities in language spaces are some of the outcomes of literary structuralism. The present article intends to discuss the application of Henry James's theories of the novel for providing a grammar of narrative. For doing this, it also attempts to show that James's theories of novel testify to the literary structuralisms of Claude Levi_Struass, Roland Barthes, Tzvetan Todorov, and Jonathan Culler. The role of language in James, his innovative narrative modes like the use of "scenic method" and "unreliable narrator," and the highlighted role of the reader in his last style which renders it a space of critical interpretation by the professional elite make his fiction structurally analyzable. In addition, these structure-making features bear witness to what Barthes suggests "structural activity" of fiction should be based on. Some of these Barthesian formulas are: regarding the "text" as an open-ended site of signification which should consequently be handled differently from the "work," transferring the task of producing meaning from the author to the reader, and considering characters not as psychological entities but as "participants" in the formation of textual discourse. James's theories also testify to Todorov's theory of "absolute and absent cause" which he finds in the fiction of James and the outcome of which is the production of new frames of intelligibility. In addition, they give evidence to Culler's formula as to the production of meaning in novels, because reading James structurally is strategic for creating new realities in the space of language.**

Index Terms—**language, narrative, structuralism, James, Levi-Strauss, Barthes, Todorov**

I. INTRODUCTION

The present article intends to provide a discussion of literary structuralism in the light of Henry James's theory of the novel. In a broad sense, "structuralism" includes the post-structural studies of fiction also (versions of deconstructive studies in narrative, New-Historical studies, cultural studies, film studies, etc.). But in the present article it stands for the linguistic study of the fiction of James on the basis mainly of the 20th-century narratologies including those of Levi-Strauss, Barthes, Todorov, and Culler.

Standing in the midway between the English traditionally realistic fiction of the Victorian times and the modern unrealistic novel which is mainly psychological, the fiction of James puts more emphasis on language, point of view, characterization, and discourse. If the nineteenth-century English novel was realistically mimetic, which we read mainly for becoming better citizens, the present article reckons that the modern novel uses the sources of language to create structures where the sign plays freely and the reader finds occasion for practical criticism and interactive interpretation. Reading James structurally, we learn how to think about what we read, to interpret our readings, and to re-write them in our own perspectives.

Due to the existence of the following features in James's fiction, it can be meaningfully approached structurally. The first is that his real preoccupation as a novelist is not telling but is showing. This means that he is more interested in the how of storytelling—language, point of view, style—than in the what of it—events, narrative progression, and details of what happens. In addition, James's novels do not have a point either social or whatever. And his works are neither stories of characters and situations, nor are they sociological treatises in which we read about our duties to the other people. They are art, and James the artist is tirelessly interested in the formal properties of his work. If not for the complex knowledge about his international theme or the psychological enlightenment that he can give us, we can read James for the pleasure of his language and for his wit.

First of all, and very shortly, the roots of structuralism from the classical times to the rise of New Criticism will be discussed under "early structuralism." After that, it will be argued that the twentieth-century linguistics paved the way for different models of structural narrative studies. For doing this, narratological models of Levi-Strauss, Todorov, Barthes, and Culler will be described shortly. In these models, literature is often defined as a pure system of narrative language which structuralism claims can demystify. Then, it will be attempted to show how the theories of James testify to these models of narrative analysis.

II. DISCUSSION

A. Early Structuralism

The works of Saussure and Russian formalists of the early twentieth century grounded the structuralist thought in its modern application. From the eye of the formalists, words in poetry did not function as signifiers only, for they were signifieds also. Formalists defined literature as a functional system, as a set of devices whose value was determined by other devices which were played off against them (those of other genres, past styles, etc.). For these avant-grade structuralists, a literary work presupposed other works, genres, styles, and structures of meaning which go beyond the work itself. And they regarded literature a kind of langue of which each specific work was an instance of parole. The French structuralists of the 1960s and 1970s carried these linguistic analogies further.

But if "structuralism" can be used for a description of "structures" and their functioning also, it can perhaps be traced back to the time of Plato and Aristotle. For Plato, the quality of poetic imitation rendered it a servile and untruthful discourse both in content and structure which consequently deserved to be exiled from his commonwealth. Aristotelian "structuralism," however, lies in his emphasis on the logical and ethical form of poetry. As to the former, he believed a poem should have a beginning, a middle, and an ending which are logically interrelated to each other, so that the result be an organic whole. About the ethical form, the Greek rhetorician proposed that the tragic hero should be a man whose downfall is not the result of his vice or depravity but the outcome of his error or frailty. In this sense, Horace too can be considered a structuralist, for he suggested the application of "the sugar-coated-pill theory of poetry" (Hall, 1964, p. 15) for composing and teaching literature. For Longinus, the form of poetry was not very important, and sublimity was only the echo of a great soul. Yet, when he included "notable language" and "the proper construction of figures" (Hall, 1964, p 19) in his five fountains of poetical eloquence, he was, I think, structurally analyzing it.

The structuralism of the Renaissance literature rooted perhaps in the organization of a society which was well class-conscious, for it was, among other things, the tripartite dramatic poetry in which the English hierarchical society was dramatized, a society where tragedy was for the highest class, comedy for the middle classes, and farce for the lowest ones. And decorum, which was badly needed for literature, meant appropriateness of each genre to the class of society which it mirrored.

The emphasis the poet-critic Alexander Pope put on "Nature methodized" (Abrams, 1987, p. 1092), the dialogue the poet laureate John Dryden put in the mouth of his men in "An Essay of Dramatic Poesy" (1668) where Neander "speaking in the climactic position, defends the native tradition and the greatness of Shakespeare, Fletcher, and Jonson" (Abrams, 1987, p. 886), and the significance Dr. Samuel Johnson ascribed to the unity of action in Shakespearean drama signify the structuralist views in the literature of Neo-classical era.

The Romantic poet-critics rose against the Neo-classical poetic "rules" and "decorum," for they believed they would make the poems artificial. However, if one realizes the four salient elements which were at work in a poetic creation (poetry as the utterance of emotion, poetic spontaneity and freedom, the glorification of the commonplace in poetry, and poetry imbruing landscape with human life) of the Romantic period, one admits of structuralist inclinations in the literature of that period too.

When the turn comes to the Victorian times, to the time of Hippolyte Taine (1928-1983) for example, the seeds of literary structuralism are already germinated. Taine approached literature perhaps as scientifically as the method of a biologist approaching his specimen could be scientific. However, the poet-critic T. S. Eliot was no less scientific in his approach to literature than Taine and no less disinterested. He claimed that poetry changes tradition but the mind of the poet remains unchanged to tradition. To make this idea of poet's depersonalization clear enough, Eliot offers an analogy. The mind of poet is like a piece of platinum when introduced into a chamber containing the two gases of sulphur and carbon dioxide. Continuing his analogy, he says, "The two gases then form sulphurous acid, but the platinum itself remains unchanged. The mind of the poet is the platinum. The emotions and feelings are the gases" (Hall, 1964, p. 168).

In this way, "early structuralism" in the present article should be considered as different from 20th-century structuralism. By the first, it is meant the sum total of what would make the external form and organization of a literary work, as well as the interests and curiosities of the teachers and students of literature. In this sense, structure was perhaps mainly an external aspect of poetry rather than an internal feature of it. The questions about the genre or type of a certain poem, about its metrical patterns, and about its rhyme scheme were handled for structure.

Along with this trend, form and structure in a work of prose fiction were considered as the total effect of its setting, action, plot, characterization, etc. This kind of structure was closely connected to the external form of a work of verbal art, which would be regarded not as dynamic and innovative but as static and mechanical. It was, among other things, the ground on which a literary scholar would stand to dissect the work for theorizing about it, and a threshold through which the student of literature should pass to look at the work via its numerous windows.

But only after Jean Piaget (1896-1980) had defined "structure" as the observation of any arrangement of entities which embodies the ideas of wholeness, transformation, and self-regulation, the term got its 20th-century application. Structure as such does not appeal to what is beyond itself but appeals only to what is interior to it. In a language space, wholeness guarantees internal coherence, transformation promises the dynamism of a system which permanently renews itself, and self-regulation secures the validation of its transformational procedures.

B.   20th-century Linguistics vs. 19th-century Philology

The nineteenth-century philology was symbolic. Each word was received as the symbol of an external object, while between the object and its symbol there was a one-to-one correspondence. Philology was diachronic also, i.e., it used to focus on language changes over long spans of time. The philologists paid more attention to the comparative studies of

languages than they paid to the meaning of languages. And their researches seldom exceeded the etymology, grammar, and vocabulary of certain languages.

But the 20th-century linguistics is synchronic, ahistorical. Instead of focusing on etymological, lexical, and grammatical developments of certain languages through long time periods, it focuses on "studying a language at one particular time in its evolution and … how the language functions" (Bressler, 1993, 60). A sign here is like a coin with the two sides of signifier and signified. The uttered sound, which the written mark introduces, is the signifier, while its concept (meaning) is the signified. Between the signifier and the signified there is no natural link, but there is a link which is only conventional and arbitrary. In the objective world, a word does not represent a referent but a concept in our mind.

Saussure also isolated langue from parole. "The former is," Culler says, "a system, an institution, a set of interpersonal rules and norms, while the latter comprises the actual manifestations of the system in speech and writing" (Culler, 2002, p. 9). Langue is the structure or system of language which is in the mind of the people and in which all members of a language community share. But parole is the actual speech utterances of an individual language user. A member of a language community can generate countless examples of utterances, but all of these utterances are governed by the system of that language, by its langue.

The relation between the sign and its referent is neither given nor innate, but is arbitrary, relational, and conventional. This by-the-way correspondence between language and reality makes the structural linguist curious about the source of meaning in language, about the process of signification. Meaning is differential, not the result of a one-to-one correspondence between the word and its referent, but is the result of sign differences. Therefore, the structuralist language scholar should study, not the isolated entities of a language, but the whole interrelationships among these entities.

Saussure believed that in language and other communication systems like fashion, sport, and friendship meaning is generated through a system of signs. Borrowing their linguistic vocabulary and their theory and methods from Saussure, and from Charles Sanders Pierce to a lesser degree, structuralists believe that codes, signs, and rules govern all human social and cultural practices. In this way, it can be claimed that structuralists find meaning in the relationships among the various components of a system of communication.

C. New Criticism vs. 20th-century Structuralism

The school of New Criticism stands in the midway between the conventional approaches of literary criticism and the 20th-century structuralism, and it has many things in common with structuralism. For example, what Barthes calls the "death of the author," implies the lack of authorial control over the text in the act of reading which leads to the (complete) freedom of the reader which is, in turn, in concert with the autonomy of the literary text in New Criticism.

However, New Criticism seems divergent from structuralism in some other points. The former consider individual literary texts "as 'works', or as artfully constructed icons, or as distinct and separate objects" (Selden, 1989, p. 29). They take a work of fiction as an autonomous object, and the act of reading as ontological, because the reader focuses mainly on the internal elements of the object like its language, diction, paradox, irony, ambiguity, tension, and rhyme scheme. However, the sum total of these features is the structure of the work about which the critic is then able to pass judgment. Each time he reads a text, he can produce a meaning which is different from that which the author had in mind. New Critics assert that in a reading process neither the author is central nor the reader, but it is "the text and the text alone" (Bressler, 1993, 33) that is of prime importance.

But in the 20th-century structuralism the study of languge is not historical but is ahistorical, for Saussure used to study language not for its developments through time but for its internal structure in a given time. Language is considered as a social system that is coherent and orderly, and that can be understood as a whole. In addition, meaning is no inherent or natural feature of language, and it is not an absolute entity. On the contrary, it is, in the never-ending sequence of signifiers, the result of the juxtaposition of the signifiers. This means that meaning, which is the outcome of sign differences, is structural, relational, and subject to change.

Before going any further in the discussion of structuralism, let's provide a short profile of the broad school of Reader-Response criticism of which structuralism is only a subtype. Although Reader-Response criticism can be traced back to the 2nd and 3rd decades of the 20-century, it was in the 1970s that Louis Rosenblatt formally established it. The proponents of this school put emphasis on "the reader's reception of a text; … on the altering responses, interpretive and evaluative, of the general reading public over the course of time" (Abrams, p.272). Thus, it seems rather polar with New Criticism. However, Reader-Response critics do not deny the role of the text in interpretive reading. And the meaning is, they claim, the result of a transactional experience that takes place between the text and the reader. The advocates of this school are usually divided into three groups of: reader-oriented critics, reader-plus-text critics, and text-oriented critics. Structuralism is the act of reader-plus-text critics, the criticism of those who believe in the act of interpretation the text and the reader are equally important.

D. Structuralism in Modern Literature

1. Intertextuality

When applied to literature, structuralism becomes radical and increasingly irreducible. The 20th-century literary criticism rejects the view that regards literature as a means of communication between the author and the reader. It is in

sharp opposition with the 19th-century theories of language that were mimetic and expressive. A proper study of literature is not, structuralists say, a close reading on the separated literary texts, but is an inquiry of the conditions that are influential on the act of interpretation. So, structuralists often investigate the system whereby individual texts are related to each other, because they believe that they are only expressing agents of a superior social and cultural system. From their viewpoint, the primary task of the critic is to study the "grammar" of literature, the system of rules that govern literary interpretation. Thus, they often search for the common understructures of literary productions of a certain author or even a whole period.

This indicates the "intertextuality" of meaning in structuralism, the space in which while reading a text, one would like to locate as many connections (references) as possible to as many other texts as possible. The outcome of intertextuality can be the creation of a universal text, or as we read in *A Glossary of Contemporary Literary Theory*, an "intertext (that is, the text within which other texts reside or echo their PRESENCE" (Hawthorn, 1992, p. 126). Intertextuality is a dimension of the text which comes into existence when individual texts enter the interior of other texts, an all-encompassing text of which every other text is only a sub-text.

2. Literature and Language

Structuralism brings literature together with language. In *A Glossary of Literary Terms* we read, "As applied in literary studies, structuralist criticism views literature as a second-order system that uses the first-order structural system of language as its medium, and is itself to be analyzed primarily on the model of linguistic theory" (Abrams, 1993, p. 280). In this position, structuralism is a linguistic study of literature, a search for the langue of it.

For a structuralist analysis of literature, it is strategic to investigate all literary productions of a certain author or even a whole period. The primary task of such an analyst is to study the grammar of literature, that is, the rules that govern the production and interpretation of fiction as a verbal structure. An inference of this is perhaps that literature and language are similarly structured: the first is a self-enclosed system of rules that is composed of language, while the second needs no outside referent but its own rule-governed and socially constrained system.

A further feature of structuralism is its capacity to demystify literature scientifically. It denies literature of any mystical power which has heretofore been bestowed upon it. Structuralists claim that they can delve deep into the grammars of language and narrative, and unravel the secrets of literary texts. Therefore, the text is no longer a unique and autonomous object, and the author's intention is not the same as its overall meaning, for meaning is determined by the system that governs the author. All texts refer to other texts, which is another indication of intertextuality of meaning.

3. A Methodology of Literary Structuralism

Levi-Strauss: Structural Study of Myth

In structuralism the base of interpretation is the common interpretive language of a certain generation that is made of signs and symbols and in which the members of that language community share. Depending on their backgrounds and viewpoints, two certain readers may react differently to a same literary text. Although the revised text produced by a structuralist analyst is not as genuine as that of the original writer, in the examination of the new culture it is the analyst who holds the primary position. What the writer has created as concept, the structuralist critic deals with as sign, and he reads the text as a cultural production that is manufactured according to various perceptions, routines, and traditions of that culture.

Such a critic never ignores the meaning but treats it as mediated by the signs. Structuralism is an intrinsic reading that is free from subjectivity. And the structuralist critic searches in the text for order and coherence and meaning, while his goal is to provide an objective criticism of the text. So, he transverses barriers of time and interest, and tries not to be trapped by his prejudices and partialities. Yet, the text leads him to topics (or the culturally-constructed sites of meaning) that underlay the ways we think and talk about the things of our culture.

After Saussure, structuralism has become as diversified in methodology almost as the practitioners of it. In the first place, there is the mythological approach of the French anthropologist Claude Levi-Srauss who wanted to discover the langue of the myth. In his mythology, there is a "shift of emphasis from myth as a sort of PLOT to myth as a sort of thinking with close resemblance to (…) IDEOLOGY" (Hawthorn, 1992, p. 159). For Levi-Strauss, myth is structured like language, and every myth is therefore an example of parole. For discovering the language of the myth, he used to read countless myths and to identify the recurrent themes that run through all of them which he named mythemes. As the building block of a myth, a mytheme takes the same role in it as a phoneme takes in language. Such a nodal object finds meaning only within a mythic structure. This means that the meaning of a myth depends both on the structure of the myth and the distribution of mythemes within the story. Therefore, the meaning of the myth originates from this structural pattern which we unconsciously master.

Todorov: Grammar of Narrative

There are also the narratologies of Vladimir Propp and Tzvetan Todorov. Like Saussure and Levi-Strauss, these narratologists illustrate how the meaning of a story develops from its overall structure (its langue) rather than from the isolated themes of individual stories. The Russian theorist investigated the fairy tales of his country and described their langue.

But Todorov attempted to describe the grammar of the fiction of Henry James's last style. In *Poetics of Prose* and "Structural Analysis of Narrative," he "seeks to develop a 'poetics' or a theoretical study of literary techniques and

categories" (Leitch, 2001, p. 2097). He focuses on the universality of grammar and argues that the grammar of language reflects the grammar of narrative. The grammatical clause is the basic interpretive unit of the sentence. It can be analyzed into some categories to describe the division of narrative into meaningful unites of structure. He discusses the narrative structure in two levels of speech and discourse. On the level of speech, words signify not only the entities but also their characteristics. For example, the word "book" stands for an object as well as for the features of that object. Proper nouns and pronouns are chiefly denominative, while common nouns and verbs are descriptive. Todorov keeps denominations solely within the subject and descriptions within the predicate. He also considers several classes for the predicate. The minimal complete plot consists of the movement of the narrative from a state of equilibrium to another one. An ideal plot begins with a stable situation which is disturbed by a force the result of which is a state of disequilibrium. But when by the action of a force directed in the opposite way the equilibrium is re-established, the plot attains perfection. The second equilibrium is similar to, but never identical with, the first.

To describe the level of discourse, Todorov analyzed some stories of *Decameron*. He distinguished three types of narrative propositions that corresponded to the logical relations of exclusion (either-or), disjunction (and-or), and conjunction (and-and). The first is alternative. The second is optional, and the third is obligatory. The relations between propositions can be of three types. When they are temporal, the events follow one another in the text because they follow one another in the imaginary world of the book. When they are logical, narratives are habitually based on implications and presuppositions. And when they are spatial, narrative prepositions are juxtaposed because of a certain resemblance between them. In the novellas of *Decameron*, Todorov discerned two types of story. The first type, where a complete trajectory (equilibrium--disequilibrium--equilibrium) was available, was a "punishment-evaded" story. But the second type, where only the second part of the narrative is present, is a "conversion" story. Here the narrative starts with a disequilibrium to arrive at a final equilibrium.

An average reader studies a fiction above all for plot as the sum total of its incidents. But interested in the theoretical problems of structuralism, Todorov discussed plot both as an abstract concept and an issue of the structural approach to narrative, and he suggests useful categories for a close scientific scrutinizing of it. Plot consists of action, character, and recognition. The Franco-Bulgarian narratologist has provided a schematic formulation for a number of Boccacio's plots: "X violates a law → Y must punish X → X tries to avoid being punished → Y violates a law → Y believes   that X is not violating the law → Y does not punish X" (Vincent, 2001, p. 2013).

Barthes: Structural Analysis of Narrative

The work of Barthes is somehow like that of Todorov. But the writer of *S/Z* concentrated on popular forms of literature. In "An Introduction to the Structural Analysis of Narrative" he has discussed the structure of narrative perhaps better than elsewhere. Narrative is a pure system, and a discourse is a "large 'sentence' (…) in the same way that a sentence, allowing for certain specifications, is a small 'discourse'" (Barthes and Duisit, 1975, p. 240), for there is nothing in the latter that is not matched in the former. He analyzes the structure of discourse in three levels of functions, actions, and narration. In a structural study of narrative, the first step is to break it into smallest meaningful segments which he calls "functions." Thus, a narrative function is a content unit.

On the level of actions, he examined mainly the narrative agents. In Aristotelian poetics, "the notion of character is secondary, entirely subordinated to the notion of plot" (Barthes and Duisit, 1975, p. 256). But with the emergence of philosophical and literary humanisms in the European Renaissance, character took on psychological consistency and became a fully constituted being, a particular individual. However, "Anxious not to define character in terms of psychological essences, structural analysis has so far attempted, through various hypotheses, to define the character as a 'participant' rather than as a 'being'" (Culler, 2002, p. 272). As a participant, it is an agent to which a series of actions belongs which give meaning to its existence through interaction with the other agents in the formation of narrativity. An aftermath of this new look is that narrative power is prevented from blocking in a certain segment or character, but via a narrative decentralization, the power of discursivity is given out to all agents who share in the formation of the narrative, for "each character, even a secondary one, is the hero of his own sequence (Barthes and Duisit, 1975, p. 257).

On the level of narration, there is a giver of narrative (narrator) and there is a recipient of narrative (listener). In a linguistic communication, the existence of "I" can be granted by "you" while the existence of "you" can be granted by "I". Similarly, if there is no giver or no receiver of narrative, no narrative can exist. However, Barthes questions about the real "giver" of narrative. Three answers have been given to this question. The first recognizes the author of a narrative as its giver, the second considers an omniscient impersonal consciousness for its deliverer, and the third takes a character-transmitter in the narrative as its narrator. But all these conceptions are inadequate for Barthes, because "at least from our viewpoint, both narrator and characters are essentially paper beings" (Barthes and Duisit, 1975, 261). He notifies us that the living composer of a narrative should not be mistaken with its narrator.

Culler: Analysis of Interpretation

There is also the reader-based narrative studies of Jonathan Culler in the mid-1970s with which the American structuralism began. Culler believed that the abstract linguistic models which narratologists have so far used tend to focus on parole, and proposed that instead of it we should work on the analysis of interpretation. He did not pay much attention to the actual content of the text but emphasized its form and structure. Designing a theory of reading, he questioned about the internalized systems of literary competence that the readers use to interpret a literary text. Culler was more deeply interested, not in the texts themselves, but in the rule-governed system that underlies the texts. He

suggested that a structuralist analyst should focus his attention more closely on the langue of narrative, and should spend time to analyze the interpretation of individual stories and poems. Therefore, reading a literary text structurally, we should work for the establishment of the system that undergirds a reading process. How texts mean, not what texts mean, should be our chief interest.

4. Structuralism in James's Theory of the Novel
"The Art of Fiction"

James's critical productions can be divided into two categories of reviews and critical essays. In "The Science of Criticism" (1891), he makes some differences between the two: review is more commercial, dogmatic, and conventional; while criticism is truth-oriented and is more speculative and intellectual. The former is fundamentally evaluative, but the latter is more analytical and theoretical. James's criticism is associated with the literary or academic world, and is directed toward a disinterested enrichment of culture. James the reviewer had only to pass judgments on individual literary works, but James the essay writer had occasion, through critical analysis, to attune his newly expanded readership to the seriousness of prose fiction as an art form and to its technical presentation strategies.

However, it is "The Art of Fiction" (1884) which is James's critical manifest of the theory of modern novel. About 20 years before the publication of this article, he had warned the literary scholars of the vulgarity of Victorian fiction. But this article is the document of his successful attempt to fill in the gap, for if it does not provide a poetics of the Victorian novel, it surely produces the backgrounds of the poetics of the modern fiction.

Therefore, this article indicates a turning point in James's career. It shows him reflecting on the art of novel, and marks his true entry in the domain of literary criticism as a major writer. In addition, James's moral attitudes are more complex and analytical in this article than elsewhere. And it shows him attempting more genuinely to absorb the attention of an intellectual audience.

James's Prefaces

On the one hand, James the critic often insisted that his fiction should be understood properly. On the other hand, the huge variety of his critical analysis indicates that he was aware a lacuna existed in his fiction. But although he attempted to supervise his readers how to fill in the gap, his prefaces (to his tales and novels) do not elucidate the difficult allusions in his work. They are also not in the nature of a philosophical debate or critique of the contemporary English novel. Instead, they want to satiate his desire to design a formula for the appreciation of his fiction. Explanatory and vindicatory as they are, they want to provide a justification of his fiction, and to offer a rationale for his theory of the novel. If this is right, it can be suggested that his prefaces also show him a pathfinder in the theory of the modern novel.

James the critic defended the same principles which he practiced in his fiction. He focused his mind on the relations between art and artist, art and life, art and ideals, and art and morals. He most applauded the literature that was tightly composed, that showed the author in the achievement of difficult effects through knowledge and mastery, and that, consequently, required the close attention of the reader.

However, he could not conceive of a novel without form, and his conviction in the form of the novel as integral to its content, is, I assume, a salient dimension of his structuralism. He also conceived of a novel as a structural manifestation of a selective and discriminating consciousness. No tailor recommends using a thread without a needle and using a needle without a thread. Likewise, in a work of fiction the subject and the treatment, or the story and the novel, cannot be divided from one another.

In "The Art of Fiction" James does not separate the moral sense of a literary text from the taste of the author, and this interfusion of taste and morality is, I suppose, another indication of James's structuralism. In support of this moralistic relativism in modern fiction, Martin Kreiswerth asserts "morality in the novel stems not from consciously implanted ideas but from the whole cast of the artist's informing consciousness" (1995, p. 423). Therefore, in the eye of James morality is no longer a didactic question but is an aesthetic question, a possibility for the production of new realities in the consciousness as the agent of discursivity. To achieve higher degrees of aesthetic morality, James creates a world of illusion with which he entangles his readers not only in their senses, but also in their hearts and brains.

Before the publication of "The Art of Fiction," subjects like fact and fiction, realism and romance, and art and science dominated the debates of novel. The novel was conceived as an untruthful form of art which was illegitimate and in severe disrepute. In such a situation, in order to escape conviction and find readership, the novel had to pretend that it is not a serious discourse but is a jocular speech which has nothing to claim. However, in this treatise James paved the road for fiction not only to escape from the humiliating shame of jocularity but also to be considered as a legitimate form of art which is faithful to the reality of life. Thus, the pretending humiliation of the novel provided it with a large space of freedom where the novelist could open his mind to all kinds of impressions. And this all-encompassing impressionistic freedom of the novelist in turn brought the whole reality of life into his accession which he could represent in an artistic form. The novelist would structure his work so artistically that its attentive reader could dramatize in it a one-to-one correspondence between the things of life and the taste of the novelist. Thanks to James's manifest, story writers started to focus their minds more emphatically on the relations between content and form, subject matter and technique, or life and art. This is to mean that following "The Art of Fiction," critics of the novel started to accent the craft, technique, or structure of it as heavily as the content of it, and its relation to reality. In this way, the idea of good and/or bad novels was no longer a matter of morality but was a matter of taste (of the writer and/or reader). It was artistry of the work, but not its morality, which the critic would hereafter regard as the

measurement of it badness and goodness; and its artistry was, in its turn, the distinction of its interest and its distribution among the readers.

Thus, although James may have heard nothing about "structuralism" as a formal approach to literature, he can be said to have paved the way to it. This stated, the secret of James's structuralism lies in a number of elements like: his emphasis on the absolute freedom of the novelist in the reception of different kinds of impressions for the production of his work, his insistence on the freedom of the story from morality in order to make it a subject of the taste of the artist, and consequently, to change it into a matter of aestheticism, the highlighted role he granted to the reader in the reproduction of the story via critical interpretation, his emphasis on language in the composition of the work through which the consciousness of the reader gets transcended, and his insistence on the point of view from which the story is narrated. These dimensions have changed the novel from the expression of a pre-planned and limited sequence of meanings to a realm of discursivity where the relations of art and life are problematized and the critical reader reproduces reality in the space of story when it is in the service of language.

III. CONCLUSION

In Saussurian structural linguistics, language is studied not diachronically but synchronically. The word is no longer a symbol with a given and one-to-one connection with its referent but is a two-layer sign of which the signifier is the vocal utterance (or the written mark) and the signified is the meaning of it. Language as a system of signs, is also a social contract where signification is not absolute or pre-given but is arbitrary, conventional, and the result of sign differences.

In later decades of the 20th century, many thinkers continued the researches of Saussure and provided their own models of narrative studies. Levi-Strauss built on his findings to introduce a structural system of anthropology an aspect of which is the study of myths. From the perspective of Levi-Strauss, a myth is a body of narrative materials which comprises a particular aspect of a given culture. We realize that the myth is structured like the language, that both of them are bilinear systems, and that therefore we should study them vertically as well as horizontally.

For Roland Barthes, the unit of study in linguistics is the sentence, but although discourse lies beyond linguistics, there is nothing in the discourse which is lacking in the sentence. Therefore, it is most reasonable to study the discourse in the same way we study the sentence. A narrative should be studied on the three levels of functions, actions, and narration. A function is a unit of meaning. An action should be no longer ascribed to characters as psychological entities but to actors which are the participating agents in the formation of the discourse as a relational structure. And narration is possible to take shape only in an in-between space, because the giver of narrative guarantees its receiver, while the receiver testifies to its giver.

Tzvetan Todorov argued that grammar is universal, and that the grammar of narrative is analogous with that of language. A narrative plot consists of a movement from a state of equilibrium to a state of disequilibrium and back to a state of equilibrium again. But although the first and last states of equilibrium are similar, they are not just the same. He also studied the later style of Henry James, and theorized that the constitutional discursive element in his fiction is a search by the reader for a cause which is perpetually "absolute and absent" (Todorov and Wienstien, 1973, p. 74). And Jonathan Culler's narrative studies are mainly reader-based. Instead of studying individual narratives, he sought in them for the rules that underlie the act of interpretation. In this way, he centered his investigations on the analysis of narrative interpretation, on how novels produce meaning.

Therefore, the fiction of James can be fruitfully approached structurally, because firstly, one can develop a thorough collection of structuralist narratologies from his own theories of novel, while his fiction is also the embodiment of his theories. And secondly, James's theories of novel testify to the 20th-century literary structuralisms some of which the present article has attempted to discus.

James writes mainly for the emergence of a transactional experience between the text and the reader through the establishment of an interpretive process without which reading is absurd and enlightenment is impossible. His last style is not for naïve reading but is for critical analysis by professional readers. He has a positive horror of generalization, and his fiction is, among other things, for the representation of the minutest details of life as well as for the reproduction of discursive realities in narrative spaces. James is content only with the facts, but the source of the Jamesian fact is the perception of the critical reader insofar as he participates in the revision of the narrative for the formation of new discourses. So, he never tells his reader what to think but only puts him in a narrative space where the outcome of his negotiation with the characters should be the emergence of new significations.

Therefore, the job of the structuralist reader of James is to understand how the structures work in his fiction, that is, how the elements of the story come together and render it into structures which he can discover. A technique for reading him structurally is to fill in the numerous gaps which he leaves in the text of each of his great novels and tales. But James's reader can fill in these gaps only when he actively participates in the act of reading. In addition, his stories can be analyzed not only as spaces of interpretation but also as occasions of self-realizing.

Reading James, we use dialogue not for unfolding idea but mainly for displaying humor, and we use the past perfect tense for retrospection, that is, for exploring the reminiscences of characters. Reading James, we use a story which is less episodic but more contemplative and psychological, and we discover the role of a confidant character who is "inevitably a woman—with whom the (generally male) observer or actor may discuss the situation, comparing notes

and checking up theories" (Beach, 1954, p. 70). Reading James, we comprehend the formative function of verisimilitude, we realize the role of a careful process of selection and elimination, and we acknowledge the consistency of the effect for which an author may compose his stories.

In James we have to deal with an abstract diction and a complicated syntax, we have to deal with numerous parenthetical interruptions, and we realize the effect of a neutral tone of story-telling. In James we observe the application of the "scenic method" of narrative and the role of innovative points of view. We also learn how a great novelist can meaningfully sustain the suspense in his plot, i.e., how he doles out his information in bits and makes his reader anxious to get more knowledge each time. In James we attempt to discover the secret of many expletive and passive grammars, we note the lack of correlation between diction and syntax, and we learn the mentality of many subtle persons. In James we also note the absence of the author from the scene of interpretation and the presence there of a central character through whose mouth the author speaks, while we also note that through his absence the author exempts himself from passing judgment on the things and allows the reader to interpret the story.

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A Road to Grace: Homi Bhabhan Reading of *Disgrace*

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Abstract—This study centers around two kinds of people in J. M. Coetzee's novel Disgrace: the whites and the blacks. The white protagonist David Lurie, with his strong colonialist ideology, projects his dominance over the women characters and his racial superiority over the blacks. But now to his disgrace, he is mimicked by the blacks, either in the way of rape or by means of the use of the English language and farming skills. But what Coetzee mainly wants to show is not that the whites are being revenged for their past deeds and they could do nothing but wait for punishment. Actually, he is pointing out the way out of disgrace for the whites.

Index Terms—J. M. Coetzee, *Disgrace*, Homi Bhabha, mimicry, hybridity, grace

I. INTRODUCTION

In *The Location of Culture*, Homi Bhabbha quotes a passage from a missionary in India who wrote in some considerable rage:

Still everyone would gladly receive a Bible, and why? That he may store it up as a curiosity; sell it for a few price; or use it for waste paper…. Some have been bartered in the markets…. If these remarks are at all warranted then an indiscriminate distribution of the scriptures, to everyone who may say he wants a Bible, can be little less than a waste of time, a waste of money and a waste of expectations. For while the public are hearing of so many Bibles distributed, they expect to hear soon of a correspondent number of conversions (Bhabha, 1994, p.95).

In this passage, the white missionary attempts to convert the native Indians into Christianity by requiring them to mimic their way of reading and adoring Bible. But such attempts would surely fail in that although the natives receive Bible from the whites willingly, how it would be used could only depend on the natives themselves. Here we could see that they are using it for their own purpose, not to read them piously, but to barter them in the market or use them as waste paper, to the anger of the missionary. Here we see the failure of the colonizers' strategy of mimicry.

For Bhabha, mimicry is a strategy of colonial power/knowledge for an approved, revised Other to facilitate colonial domination, as Thomas Macaulay's infamous 1835 "Minute on Indian Education" writes: "We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals, in intellect" (Childs, 1997, p.130). Mimicry relies on resemblance, on the colonized becoming like the colonizer but always remaining different. Yet, the very fact of the authority's near duplication produces a powerful representation of counter-domination. "To be Anglicized is emphatically not to be English" (Bhabha, 1994, p.95). Thus, mimicry repeats colonial authority as a presence that is 'partial', both incomplete and virtual, which finally disturbs the power and difference on which that authority is based.

Mimicry in *Disgrace*

In the passage above quoted from *The Location of Culture*, the Indians are mimicking the whites' eager reception of the *Bible*, only for their own purpose even in the colonial times. But in *Disgrace*, J. M. Coetzee's first novel about the post-apartheid South Africa, mimicry, which was actively utilized by the whites in the colonial times as a mean of governing, brings disaster to them in the new South Africa. Those, which used to be the symbols of victory and ruling for the whites have been attached new meanings by the blacks. For instance, when the white protagonist David Lurie goes to the black man Petrus's party with his daughter Lucy, he describes the decoration on a black man and his actions in the following words:

[A]round his neck, a gold chain form which hangs a medal the size of a fist.….Symbols struck by the boxful in a foundry in Coventry or Birmingham; stamped on the one side with the head of sour Victoria, *regina et imperatrix*, on the other with gnus or ibises rampant; medals, Chieftains, for the use of. Shipped all over the old Empire: to Nagpur, Fiji, the Gold Coast, Kaffraria.

The man is speaking, orating in rounded periods that rise and fall. He (Lurie) has no idea what the man is saying, but every now and then there is a pause and a murmur of agreement from his audience, among whom, young and old, a mood of quiet satisfaction seems to reign (Coetzee, 1999, p.135).

The passage sets up a tension between the antiquated symbolic language of empire and that of the black man's oration, delivered in the house of a kinsman who has just become a landowner in a region that was once called British.

The design on the medal, Victoria's visage backed by the decorative emblems of exotic lands, lays bare its now defunct purpose—to define and domesticate otherness. The speaker's words are clearly set in contrast to those on the nineteenth-century shipping labels: "Medals, Chieftains, for the use of." The phraseology of the label is a figure for all defunct definitions, and it rhymes with the words we encounter earlier in the novel: "William Wordsworth (1770-1850), nature-poet," and "David Lurie (1945-?), commentator upon, and disgraced disciple of, William Wordsworth" (Coetzee, 1999, p.46). This echo is not accidental. The evocative incident with the black orator seems to invite comparison with an earlier scene in which Lurie was lecturing to a resistant audience at Cape Technical University about the Mont Blanc section of *The Prelude*. Though he tries, rather awkwardly, to transfer the Romantic sublime to an African landscape the students' incomprehension suggests that it is only Lurie, author of *Wordsworth and the Burden of the Past*, who still needs to apprehend the African landscape in this fashion (Barnard, 2003, p.215-216).

Western language and Western poetry have lost its function to domesticate the natives—they are, rather, on the very verge of disgrace, for the medal with Victoria's visage has become just a decoration for the natives instead of subjugation, and Western literature has become a mere burden for the African students. If we say whites here have only met silent objection for the natives do not take any action to oppose the whites actively, the independence of the mimic men in the new South Africa are exerting new pressure on and even bringing disgrace to them now.

II. INDEPENDENCE OF THE MIMIC MAN PETRUS

As has been quoted above, Thomas Macaulay told the Indian rulers in 1835, "We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals, in intellect." Here in South Africa, the former white rulers had tried to form a class of interpreters, African in blood and color, English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect. But their task was only partially realized. In *Disgrace*, we find a man who is a sort of interpreter for the whites in the past, African in blood and color, but essentially African in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect. That man is Petrus.

Petrus could be regarded as a qualified interpreter in the past. He has been an "apt scholar". He learned English and farming skills from the whites and worked hard for them on their farms. He is, in Lucy's words, a black with "his head screwed on right" (Coetzee, 1999, p.64). So when Lurie comes to Lucy's farm and gets to know Petrus for the first time, he concludes that "Petrus seems a good man" (Coetzee, 1999, p.64), for he is much satisfied with Petrus' words of self-inferiority: "I am the gardener and the dog-man" (Coetzee, 1999, p.64). The colonizer must have felt happy with him, which is suggested by what Coetzee quotes from *Robinson Crusoe* in his Nobel Lecture:

I was greatly delighted with him [Friday], and made it my business to teach him everything that was proper to make him useful, handy, and helpful; but especially to make him speak, and understand me when I spoke; and he was the aptest scholar there ever was (Coetzee, 2003).

But Petrus is no longer the obedient mimic one, no longer an interpreter for the whites, he has gained his own independence now. "[G]ardener and the dog-man" as he is now, this new black farmer is eager to shed these humble roles. He has tried and succeeded in the course of the novel in building himself a new house that "cast[s] a long shadow" (Coetzee, 1999, p.197),   and he schemes to ensure that his line will not only survive but dominate. It is surely not accidental that this man should bear the name "Petrus," the same name as the humble foreman in Nadine Gordimer's story "Six Feet of the Country," in which a group of black farm worker is denied the right to give a proper burial to a family member. Ambitious, resourceful, and, above all, aware that the political tables have turned, "this new Petrus," as Lurie at one point calls him (Coetzee, 1999, p.151), is readily grasped as the post-apartheid counterpart to Gordimer's character, ready to claim his six feet of the country—and more. He is now actively using what he has mimicked from the whites including English language and farming skills for his own purposes.

In 1817, a correspondent of the Church Missionary Society wrote to London describing the method of English education in India: "These (English) sentences might be so arranged as to teach them whatever sentiments the instructor should choose" (Bhabha, 1997, p.106). The colonizers wishfully thought that the natives were such stupid idiots that they would follow them at any time and at any place, while the fact is that the sentiments they learned from the English language is not what the instructors chose for them, the natives are forming their own individual sentiments now, as what Petrus does in *Disgrace*, to the disappointment and embarrassment of the old master David Lurie.

In the novel, Lurie mentions the English language many times. One reason is that he was a professor of Modern languages for most of his university career, so he is quite sensitive to that; the second reason is that the language has been mimicked by the blacks for their own purposes and new meanings have been attached to it. So once he says that, "Stretches of English code whole sentences long have thickened, lost their articulations, their articulateness, their articulatedness. Like a dinosaur expiring and settling in the mud, the language has stiffened" (Coetzee, 1999, p.117). Lurie keenly feels this in his conversation with Petrus.

Petrus tells Lurie that Lucy is forward-looking, "She is a forward-looking lady, not backward-looking" (Coetzee, 1999, p.136), for she allows his new pipe to cross her land. Petrus's mastery of the English language reminds Lurie that he himself is becoming his own master, not like the times in the past when he was still a servant to his white master. It reminds us, too that "not only imperial medals but the resources of the imperial language were brought to 'Kaffraria' for 'the use of' the region's inhabitants" (Barnard, 2003, p.217). The conversation between the former master and slave is changed into another kind, no longer the old style of question and answer, utterance and echo.

Petrus's mimicry of the English language makes Lurie angry, and his mimicry of farming skills lets Lurie feel resented, too, to the disgrace of the whites. He is very deft at fitting pipes when Lurie tells him that he knows nothing about regulators. But Petrus needs his help not in terms of advice on pipefitting or plumbing but to hold things, to pass him tools, to be his handyman. The positions between the former master and slave have changed. Like the later scene when Lurie watches Petrus ploughing the land with a tractor swiftly, and thinks they are "all very unlike Africa" (Coetzee, 1999, p.151), we find that the mimic man has overtaken the master. He has gained his independence and equality with him. So it is no wonder that for a man with deep-rooted colonial ideology, such a scene is of great significance: "He would not wish to be marooned with Petrus on a desert isle" (Coetzee, 1999, p.137), because this Friday does not want to continue to follow his master's instructions now.

This also resonates with Coetzee's Nobel lecture in which there lives a new Friday like Petrus. Here Friday is dashing across the kingdom of Britain and sending reports of different places to Robin. Robin is surprised by the writing ability of Friday. He is writing as well as—and even better than—his master. He loves the parrot more than Friday, but the parrot speaks no word taught by his master; on the contrary, Friday could do that. He could even work out sentences that his master has never thought of before:

For he wields an able pen, this man of his, no doubt that. *Like charging Death himself on his pale horse*. His own skill, learned in the counting house, was in making tallies and accounts, not in turning phrases. *Death himself on his pale horse*: those are words he would not think of. only when he yields himself up to this man of his do such words come (Coetzee, 2003).

Friday does better than his master Robin, so does Petrus than Lurie. Their mimicry of their masters has become an active tool for their own purposes.

III. Metaphorical Inversion of Rape

In 1994, the first ever democratic elections were held in South Africa. In May 1994 Nelson Mandela was inaugurated as the country's president at the head of a strongly ANC government. From that time on, the new leaders in the government have been devoted to righting wrongs and establishing new social and racial relations. Yet, the hatred toward the whites accumulated in the colonial times still remains despite the establishment of democratic government, as young Pollux in *Disgrace* shouts at Lurie and her daughter, "We will kill you all!" (Coetzee, 1999, p.207). As the blacks' extensive poverty out of long history of colonization by the whites does not end with the white disempowerment, to pour their angry feelings towards the whites, they begin to make use of those colonial strategies back to their old masters. So, in Coetzee's novel *Disgrace*, we find the blacks' mimicry of the Westerners does not stop at merely the English language and farming skills, they are mimicking whites' rape, too.

The European colonization of Africa has been termed the "rape" of Africa. As Ronald Hyam has written: "Sex is at the very heart of racism…Sexual fears are obviously capable of manipulation for political ends, such as the maintenance of white control" (Hyam, 1992, p.203-204). Coetzee in his novel *Disgrace* just makes use of such a metaphor on his protagonist David Lurie. His description of Lurie's sexual affairs in the novel and the disgrace brought about gives us the impression that the disgrace of the protagonist's sexuality is a metaphor of the downfall of colonialism which is typically reflected in his sexual affairs with three women in the novel.

Lurie grew up in a family of women. Women's company made him "a lover of woman and, to an extent, a womanizer" (Coetzee, 1999, p.7), and he enjoyed their admiration in his youth. But as he is growing old, such powers ended suddenly one day. Glances slid over and passed through him. He has to learn to "pursue" them or even to "buy" them if he wants.

One object is the prostitute Soraya. He likes her because her temperament is "rather quiet, quiet and docile" (Coetzee, 1999, p.21), and a "ready learner, compliant, pliant (Coetzee, 1999, p.207), even though their intercourse is "rather dry, even at its hottest." When Soraya leaves him for he found out her double life, she changes her object to the new secretary in his department. But their sexual affair does not please him because she is too active: "Bucking and clawing, she works herself into a froth of excitement that in the end only repels him (Coetzee, 1999, p.9). After that one encounter, Lurie avoids abruptly, leaving her feel puzzled, hurt and angry. In fact, what Lurie wants is not mutual intercourse at all, as Charles Sarvan points out: "Lurie does not desire mutuality but domination, hence his relationships with women who are much younger—and passive" (Sarvan, 2004, p.27).

Such relationships find its best expression in his seduction of his student Melanie. Melanie is beautiful, young, and most important of all, she is compliant. He takes her to his house for supper, asks her to watches a film with him, and seduces her a few days later, though she has resisted mildly. He is quite satisfied for he enjoys not only young beauty but also the sense of domination. Despite his own observation that this seduction of Melanie is "not rape, not quite like that" (Coetzee, 1999, p.25), the action he does to Melanie suggests something strongly like that. He arrives at Melanie's flat and "thrusts himself upon her" (Coetzee, 1999, p.24), and in which she neither resists nor participates in the sex that follows this invasion. Indeed, Luries observes that "she had decided to go slack, die within herself for the duration" (Coetzee, 1999, p.25). Subsequently, he describes himself "kneeling over her, peeling off her clothes, while her arms flop like the arms f a dead person" (Coetzee, 1999, p.89). He also imagines her, after the violation," running a bath, stepping into the water, eyes closed like a sleepwalker's" (Coetzee, 1999, p.25). So from the terms of the description we could only conclude that Lurie's invasion of Melanie is rape indeed, as Michael Marais has suggested that "the scene

must be read as Lurie's attempt to possess the Other, to assert control over her" (Marais, 2000, p.175).

Sex as a metaphor of colonialism is not unusual in Coetzee's novels. He often makes use of the motifs, such as torture, rape, and murder to represent metaphorically what whites have done to non-whites. For instance, in "The Narratives of Jacobus Coetzee," the gun to the colonizer Jacobus Coetzee is a major symbol. Killing means to him he is not alone, and death proves there is life. When Jacobus returns to the Namaquas and the servants who abandoned him for their freedom, he sentences them to death in the name of God. He and the soldiers with him torture, rape and totally destroy the Namaqua and the four former servants (Post, 1986, p. 67-77). So in *Disgrace*, by relating Lurie's imposing of sexuality on women, Coetzee is making use of this motif again to symbolize whites' rape of Africa in the past centuries. Only here, winning belongs to the other party.

To express their pensive feelings toward the whites, the blacks have to resort to other means when they find unsatisfactory solution from the government, which strongly calls for forgiveness rather than for natural justice publicly. Mimicry of the whites' crimes toward them is just part of the scheme. In explaining Breytenbach's idea on rural violence, Coetzee says:

Farm murders, and crimes in general against whites—even the crime directed against the Breytenbachs when their home in Montagu is broken into and vandalized--are indeed part of a larger historical plot which has everything to do with the arrogation of the land by whites n colonial times (Coetzee, 2001, p.256).

In *Disgrace*, the blacks are mimicking Lurie's rape of Melanie by raping his daughter Lucy. The text constructs a clear parallel between Lurie's rape of Melanie and the gang rape of his daughter, Lucy, on her smallholding in the Eastern Cape town of Salem. As in the earlier scene, Lucy is "surprised " by "intruders" who " thrust" themselves "upon her" (Coetzee, 1999, p.24). Moreover, death also forms a motif in the later scene. After the rape, Lucy describes herself as follows: "I am a dead person and I do not know yet what will bring back to life" (Coetzee, 1999, p.161). Like Melanie, she tries to cleanse herself of the violation (Coetzee, 1999, p.97-98). Most importantly, there is a clear link between Lurie's loss of Melanei after his failure to possess her and his estrangement from his daughter following her rape by the three intruders.

It is evident that Coetzee has chosen masculine and feminine sexualities as the main metaphor for the disempowerment of white South Africans. Coetzee describes two kinds of people in his novel *Disgrace*: the whites and the blacks. The white protagonist David Lurie, with his strong colonialist ideology, projects his dominance over the women characters and his racial superiority over the blacks. But now to his disgrace, he is mimicked by the blacks, either in the way of rape or by means of the English language and farming skills. But what Coetzee mainly wants to show is not that the whites are being revenged for their past deeds and they could do nothing but wait for punishment. Actually, he is pointing out the way out of disgrace for the whites.

IV. HYBRIDITY FOR GRACE

By borrowing the idea of hybridity from Jacques Derrida, Bhabha indicates that the exercise of colonial authority is always bringing discourses into connection with other texts and discourses, the effect of which is a hybridization that destabilizes simple meanings, in other words, to facilitate colonial domination, the colonizers must change their own way of speaking and reacting. The purpose is to hybridize the colonial culture and the colonized, which in the end is bound to shift the colonial power and to question its discursive authority. This suggests that colonial discourse is never wholly in the hands of the colonizers.

Bhabha takes the English Bible and its dissemination in India as an example. The Word of God is complicated by the natives' responses that "how can the word of God come from the flesh-eating mouths of the English?" and "how can it be the European book, when we believe it is God's gift to us?"(Bhabha, 1994, p.135) The translation of the Bible into the Indian languages creates a hybridized Word of God. So Bhabha says hybridity is a partial and double force because it is a return of the content and form of colonial authority that "terrorizes authority with the *ruse* of recognition, its mimicry, its mockery" (Bhabha, 1994, p.115).

Thus, the nature of the colonial authority is questioned and displaced. In *Disgrace*, Petus's intentional use of the English language is a sufficient proof, as has been discussed above. Lurie feels the difference between his own use of the English language and Peturs's at any encounter, but he could not tell what is wrong with it, because it is his colonial forefathers who disseminated the English language in South Africa for their rule and dominance, and therefore inevitably created a hybridized English language, which questions the authority of the so-called pure English language.

What Bhahha illustrates in *The Location of Culture* is under the condition that colonial authority is in power, and hybridity is just a means for them to facilitate their control. So, the resistance produced toward colonial discourse and authority is internal, not external. But the changed power relations in South Africa have changed whites' active involvement in hybridity, too, as the former colonizer and the colonized are now standing on what is believed an equal footing. Here the former colonizers are not employing it for means of dominance but existence and grace, which is illustrated in the white characters' different ways of hybridity in *Disgrace*.

V. DAVID LURIE'S CULTURAL HYBRIDITY

As the name implies, cultural hybridity is to understand, respect cultural differences on an equal basis, not like what

Bhabha has described in *The Location of Culture*. In *Disgrace*, it means that in order to continue to stay on the land of South Africa, and in order to retrieve the sense of grace after so many disgraceful events, Lurie must give up his idea of Western superiority to hybridize white culture and black culture, more specifically, to come to sympathize with and to accept the blacks and to hybridize Western literature and black native culture.

The following is excerpted from Coetzee's Jerusalem Prize acceptance speech of 1987:

At the heart of the unfreedom of the hereditary masters of South Africa is a failure of love. To be blunt: their love is not enough today and has not been enough since they arrived on the continent; furthermore, their talk, their excessive talk, about how they love South Africa has consistently been directed toward the land, that is, toward what is least likely to respond to love: mountains and deserts, birds and animals and flowers (Coetzee, 1992, p.97).

What is clearly implied in his speech is that what the whites want in South Africa is merely the occupation of its land and the exploitation of its natural resources. Their love does not extend as far as toward the blacks. The natives to them are nothing but the obstacle to their occupation of the land, thus the frequent happening of rape, murder and killing. In *Disgrace*, the protagonist David Lurie has walked along the same road as his forefathers psychically. But he is also different from them for the ending is not the same. He becomes a changed person due to his encounter with the animals especially the dogs, and the happenings on her daughter on her farm.

Lucy's rape by three blacks gives Lurie a hard lesson on love and friendship, but dogs play an even bigger role in changing Lurie's "fixed temperament". For all his stubbornness, Lurie finds himself undergoing changes, particularly regarding the value of animals' lives, despite his best efforts to resist them.

He has an early argument with Lucy, an animal enthusiast, about animals' ontological status, in which he subscribes to the conventional wisdom: "As for animals, by all means let us be kind to them. But let us not lose perspective. We are of a different order of creation from the animals" (Coetzee, 1999, p.74). This topic resurfaces later, when Lurie reluctantly decides to help a local woman named Bev Shaw at her animal clinic in Grahamstown. "They can smell what you are thinking" (Coetzee, 1999, p.81), she tells him on the first day; he remains unconvinced. Still, Lurie finds himself responding to the animals he helps treat in unnervingly animal-like ways. When at one point he is helping Bev calm an ailing dog that must be put down, Lurie realizes that "he gives off the wrong smell (They can smell your thoughts), the smell of shame" (Coetzee, 1999, p.142). Becoming bewildered, "He does not understand what is happening to him. Until now he has been more or less indifferent to animals" (Coetzee, 1999, p143). At this moment, however, "he does not seem to have the gift of hardness" (Coetzee, 1999, p.143).

Lurie's gradual change is evident here. But the most significant change of his fixed temperament and fixed ideas come when he resigns his teaching post in the university and comes to stay on her daughter Lucy's farm.

At first, even after the rape of his daughter by the three blacks on the farm, Luries claims that he is too old to change and repeats this claim on a number of occasions. The point, though, is that he does change in the course of the novel. On Lucy's suggestion, he decides to engage in charity work, which he, facetiously, describes as making "preparation for past misdeeds" (Coetzee, 1999, p.77). Lucy's farm manager Petrus acquires two sheep to provide meat for a party and ties them to a stake, which Luire considers "a miserable way to spend the last two days of one's life" (Coetzee, 1999, p.125). He finds that a "bond seems to have come into existence between himself and the two," that suddenly and without reason, their lot has become important to him" (Coetzee, 1999, p.126). Other animal deaths at the hands of humans take place as well, and Lurie is much more intimately involved with these. One is the shooting of the dogs that are boarding in Lucy's kennel during an attack on the farm by the three blacks, who beat and burn Lurie, rape Lucy, and loot the farmhouse. Lurie digs a grave for these dogs and "trundles the corpses over in a wheel barrow" (Coetzee, 1999, p.110).

The most striking form of animal death is the one in which Lurie plays a direct role, aiding Bev Shaw at a local animal clinic where dogs and other ailing or unwanted animals are put down. Lurie's "whole being is gripped by what happens in the theatre," and what grips him is the spectacle of a creature facing its last moment and, once again, the prospect of the animal's foreknowledge: "He is convinced the dogs know their time has come!" (Coetzee, 1999, p.43). Watching Bev comfort a goat that she is about to inject, he says, "Perhaps he has already been through it. Born with foreknowledge, so to speak…. They know how death comes to a goat. They are born prepared," an opinion that draws a skeptical response from Bev: "I don't think we are ready to die, any of us, not without being escorted"((Coetzee, 1999, p. 83-84). Escorting these creatures, both to the table where they are dispatched and to the incinerator where they are disposed of, is the role that Lurie takes on himself. The epithet "dog-man," applied by Mrs. Curren to Verceuil in *Age of Iron*, returns in *Disgrace*, attached first to Petrus, who cared for the dogs in Lucy's Kennel, and then, with much resonance, to Lurie, who conducts the dogs in Bev's clinic to their deaths: "A dog-man: a dog undertaker; a dog psychopomp: a harijan" (Coetzee, 1999, p.146).

Thus, in spite of Lurie's resolution not to change, it is the dogs that unleash his emotions—"the more killings he assists in, the more jittery he gets" (Coetzee, 1999, p.142). He cries and "does not understand what is happening to him" as his indifference towards animals dissipates from an "abstract" disapproval of cruelty to a personal commitment to the dogs and, through them, to "his idea of the world" (Coetzee, 1999, p.146). In "offering himself to the service of dead dogs," the "selfish" Lurie finds a kind of grace for himself and the dogs, a way of working through the endlessness of his skepticism and towards repentance, a state that Lurie earlier described to the tribunal as belonging to "another world, to another universe of discourse" (Coetzee, 1999, p. 58). In the process, Lurie comes to understand the meaning of

charity, care and love: "He has learned by now, from [Bew Shaw], to concentrate all his attention on the animal they are killing, giving it what he no longer has difficulty in calling by its proper name: love"(Coetzee, 1999, p. 219).

As the colonizers often took the animals and blacks as being in the same inferior positions, therefore, from what we witness in Lurie's change toward animals from despise to sympathy in *Disgrace*, we may easily conclude his change of attitudes toward blacks, too. Also, though Coetzee does not give us clear evidence of Lurie's change of stereotypical views of blacks, his change of attitude toward Western literature tell us this. Learning of love from the sufferings of animals and his daughter changes his attitude toward Western literature and lets him realize where grace lies. "Art is not salvation, but art can point to where salvation may lie" (Tremaine , 2003, p.594-595).

Lurie's attitude toward Wordsworth experiences three stages. The beginning of the novel sees Lurie offering a course named the Romantic Poets to his students. He admires Wordsworth very much. He tells Melanie that "Wordsworth has been one of my masters" and "the harmonies of The Prelude have echoed within him" (Coetzee, 1999, p.13). But the situation changes gradually later, when he reads the story reported in the *Herald* about the attack on Lucy's farm, he is rather glad to have been not mentioned the connection between Ms Lurie's father and David Lurie, "disciple of nature poet William Wordsworth" (Coetzee, 1999, p.116), because he thinks these "dead" masters "have not guided him well"(179). The final turn of change comes near the end of the story. He finally realizes that Wordsworth is not to blame, but his way of reading Wordsworth is wrong. What he has drawn from these masters' poetry is nothing but the excuse to pursue pretty girls.

At the same time, we find Lurie's changing attitude toward African rural life, too. When he goes to visit Lucy's farm, what impresses him is just the "sparse, bleached grass" and the "[p]oor land, poor soil" (Coetzee, 1999, p.64), but after a series of disgraceful events happening on him, with his daughter working diligently on the land, he discovers its beauty now. There is "the gentle sum, the stillness of mid-afternoon, bees busy in a field of flowers" (Coetzee, 1999, p.218). He plans to care for Lucy's child of mixed blood and begins to shift his attention to the beautiful rural life in Africa from Western literature now: "The truth is, he has never had much of an eye for rural life, despite all his reading in Wordsworth. Not much of an eye for anything, except pretty girls; and where has that got him? Is it too late to educate the eye?" (Coetzee, 1999, p.218).

What best signifies Lurie's cultural hybridity is his playing of the musical instrument banjo, which is of African origin, to mourn Byron's lover, Teresa. At first, he wants to write a chamber opera *Byron in Italy* to express his meditation on love between the sexes. He means to write about Byron's love affair with Teresa in Italy where the people were "[l]ess hemmed in by convention, more passionate" (Coetzee, 1999, p.15). First he plans to borrow the Western lush orchestration like Strauss, and later he tells Lucy he inclines toward "a very meager accompaniment—violin, cello, oboe or maybe bassoon" (Coetzee, 1999, p.63). But such an idea does not materialize for he has gradually lost his belief in the Western tradition. Byron in real life did not live a good life as he has expected and the Western musical instruments gave him no inspiration at all, thus the "unmoving state of the Byron project" (Coetzee, 1999, p.141) until he finds Lucy's toy "the odd little seven-stringed banjo" (Coetzee, 1999, p.184).

When the sound of the piano hinders him in writing the music for *Byron it Italy*, Lurie recovers a banjo form Lucy's old books and toys. But the "silly plink-plonk of the toy banjo" teaches him a lot. Months ago, he thought that his place in the opera should be between Teresa's and Byron's: "between a yearning to prolong the summer of the passionate body and a reluctant call from the long sleep of oblivion" (Coetzee, 1999, p.184), so as to write about their love and passion. Now he finds that his place is neither to act as Teresa or as Byron, but "in the music itself, in the flat, tinny slap of the banjo strings" (Coetzee, 1999, p.184). The little banjo begins to lead Lurie to cultural hybridity and to point to him where the salvation lies. From then on, he no longer follows Byron, but Teresa, who lived a rather wretched life after Byon went to Greece, and mourns for her, and he hears another voice, too, which he has never heard before. The voice belongs to Byron's daughter, Allegra. She was unlovely, unloved and neglected by her famous father, and was passed form hand to hand and finally given to the nuns to look after, dying. Banjo helps Lurie to recover his conscience, to find another side of life that is occupied by the suffering and wretched. That is what Africa has taught him, and that also points out where his latter part of life should go.

Richard A. Barney suggests that Lurie may also be finding an oblique way to navigate past his estrangement from his daughter; remarkably, however, he remains nearly oblivious to the relevance this has for the crucial problem of racial relations in the story (Barney, 2004, p.21). It is true that, in several places, Coetzee links animal with racial contempt in Lurie's perceptions—just before the three black males attack him and Lucy, we read that the youngest one, a boy named Pollux, has "piggish eyes." Later, Lurie will make this bestial slur explicit when he calls Pollux a "jackal boy" and a "swine". But we should also note Lurie's change of attitude toward animals during the progression of the novel. He has come to sympathize with and love them.

Besides, Lurie's acceptance of Lucy's child of mixed blood out of rape by the three blacks is another evidence of his changed opinion toward racial relations. In the past, the distance between the white and the native found expression in the fear of miscegenation, because the colonizers thought it violated the boundary between races, creating half-caste children with no natural home. The novels of Sarah Gertrude Millin, an English-speaking South African active between the 1920s and the 1950s, are full of the preoccupation with mixed blood. Miscegenation tainted a family indelibly; future generations might deny it successfully for brief periods, but the taint would always come back to give them away (Mallaby, 1992, p.74-75). Such stereotypical racial discrimination is found in Lurie's words and actions at first, but the

novel finally witnesses his cultural hybridiy.

VI. Conclusion

What Coetzee means to portray is never only the protagonist himself or just to tell the distinct story of the few white characters. He attempts to describe the destined disgrace of those white South Africans who still obstinately cling to colonial ideology and who are ready to display it in whatever form. However, Coetzee's literary power does not stop here. He is really warning the whites of the danger of stubborn colonial ideology and is pointing a road out of disgrace for them.

Colonialism nowadays has by no means disappeared, and still is a real phenomenon. It is with the world as vision or powerful ideology. We may find the number of articles in British and American newspapers and magazines in recent years calling for recolonization of Africa. This is actually the evidence of whites' racial superiority, and they are trying to find means of justification of continuing imperialist activity. By portraying the disgrace of a typical white South African, Coetzee foretells the doomed disgrace of colonial ideology and actions, and suggests that the only way out is to give them up, and to reach compromise with the natives so that grace can be gained, as what Lurie obtains at the end of the novel *Disgrace*.

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A Comparative Study of Iranian EFL Teachers' and Learners' Perspectives on Task-based Instruction

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Abstract—Over the last few decades, Task-Based Instruction (TBI) has gained considerable importance in language teaching research. Yet there are few studies of second language learners' and teachers' perceptions of TBI. This article reports a study that explored teachers' and learners' perceptions of TBI. A sample of 51 Iranian EFL teachers and 88 EFL learners participated in the study. The majority of respondents show positive views on the application of this approach in English classrooms. The results also indicate that Iranian EFL teachers and learners have similar perceptions of TBI.

Index Terms—teachers and learners' perceptions, task-based instruction

I. BACKGROUND

Insights gained from research in second and foreign language development have made us aware that language learning is primarily a learner-oriented and learning-oriented activity (Brown, 2001; Nunan, 1988; Wright, 1990). Consequently, in recent years there has been more emphasis on the role of the learner in the language learning process. In the same way, learners' perception of language learning is one of the more recently discussed learners' variables in the field. In the context of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), a challenge facing the language teaching profession is to determine how learners perceive and treat the formal and functional properties of language learning tasks (Kumaravadivelus, 1991).

Teachers' perceptions also play an important role in their actual practices while teaching a target language. In their book *Psychology for Language Teachers* (1997), Williams and Burden argue that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs. Teachers' beliefs are an extremely complicated phenomenon which involves various aspects, such as beliefs about the nature of language itself, language learning and teaching, learners, teachers, and the teacher-learner power relationship. Such beliefs definitely influence teachers' approaches to EFL teaching. The study of teachers' beliefs forms part of the process of understanding how teachers implement TBI. In order to understand how teachers approach different tasks, it is necessary to understand the beliefs and principles which form the basis of their teaching. Examining language teachers' perceptions should, therefore, help clarify how teachers adapt themselves to communicative language teaching methods including TBLT.

II. STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Over the years a great deal of research has been carried out into learner and teacher variables which might affect the language learning/teaching process (such as nationality, age, gender, and motivation among many others). But, issues related to teachers' and learners' perceptions of language learning and teaching have not attracted the same degree of attention. Whereas, the language instructors' perceptions of language learning/teaching process has a great influence on what they actually do in practice, and the perceptions of language learners of their own language learning process has an undeniable impact on their learning.

On the other hand, much of the work done in the area of TBLT, has focused on the definitions of task, the role of tasks in second language acquisition (e.g. Ellis 2000; Skehan 1996), different task types (e.g. Skehan & Foster, 1997), task repetition, and task difficulty. However, there is little practical discussion of how language teachers and learners perceive task based instruction.

Although the foreign language classroom is actually a co-production between teacher and learners, there are a few empirical studies in English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) that look at the teacher and learner together. However, as Kumaravadivelus (1991) asserts, the narrower the gap between the teachers' and the learners' perceptions, the greater the chances of achieving the desired learning outcomes. Hence, the present study argues for the need to embrace the issue of teacher and learner perceptions in the classroom. This attempt aims to help bridge the gap between teacher and learner as a way to enhance the effectiveness of the learning process, because it is believed that the possible differences between teachers and learners' perceptions affect the amount and quality of what learners actually learn. Regarding all the above-mentioned issues, the present study seeks to investigate EFL teachers' perceptions of task-based language pedagogy.

A. Research Questions

This paper aims to address the following research questions in order to shed light upon, and ultimately find a way to improve, EFL classroom teaching practices and pedagogy.

1. How well do Iranian EFL teachers and learners understand TBLT concepts?

2. What are the aspects of Iranian EFL teachers' and learners' views on TBLT implementation?

3. For what practical reasons do Iranian EFL teachers and learners choose, or avoid, implementing TBLT?

4. Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL learners' and teachers' reported perceptions of task based language instruction?

B. Research Hypothesis

Based on the fourth research question cited above, this study aims to test the following hypothesis:

H0: There is no significant difference between students' and teachers' reported perceptions of task based language instruction.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Group 1: A total of 51 male and female teachers teaching English at "Kish Language Institute" (Isfahan, Iran) participated in the survey. All of the participants had at least two or more years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language. The teachers ranged in age from 20 to 32.

Group 2: A number of 88 female adult learners studying English at "Kish Language Institute" (Isfahan, Iran) language learners formed the second group of the participants in this study. These learners were chosen randomly from different proficiency levels including pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced learners. They were female with an age range between 16-40 years.

B. Survey Instruments

The survey instrument, a questionnaire, was devised to measure Iranian EFL teachers' and learners' perceptions of TBI in classroom setting. This questionnaire was adapted from Jeon's (2005) study. The questionnaire was composed of some Likert-type items and two open-ended questions and was organized into four sections. The first section contained items requesting demographic information from the teachers and learners. The second section dealt with the basic concept of the task and the principles of task-based instruction in order to review the participants' practical understandings of TBI. The third section was related to the participants' views on the classroom practice of TBLT. The questionnaire items were partly adapted and modified from Nunan's (2004) checklist for evaluating communicative tasks. In the second and third sections, teachers and learners were asked to answer each question using a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Finally, in the fourth section, teachers and learners were asked to check their own reasons for choosing or avoiding the implementation of TBLT, with reference to a few qualitative statements.

The teachers' questionnaire was in English but the learners' was translated into their first language "Farsi". To ensure the validity of the questionnaires and the appropriateness and comprehensibility of the questionnaire items, some experts in the field were consulted. Moreover, the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) of instruments were estimated in the pilot study. All of the reliability coefficients turned out to be high enough (higher than 0.78) to enable the researcher to conduct an statistical analysis of the total of questionnaires.

C. Data Collection Procedure

The researcher visited language teachers and learners of the Kish Language Institute, explained the pedagogical goal of the survey, and asked them to fill out the questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed among teachers. A few of them answered the questionnaire after or in between their class times, but most teachers assigned a time for returning the questionnaire, which was between three to seven days. So the questionnaires were collected one by one over a period of two months. Also, after asking for permission from the teachers of the Kish Language Institute, another set of questionnaires was distributed among the learner participants of the study from 11 different classes in the last 30 minutes of their class time. In this regard, the researcher gave the learners a short explanation about her work as well as directions as to how to fill out the questionnaires. Students were also assured that the information provided by them would be kept confidential. While the learners were filling out the questionnaires, the researcher stayed with them in case there were any ambiguities. As such, it took the researcher about 4 months to collect the learners' questionnaires. The collected data was tabulated to be analyzed. Teachers' and learners' perceptions of TBLT were assessed using the answers which the two groups provided for different parts of the questionnaires. Finally, students' and teachers' reported perceptions were compared to determine the degree of correspondence.

D. Data Analysis

The data analysis process consisted of two phases:

1)The Likert-type items designed to identify teachers' and learners' understandings of TBLT conception and their views on TBLT implementation, were given a numerical score (e.g., strongly disagree =1, disagree =2, neutral=3, agree=4, and strongly agree=5).

2) In part four of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to choose the reasons for being in favor of TBLT. So, the selected items were given a numerical score of "1" and the unselected ones were given "0". Secondly, the participants were asked to choose reasons for having a negative response to TBLT. The selected items were given the numerical score of "0" and the unselected ones were given "1".

SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 11.0 for Windows was used to analyze the data. First, measures of frequency (descriptive statistics) were used. In other words, a percentage comparison of teachers' and learners' responses to each of the questionnaire items was carried out in order to indicate how well the learners and teachers understood each of the concepts of TBLT, what kind of views they held when it came to the implementation of TBLT in foreign language classrooms, and the main reasons that learners and teachers chose or avoided implementing TBLT. Consequently, the information gained through the teachers' and learners' questionnaires was analyzed through *t-tests* (inferential statistics) to show the possible significant differences between the two groups' perceptions of TBLT.

IV. RESULTS

A. Addressing the First Research Question

Part two of the questionnaire contained seven items dealing with this question:
How well do teachers and learners understand TBLT concepts?

2. Teacher Results

TABLE 4.1
INDICATES THE RESULTS OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THIS SECTION.

Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	22	24	5	0	0
2	6	30	10	5	0
3	9	23	8	11	0
4	14	24	8	5	0
5	12	34	5	0	0
6	11	26	8	6	0
7	15	22	10	4	0

Table 4.1.Teachers' Responses to Section Two (total 51)
SA= strongly agree; A= agree; U=neutral;
D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree

As it can be seen in Table 4.1, the majority of the teachers generally agreed with the items, and there was no strong disagreement to any item in any of the sections. For item one "a task is communicative goal directed", for example, while there was no disagreement at all, 43.1% of the respondents strongly agreed with the idea, 47.1% agreed, and only 9.8% were neutral. Regarding item two "a task involves a primary focus on meaning", 11.8% strongly agreed, 58.8% agreed, 19.6% were neutral, and only 9.8% disagreed, but there was no strong disagreement. The statistics for item three "a task has a clearly defined outcome", included 17.6% with strong agreement, 45.1% in agreement, 15.7% neutral, and 21.8% in disagreement. Considering item four "a task is any activity in which the target language is used by the learner", 27.4% of teachers strongly agreed, 47.1% agreed, 15.7% were neutral, and only 9.8% disagreed. For item five "TBLT is consistent with the principles of communicative language teaching", 23.5% showed strong agreement, 66.7% showed agreement, and only 9.8% were neutral, but there was no disagreement. Studying item six "TBLT is based on the student-centered instructional approach" revealed that 21.6% strongly agreed, 50.9% agreed, 15.7% were neutral, and 7.8% disagreed. Finally, the responses for the last item in this section "TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task implementation, and post task" comprised of 29.5% of teachers in strong agreement, 43.1% in agreement, 19.6% were neutral, and 7.8% in disagreement.

2. Students Results

TABLE 4.2
SHOWS THE RESULTS OF STUDENTS' REACTIONS TO THIS SECTION.

Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	30	53	5	0	0
2	25	51	7	5	0
3	19	34	30	5	0
4	23	37	28	0	0
5	23	55	10	0	0
6	29	36	18	5	0
7	27	47	9	5	0

Table 4.2.Students' Responses to Section Two (total 88)
SA= strongly agree; A= agree; U=neutral;
D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree

By investigating Table 4.2, it can be found that, as with the teachers, the majority of the students generally agreed with the items, and there was no strong disagreement. For item one "a task is communicative goal directed" 34.1% of the students strongly agreed and 60.2% just agreed, but 5.7% were neutral, and there was no disagreement. Item two "a task involves a primary focus on meaning" had 28.4% with strong agreement, 58% in agreement, 7.9% were neutral responses, and 5.7% were in disagreement. Regarding item three "a task has a clearly defined outcome", 21.6% strongly agreed, 38.6% agreed, 34.1% were neutral, and 5.7% disagreed. For item four "a task is any activity in which the target language is used by the learner", saw 26.1% in strong agreement, 42.1% in agreement, and 21.8% were neutral. As with item five "TBLT is consistent with the principles of communicative language teaching", 26.1% strongly agreed, 62.5% agreed, and 11.4% were neutral. Item six "TBLT is based on the student-centered instructional approach" found 33% of students in strong agreement, 40.9% in agreement, 20.4% had neutral responses, and 5.7% were in disagreement with the statement. Considering the last item, that is, item seven "TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task implementation, and post-task", 30.7% strongly agreed, 53.4% agreed, 10.2% were neutral, and only 5.7% of students disagreed.

B. The Second Research Question

Section three of the questionnaire consisted of eight items which corresponded to the question:
What are the aspects of teachers' and learners' views on TBLT implementation?

1. Teacher Results

TABLE 4.3
REVEALS THE RESULTS OF THE TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE ITEMS OF THIS SECTION.

Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	12	30	5	4	0
2	14	25	7	5	0
3	14	25	7	5	0
4	12	26	7	6	0
5	10	20	16	5	0
6	7	23	12	9	0
7	6	20	20	5	0
8	27	22	1	1	0

Table 4.3.Teachers' Responses to Section Three (total 51)
SA= strongly agree; A= agree; U=neutral;
D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree

By studying Table 4.3, one can find out that there was no strong disagreement with any item and for other items the following results can be found. For item one "I am interested in implementing TBLT in the classroom" 23.6% strongly agreed, 58.8% agreed, 9.8% were neutral, and 7.8% disagreed. Item two "TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use" captured 27.5% in strong agreement, 49% in agreement, 13.7% had neutral responses, and 9.8% were in disagreement. Considering item three "TBLT activates learners' needs and interests", 27.5% of teachers were in strong agreement, 47% in agreement, 13.7% were neutral, and 9.8% disagreed with the statement. For item four "TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom" 23.6% strongly agreed, 50.9% agreed, 13.7% were neutral, and 11.8% disagreed. Referring to item five "TBLT gives much psychological burden to teacher as a facilitator", 19.6% showed strong agreement, 39.2% showed agreement, 31.4% were neutral, and 9.8% showed disagreement. Regarding item six "TBLT requires much preparation time compared to other approaches", there were 13.7% of teachers in strong agreement, 45.1% in agreement, 23.6% were neutral, and 17.6% were in disagreement. For item seven "TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements", 11.8% of the respondents strongly agreed, 39.2% agreed, 39.2% were neutral, and 9.8% disagreed. And finally, for item eight "TBLT materials should be meaningful and purposeful based on the real-world context", 52.9% of the respondents strongly agreed, 43.1% agreed, 2% were neutral, and 2% disagreed.

2. Student Results

TABLE 4.4
DEPICTS THE RESULTS OF THE STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO THE ITEMS OF SECTION THREE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	45	38	5	0	0
2	36	43	9	0	0
3	30	46	12	0	0
4	30	41	12	5	0
5	34	44	10	0	0
6	19	35	28	6	0
7	15	48	20	5	0
8	26	38	19	5	0

Table 4.4.Students' Responses to Section Three (total 88)
SA= strongly agree; A= agree; U=neutral;
D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree

Once again, Table 4.4 shows that there was no strong disagreement for any of the items in this section. Other results which were drawn are as follows. Regarding strong agreement, item one "I am interested in implementing TBLT in the classroom" captured 51.1% of the responses, item two "TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use" 40.9%, item three "TBLT activates learners' needs and interests" 34.1%, item four "TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom" 34.1%, item five "TBLT gives much psychological burden to teacher as a facilitator" 38.6%, item six "TBLT requires much preparation time compared to other approaches" 21.6%, item seven "TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements" 17.1%, and item eight "TBLT materials should be meaningful and purposeful based on the real-world context" 29.5%. Considering agreement, 43.2% of the respondents chose this option for item one, 48.9% for item two, 52.3% for item three, 46.6% for item four, 50% for item five, 39.8% for item six, 54.5% for item seven, and 43.2% for item eight. For neutral option, item one attracted 5.7%, item two 9%, item three 13.6%, item four 5.7%, item five 11.4%, item six 6.8%, item seven 5.7%, and item eight 5.7%. And finally, for disagree option, there was no disagreement for items one, two, three, and five, but for item four there was 5.7% disagreement, for item six 6.8%, for item seven 5.7% and for item eight 5.7%.

C. The Third Research Question

Section four of the questionnaire contained one yes/no question which was related to this research question:
For what practical reasons do teachers and learners choose, or avoid, implementing TBLT?

If the respondents answered 'Yes', they had to tick any or all of the five reasons that followed, but if they answered 'No', they had six reasons to choose from. Table 4.5 shows the number of reasons teachers and students presented for using TBLT.

TABLE 4.5.
THE NUMBER OF REASONS PRESENTED BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS FOR IMPLEMENTING TBLT

Reason No.	Teachers	Students
1	16	32
2	39	71
3	30	50
4	40	66
5	17	63

According to Table 4.5, reason one "TBLT promotes learners' academic progress" attracted 31.4% of teachers' votes and 36.4% of students' votes, reason two "TBLT improves learners' interaction skills" found 76.5% of teachers and 80.7% of students voting, reason three "TBLT encourages learners' intrinsic motivation" was voted for by 58.8% of teachers and 56.8% of students, reason four "TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment" was chosen by 78.4% of teachers and 75% of students, and finally, reason five "TBLT is appropriate for small group work" attracted 33.3% of teacher votes and 71.6% of student votes. The numbers of participants who chose the 'No' option is presented in Table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6.
THE NUMBER OF REASONS PRESENTED BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS FOR NOT IMPLEMENTING TBLT

Reason No.	Teachers	Students
1	13	28
2	6	23
3	9	7
4	13	21
5	13	32
6	13	28

It can be seen in Table 4.6 that 25.5% of the teachers and 31.8% of the students chose the first reason " not being used to task-based instruction", 11.8% of the teachers and 26.1% of the students chose reason two "materials in the textbooks are not proper for using TBLT", 17.7% of the teachers and 8% of the students chose reason three "large class size is an obstacle to use task-based methods", 25.5% of the teachers and 23.9% of the students chose reason four which deals with "difficulty in assessing learners' task-based performance", 25.5% of the teachers and 36.4% of the students chose reason five that is "teachers' limited target language proficiency", and 25.5% of the teachers and 31.8% of the students selected reason six which refers to "teachers' little knowledge of task-based instruction".

D. Investigating the Null hypothesis

The null hypothesis investigates:
If there is any significant difference between students' and teachers' reported perceptions of TBLT.

To test the validity of this hypothesis the results of the teachers' and students' responses to different sections of the questionnaire were compared separately. Table 4.7 presents the descriptive statistics for teachers and students responses for each item in section two, and Figure 4.1 illustrates the means graphically.

TABLE 4.7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS RESPONSES TO SECTION TWO

Item	Group	No	Mean	SD	SEM
1. A task is a communicative goal directed.	Teachers	51	4.39	.603	.084
	Students	88	4.28	.566	.060
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning.	Teachers	51	3.73	.802	.112
	Students	88	4.09	.768	.082
3. A task has a clearly defined outcome.	Teachers	51	3.59	1.023	.143
	Students	88	3.76	.858	.091
4. A task is any activity in which the target language is used by the learner.	Teachers	51	3.92	.913	.128
	Students	88	3.94	.764	.081
5. TBLT is consistent with the principles of communicative language teaching.	Teachers	51	4.20	.530	.074
	Students	88	4.15	.598	.064
6. TBLT is based on the student-centered instructional approach.	Teachers	51	3.82	.910	.127
	Students	88	4.01	.878	.094
7. TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task implementation, and post-task.	Teachers	51	3.94	.904	.127
	Students	88	3.09	.797	.085
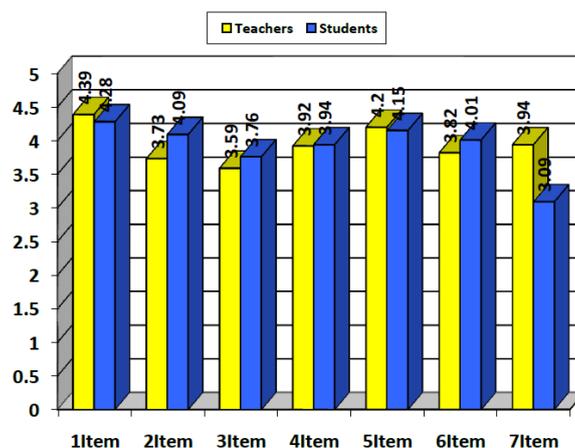
Figure 4.1.Graphical Representation of the means for teachers and students responses to Section Two.

As can be seen in the 'mean' column of Table 4.7, the means for teachers and students are different. In order to find out whether these differences are statistically significant or not, a number of *t*-tests were employed. Table 4.8 reveals the results of these *t*-tests.

TABLE 4.8.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TESTS FOR THE COMPARISON OF TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION TWO

Item	T	df	Sig.	Mean Difference
1	1.059	137	.291	.108
2	-2.441	137	.009	-.365
3	-1.068	137	.288	-.173
4	-.150	137	.881	-.022
5	.479	137	.633	.048
6	-1.200	137	.232	-.188
7	-1.016	137	.311	-.150

By investigating Table 4.8, one can find out that the amount of t-observed is significant only for item number 2; t (137)=-2.441, p= .009, but for other items the difference between teachers' responses and students' responses are not statistically significant.

The next series of comparisons were made between the teachers' and students' responses to section three of the questionnaire. Table 4.9 reveals the descriptive statistics for this comparison, and Figure 4.2 shows the means graphically.

TABLE 4.9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION THREE

Item	Group	No	Mean	SD	SEM
1. I am interested in implementing TBLT in the classroom.	Teachers	51	3.98	.812	.114
	Students	88	4.47	.586	.063
2. TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use.	Teachers	51	3.96	.871	.122
	Students	88	4.31	.650	.069
3. TBLT activates learners' needs and interests.	Teachers	51	3.96	.871	.122
	Students	88	4.21	.664	.071
4. TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom.	Teachers	51	3.86	.917	.128
	Students	88	4.09	.839	.089
5. TBLT gives much psychological burden to teacher as a facilitator.	Teachers	51	3.69	.905	.127
	Students	88	4.27	.656	.070
6. TBLT requires much preparation time compared to other approaches.	Teachers	51	3.55	.945	.132
	Students	88	3.76	.871	.093
7. TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements.	Teachers	51	3.59	.829	.116
	Students	88	3.83	.776	.083
8. TBLT materials should be meaningful and purposeful based on the real-world context.	Teachers	51	4.47	.644	.090
	Students	88	3.97	.864	.092
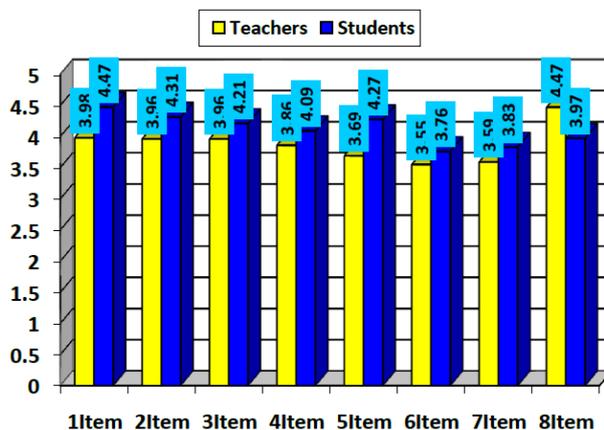
Figure 4.2. Graphical Representation of Means for Teachers' and Students' Responses to Section Three

Studying the means in Figure 4.2 shows that there are differences between each pair of means. In order to see if the differences are statistically significant or not, another series of t-tests was employed. Table 4.10 presents the results of these *t*-tests.

TABLE 4.10.
RESULTS OF T-TESTS FOR THE COMPARISON OF TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION THREE

Item	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference
1	-4.072	137	.000	-.486
2	-2.664	137	.009	-.346
3	-1.857	137	.065	-.244
4	-1.493	137	.138	-.228
5	-4.404	137	.000	-.587
6	-1.343	137	.182	-.212
7	-1.723	137	.087	-.241
8	3.628	137	.000	.505

As Table 4.10 shows that *t* is significant for items one; t (137) = -4.072, p= .000, two; t (137)= -2.644, p= .009, five; t (137)= -4.404, p= .000; and eight t (137)= 3.628, p= .000; but is not significant for items three, four, six, and seven. So the hypothesis is rejected with respect to items one, two, five, and eight, but it is retained for items three, four, six and seven.

A third series of comparisons were made between teachers' and students' reason for using TBLT. Table 4.11 indicates the descriptive statistics for this set of data, and figure 4.3 graphically illustrates the mean values.

TABLE 4.11.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO USING TBLT

Item	Group	No	Mean	SD	SEM
1. TBLT promotes learners' academic progress.	Teachers	51	.314	.469	.066
	Students	88	.364	.484	.052
2. TBLT improves learners' interaction skills.	Teachers	51	.765	.428	.060
	Students	88	.807	.397	.042
3. TBLT encourages learners' intrinsic motivation.	Teachers	51	.588	.497	.070
	Students	88	.568	.498	.053
4. TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment.	Teachers	51	.784	.415	.058
	Students	88	.750	.436	.046
5. TBLT is appropriate for small group work.	Teachers	51	.333	.476	.067
	Students	88	.716	.454	.048
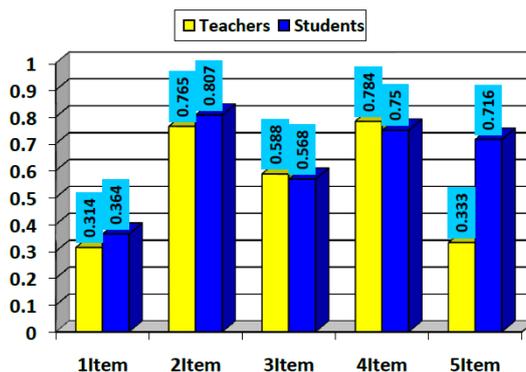
Figure 4.3. Graphical Representation of the Mean values for Teachers' and Students' Responses to Using TBLT

By studying the means in Figure 4.2, one understands that there are differences between the means in each pair. A third set of t-tests was implemented to check the significance of these differences. Table 4.12 shows the results of the t-tests.

TABLE 4.12.
THE RESULTS OF THE t-TESTS FOR THE COMPARISON OF TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES FOR USING TBLT

Item	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference
1	-.593	137	.554	-.050
2	-.585	137	.559	-.042
3	.229	137	.819	.020
4	.455	137	.650	.034
5	-4.706.	137	.000	-.383

An investigation of the information in Table 4.12, will find that the amount of t-observed is significant only for item five; t (137) = -4.706, p= .000, but it is not significant for items one, two, three, and four. Therefore, the hypothesis is only rejected with respect to item five, but it is retained for all other items. Thus, it can be claimed that the teachers and the students have almost the same reasons for choosing TBLT.

The last comparison looked at the reasons given by the teachers and the students for not using TBLT. Table 4.13 reveals the descriptive statistics for this last set of comparisons, and Figure 4.4 depicts the means in bar form.

TABLE 4.13.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO NOT USING TBLT

Item	Group	No	Mean	SD	SEM
1. Students are not used to task-based learning.	Teachers	51	.255	.440	.062
	Students	88	.318	.468	.050
2. Materials in textbooks are not proper for using TBLT.	Teachers	51	.118	.325	.046
	Students	88	.261	.442	.047
3. Large class size is an obstacle to use task-based methods.	Teachers	51	.177	.385	.054
	Students	88	.080	.272	.029
4. I have difficulty in assessing learner's task-based performance.	Teachers	51	.255	.440	.062
	Students	88	.239	.429	.046
5. I have limited target language proficiency.	Teachers	51	.255	.440	.062
	Students	88	.364	.484	.052
6. I have very little knowledge of task-based instruction.	Teachers	51	.255	.440	.062
	Students	88	.318	.468	.050
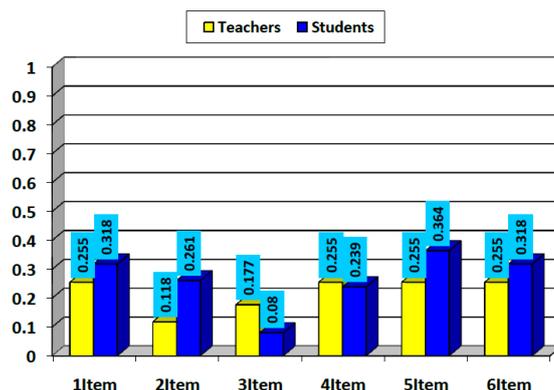
Figure 4.4. Graphical Representation of the Mean values for Teachers' and Students' Responses to not Using TBLT

Figure 4.2 indicates that there are differences between the means in each pair. A final set of t-tests was employed to check the significance of these differences. Table 4.14 shows the results of these *t-tests*.

TABLE 4.14
THE RESULTS OF T-TESTS FOR THE COMPARISON OF TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO NOT USING TBLT

Item	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference
1	-.785	137	.434	-.063
2	-2.025	137	.045	-.144
3	1.732	137	.086	.097
4	.213	137	.083	.016
5	-1.319	137	.189	-.109
6	-.785	137	.434	-.063

Through investigating the information in Table 4.12, it can be seen that the value of t-observed is significant only for item two; t (137) = -2.025, p= .045, but is not significant for items one, three, four, five, and six. The result of all these t-tests, sees the hypothesis rejected only with respect to item two, but it is retained for all other items. Therefore, it can be claimed that teachers and students have almost the same reasons for deciding not to use TBLT.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The analysis of results concerning the first research question showed that teachers and learners both had a firm grasp of the linguistic characteristics of TBLT which approves the teaching advantages of TBLT in learning a second language. These findings are not surprising and are in tune with the previous findings that have shown that teachers convey a considerable amount of practical understanding about the key concepts of TBLT (Jeon, 2005; Zare, 2007).

According to Jeon (2005), this could be the consequence of the shift that the Asian EFL context has made toward the use of a task-based and activity-oriented type of learning a language to improve the learners' communicative skills. This finding also supports the findings of the study conducted by Zare (2007), who examined the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners and teachers towards TBLT after they were exposed to and applied TBLT, respectively. The results showed that the Iranian EFL learners and teachers had a positive attitude towards TBLT.

Concerning the second research question, the analysis of results indicated that the participants actually held positive views on implementing TBLT in English language classrooms. They seemed to be willing to adapt themselves to the new language learning/teaching approach. These results contradict the findings of previous studies that have shown, despite the comparatively higher-level understanding of TBLT concepts, many teachers actually hesitated to adopt TBLT as an instructional method in classroom practice (Jeon, 2005). Jeon argues that teachers' conceptual understandings of TBLT do not necessarily lead to the actual use of TBLT in the classroom. This may result from the fact that most Korean EFL teachers still use the traditional lecture-oriented methods, which they are accustomed to, and furthermore, they have the psychological pressure of facing new disciplinary problems when using TBLT (Jeon, 2005).

The findings which relate to the second research question are consistent with the findings of Zare's (2007) study, in which it is argued that Iranian EFL learners and teachers who participated in the study welcomed the new experience. Zare asserts that the educational environment to which the people are accustomed can have some effect on their attitudes towards methods of language teaching and these attitudes can sometimes prevent or delay the acceptance of new methods of language teaching. On the other hand, he argues that these attitudes are not innate and can be changed through exposure to a new method of teaching.

In response to the third research question in which the practical reasons why teachers and learners chose or avoided implementing TBLT, the answers to the two open-ended items were analyzed. The findings revealed that teachers' and learners' reasons for willingness or reluctance toward TBLT application vary. The majority of teachers and learners were in favor of task-based methods firstly because of its collaborative and interactional nature and then its motivational

potential. While a large number of learners favored TBLT due to its appropriateness for small group-work, and for them this reason came before motivation. These findings are in agreement with the findings of other researchers such as Jeon (2005). According to him, Korean EFL teachers appreciate the fact that TBLT increases learners' motivation and small-group interaction.

The majority of teachers who were against task-based implementation, were afraid of being faced with problems due to not being knowledgeable enough about TBLT, limited target language proficiency, and not being accustomed to TBLT. There are still many problems that teachers come across when using TBLT which they can lessen by trying to understand its' advantages and to fashion a positive view toward it as an instructional method. Firstly, it's necessary for teachers to learn the weaknesses and strengths of a task-based methodology, and to understand its basic principles other than its diversity of techniques.

For the learners who were rarely trained in task-based learning, the most important reason why they avoided participating in task-based activities was that they did not find their teachers proficient enough in the target language. They believed that their teachers did not have the necessary experience and mastery to implement TBLT. Moreover, most of the learners were not used to TBLT. They were accustomed to the traditional lecture-oriented methods and teacher-centered classrooms. It is not surprising, because communicative language learning and especially task-based language learning are not practiced in the educational system of Iran. When it comes to task performance, learners do not have the required confidence. Therefore, it is teachers' responsibility to encourage learners, inspire their confidence and help them learn collaborative skills necessary for successful completion of task-based activities; because learners' active participation in task-based performance is the essence of successful language learning process. When learners understand that task-based activities are simply one of the many ways of language learning, they will effectively manage to deal will the tasks. Thus, confidence-building exercises may result in improving learners' active participation and a shift toward more learner-centered classroom (Burdett, 2003).

These findings are in line with those of Zare (2007), who proposed that teachers can hope to successfully apply TBLT in their classes while learners adapt themselves to this new approach of language teaching. This can be true not only at the level of private institutes, but also at the level of public schools. In other words, one can hope to institutionalize the culture of TBLT in public schools as well, though this process may cause the teacher to have to overcome some initial cultural and managerial problems. Moreover, it is clear that such a change can take place only gradually.

Although teachers are reluctant to use the TBLT due to the difficulty in evaluating learner's task-based performance, performance evaluation must be given notice. In terms of group evaluation, giving the same score to every member may be a downside of trying to have a reasonable evaluation, especially in high achieving learner groups. As a result, to intensify the participation and quality of involvement in task-based group work, the teacher must consider both inter-group and intra-group evaluations (Lourdusamy & Divaharan, 2002). Contrary to the inter-group assessment which uses the groups' products as part of the course evaluation which results in giving equal grades to all members, the intra-group assessment deals with individual evaluation.

The other obstacles mentioned by L2 learners were the inappropriateness of text book materials and not having a clear understanding of their progress in the language while being taught in TBLT. Concerning task-based materials, few teachers indicated that the materials in the textbooks were the reason they didn't use task-based techniques in their classrooms. This somehow shows that the present EFL textbooks available in Iran, many of which follow the principles of the communicative theory of language learning, correctly reflect the task-based syllabus which mainly concerns communicative skills and social interaction. In addition, it shows that at times it's necessary for teachers to redesign textbook materials to make them suitable for interaction and collaborative learning.

Concerning big classes which are mostly problematic to control in task-based group work, the teacher must consider each groups formation and presentation. Besides the fact that big classes are time consuming to prepare, task-based techniques can be similarly used in both small and big classes.

Considering the forth research question, the comparison of teachers' and learners' data showed that EFL teachers and learners have almost the same understanding of TBLT concepts. Only in one case the difference in teachers' and learners' perceptions of TBLT concepts and principles seemed to be different; that is, item 2 "A task involves a primary focus on meaning". The number of learners who agreed with the idea of the meaning focused nature of tasks was significantly more than teachers.

The next series of comparisons showed that there were significant differences between teachers' and learners' views on TBLT implementation regarding item 8 "I am interested in implementing TBLT in the classroom", item 9 "TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use", item 12 "TBLT gives much psychological burden to teacher as a facilitator", and item 15 "TBLT materials should be meaningful and purposeful based on the real-world context. It can be inferred that learners have more positive views than teachers on TBLT implementation. As the number of learners showing interest in TBLT implementation, believing in the relaxed atmosphere created by TBLT, and accepting the facilitator role of the teacher was significantly higher than teachers. Respectively, the result revealed that compared with learners, teachers agreed that implementing TBLT required more authentic and purposeful materials.

According to the results of this study, it can be claimed that all participants, teachers and learners had nearly the same reasons for choosing TBLT, and there was only a significant difference between the two groups for item 5 "TBLT is

appropriate for small group-work". Learners believed that TBLT was more appropriate for small group work than teachers. The only significant difference between learners' and teachers' reasons for avoiding TBLT was found in item 2, that is, "materials in textbooks are not proper for using TBLT. Therefore, it can be claimed that compared with teachers, most students did not find text book materials suitable for task-based instruction.

The findings of the study addressing the last research question showed that the existing differences between Iranian EFL teachers' and learners' perceptions of TBLT are not significant. These findings are clearly in contrast with the results of previous studies that have shown evident differences between the teacher and learners' perceptions of TBLT (Kumaravadivelu, 1991; Slimani, 1989; Block, 1994, 1996; Barkhuizhen 1989).

VI. IMPLICATIONS

Concerning the results of the study, some notifying suggestions are given to teachers and teacher trainers. First, because teachers' and learners' attitudes toward instructional approaches highly influence classroom practice, it is necessary for the teachers and learners to have a positive attitude toward TBLT so that it can be successfully used. Second, because some teachers know little about applying task-based methods or techniques, they should be given the chance to educate themselves in fields relating to the planning, the putting into practice, and evaluation of TBLT.

It is believed that the results of this study will have implications for syllabus and material designers and classroom practice. Once curriculum developers and syllabus designers come to know how teachers and students perceive task-based language instruction, they can take into consideration those perceptions and plan alternative materials and activities in their syllabi to make the language learning-teaching process a more effective and enjoyable one. Similarly, foreign language teachers' awareness of the way their students perceive TBLT will help them reconsider how to manage and organize classroom behavior and improve their practice. Even if learners' desires and those of teachers' are in contrast with each other, they can shift to a negotiated syllabus procedure and come to reasonable agreement (Jordan, 1997). Finally, given the novelty of TBLT in the context of Iran, this study will hopefully pave the way for further research on TBI.

APPENDICES

A. Teacher Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to examine Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) with reference to classroom practice. I would be really grateful if you read each item carefully and provide an answer. Your answers will be kept confidential. Thank you for your cooperation.

Section I. General and Demographic Information

Gender	□male	□female		
Age	□20-25	□25-30	□30-35	□35 +
Total number of years teaching English	□less than 2 years	□2 to 6 years	□6 to10 years	□more than 10years

Section II. Teachers' Understandings of Task and TBLT
For each of the following statements, please answer by putting a √ in a box, according to the following scale:
SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U (undecided), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Questionnaire Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. A task is communicative goal directed.	□	□	□	□	□
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning.	□	□	□	□	□
3. A task has a clearly defined outcome.	□	□	□	□	□
4. A task is any activity in which the target language is used by the learner.	□	□	□	□	□
5. TBLT is consistent with the principles of communicative language teaching.	□	□	□	□	□
6. TBLT is based on the student-centered instructional approach.	□	□	□	□	□
7. TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task implementation, and post-task.	□	□	□	□	□

Section III. Teachers' Views on Implementing TBLT
The following statements address teachers' views on implementing TBLT in the classroom. Please answer by putting a √ in a box that matches your position most, according to the following scale:
SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U (Undecided), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Questionnaire Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
8. I am interested in implementing TBLT in the classroom.	□	□	□	□	□
9. TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use.	□	□	□	□	□
10. TBLT activates learners' needs and interests.	□	□	□	□	□
11. TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom.	□	□	□	□	□
12. TBLT gives much psychological burden to teacher as a facilitator.	□	□	□	□	□
13. TBLT requires much preparation time compared to other approaches.	□	□	□	□	□
14. TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements.	□	□	□	□	□
15. TBLT materials should be meaningful and purposeful based on the real-world context.	□	□	□	□	□

Section IV. Reasons Teachers Choose or Avoid Implementing TBLT
Do you use TBLT in your teaching? □YES □NO
If yes, please put a √ for any reasons that make you decide to implement TBLT.

□ TBLT promotes learners' academic progress.
□ TBLT improves learners' interaction skills.
□ TBLT encourages learners' intrinsic motivation.
□ TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment.
□ TBLT is appropriate for small group work.
If you have other reasons, please write them down.
(   )

If no, please put a √ for any reasons that make you avoid implementing TBLT.

□Students are not used to task-based learning.
□Materials in textbooks are not proper for using TBLT.
□Large class size is an obstacle to use task-based methods.
□I have difficulty in assessing learner's task-based performance.
□I have limited target language proficiency.
□I have very little knowledge of task-based instruction.
If you have other reasons, please write them down.
(   )

B. Learner Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to examine Iranian EFL learners' perceptions of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) with reference to classroom practice. I would be really grateful if you read each item carefully and provide an answer. Your answers will be kept confidential. Thank you for your cooperation.

Section I. General and Demographic Information

Gender	□male	□female		
Age	□15-19	□20-24	□25-29	□30 +

Section II. Learners' Understandings of Task and TBLT
For each of the following statements, please answer by putting a √ in a box, according to the following scale:
SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U (undecided), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Questionnaire Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. A task is communicative goal directed.	□	□	□	□	□
2. A task involves a primary focus on meaning.	□	□	□	□	□
3. A task has a clearly defined outcome.	□	□	□	□	□
4. A task is any activity in which the target language is used by the learner.	□	□	□	□	□
5. TBLT is consistent with the principles of communicative language teaching.	□	□	□	□	□
6. TBLT is based on the student-centered instructional approach.	□	□	□	□	□
7. TBLT includes three stages: pre-task, task implementation, and post-task.	□	□	□	□	□

Section III. Learners' Views on Implementing TBLT
The following statements address Learners' views on implementing TBLT in the classroom. Please answer by putting a √ in a box that matches your position most, according to the following scale:
SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U (Undecided), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

Questionnaire Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
8. I am interested in implementing TBLT in the classroom.	□	□	□	□	□
9. TBLT provides a relaxed atmosphere to promote the target language use.	□	□	□	□	□
10. TBLT activates learners' needs and interests.	□	□	□	□	□
11. TBLT pursues the development of integrated skills in the classroom.	□	□	□	□	□
12. TBLT gives much psychological burden to teacher as a facilitator.	□	□	□	□	□
13. TBLT requires much preparation time compared to other approaches.	□	□	□	□	□
14. TBLT is proper for controlling classroom arrangements.	□	□	□	□	□
15. TBLT materials should be meaningful and purposeful based on the real-world context.	□	□	□	□	□

Section IV. Reasons Learners Choose or Avoid Implementing TBLT
Are you interested in the implementation of TBLT in your classroom? □YES □NO
If yes, please put a √ for any reasons that make you interested in TBLT.

□ TBLT promotes learners' academic progress.
□ TBLT improves learners' interaction skills.
□ TBLT encourages learners' intrinsic motivation.
□ TBLT creates a collaborative learning environment.
□ TBLT is appropriate for small group work.
If you have other reasons, please write them down.
(   )

If no, please put a √ for any reasons that make you uninterested in TBLT.

□Students are not used to task-based learning.
□Materials in textbooks are not proper for using TBLT.
□Large class size is an obstacle to use task-based methods.
□I have difficulty in assessing my own performance.
□Teachers limited target language proficiency.
□Teachers have very little knowledge of task-based instruction.
If you have other reasons, please write them down.
(   )

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The American Jewishness in Philip Roth's Fiction—The Thematic Study of *American Pastoral*

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Abstract—As one of the most prominent living Jewish writers in contemporary American Literature, Philip Roth (1933-) has been producing excellent works despite his 80-year-old age. He is a frequent subject of Chinese researchers, but among those literary studies of Philip Roth's fiction, Jewishness is not a subject to be discussed much. One of the reasons is that as an ethnic term, Jewishness is ambiguous in perception. As Roth persists with his American stance in interviews, literary discussions on his Jewishness seems to be more ambiguous. Nevertheless, Roth does not deny his Jewish root, and Roth devotes his whole life writing with the subject of American Jewish life. In view of this, there is a Jewishness that exists in his fiction which best reflects his ethnic ethos as well as the characteristic position he holds as a Jew and American writer. In analyzing one of the Roth's most important works in late-twentieth century, namely, *American Pastoral*, this thesis aims to put forward the idea that Jewishness exhibited in this fiction is Americanized Jewishness.

Index Terms—Jewisheness, Americanized Jewishness, the American pastoral

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, Jewishness is regarded as an inherited and inherent trait which indicates an ancestral background or lineage to genetics. For example, Martin Buber claims that "the ethnicity of Jewry is permeated in Jewish daily life. It is the basic construction of Jewish temperament which is decided by the particular bloodline and is affected by people's nurturing environment, language and conventions" (Buber, 2002, p. 12-15).

Here, defined in literary sphere, Jewishness refers to the mindset an author reveals in relation to Jewish culture or Judaism. It could also be the mentality of the literary character, or any other subjects which reveal Jewish life—personality, language, behaviors and so on. Focusing on Philip Roth's fiction, the Jewishness which suggests the common traits of these American Jewish characters is the American Jewishness. It retains the basic elements of Jewish ethos, which simultaneously absorbs certain ideologies of American thoughts. In character depiction, Roth focuses on those American Jewish characters who are under the impact of both Jewish tradition and American social forces.

To explore this American Jewishness in *American Pastoral*, this paper focuses on one of the aspects of Jewishness, that is to say, Jewish social assimilation. By deconstructing the stereotyped American Gentile image through the disillusionment of American dream of Swede—the protagonist of *American Pastoral*, Roth suggests an American Jewishness which is undergoing transformation yet is alert in questioning the assimilation act when American Jews are greatly affected by American materialism and liberalism.

II. THE DREAM OF PASTORAL

To discuss the downfall of the Swede's American dream, it is necessary to have a look at the Swede's pastoral dream and the implication within this self-transformation plan. In Sandra Stanley's argument, the utopia myth is "an ideological construct that foreshadows the demise of earlier stories of nationhood" (Stanley, 2005, p.5). Swede's utopia ideal of a pastoral life is accordingly his ideological construct of American Dream. It is invented, rather than discovered, and is expected to make real by the Swede's self-striving. Culturally, the Swede's vision of American pastoral life links closely with American Jewish experience in this country. It is a modified picture which reflects the early Jewish immigrant's dream of America as a modern arcadia, a picture of a life with the implication of male self-fulfillment and individualistic flight from the marginalized position in reality, and a picture of an idealized land where human's relation to nature is founded on harmony, order and simplicity.

To match with this utopia reality of pastoral, the Swede also sets up an American image, Johnny Appleseed as his self-making model. In the folklore, Appleseed is an American pioneer nurseryman who introduces apple trees to large parts of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. Because of his altruism and charity, Appleseed is made a legendary figure who represents the optimism and idealism of American pastoralism. What appeals to the Swede about Appleseed is that Johnny Appleseed "wasn't a Jew, wasn't an Irish Catholic, wasn't a protestant Christian—nope, Johnny Appleseed was just a happy American" (Roth, 1997, p.316). The Swede loves this image which stands for an innocent, childlike

version of American pioneer spirit. He expects his pastoral life to be the one which contains American colonial spirit of simplicity and pioneering courage.

Actually, the Swede's American dream with the Appleseed and the simplicity of pastoral utopia is affected by the historic time he lives in. The time when the Swede spends to shape his life vision is the patriotic war years of forties and the affluent postwar years. The patriotic aspiration nationwide helps greatly to obscure the ethnic difference between the Jew and the Protestant both in and outside the battlefields. When the war ends, noticeably, in postwar America, anti-Semitism declines to unprecedented low levels. The ease of ethnic tension is echoed in *American Pastoral* when Roth writes that "the post-immigrant generation of Newak's Jews had regrouped into a community that took its inspiration more from the mainstream of American life than the polish shtetl" (Roth, 1997, p. 10).As social tolerance expands and liberalism boosts up in American social life, the assimilating desire among American Jews to achieve the oneness and sameness in social assimilation is greatly encouraged. Under this historical condition, the Swede, with the original name Seymour Levov, starts to construct his American project out of Jewish anticipation of a better future.

To make this pastoral dream come true, the Swede has everything under plan, even if it would mean to transgress than to merely ignore his Jewish history. He marries a beautiful shiksa, Dawn Dwyer, an Irish Catholic who is the former Miss New Jersey. The Swede certainly perceives the seriousness of this breach when he persists in marrying a Catholic in the religious sense. Yet, as he believes America as the land of tolerance, he fantasizes that the transgression of marrying beautiful Dawn would suggest the one important achievement of his American dream—to melt down the ethnic difference. As to this, Shostak suggests that "[the Swede's] marriage is perhaps the most blatant symbol in the novel, since the man loved America. Loved being an American has essentially tried to wed his country in Dawn, the would-be Miss America" (Shostak, 2004, p.242). Shostak's observation touched the core of the Swede's American project in that he expects to live in America the way American do, if possible, excels theirs. In this sense, marrying Miss New Jersey and forming a family is one important accomplishment to prove his fantasy of American paradise.

If marrying Miss New Jersey is the core of the Swede's dreamed American life, then the Old Rimrock stone house is the material symbol to carry the Swede's fantasy of an American pastoral life. The 170-year-old stone house represents all the imaginations the Swede fantasies for American colonized pioneer life. To the Swede, the barn, the gristmill, the vast land, and the huge, vacant old house all suggest American history. "It looked indestructible, an impregnable house that could never burn to the ground and that had probably been standing since the country began" (Roth, 1997, p.190). As he idealized America as a land of innocence and simplicity, Old Rimrock satisfies the Swede's fantasy of America in serving as his "Walden-like retreat", "where the Swede and Dawn can escape their strictly ethnic upbringing and melt into the de-ethicized pot of the larger American society" (Royal, 2005, p.189).

With Old Rimrock, Dawn Dwyer, a daughter whom he named as Merry, and a successful glove business inherited from his father to signify his material success, the Swede's pastoral seems to be complete. The Swede truly believes that he is the self-made man of American. From adolescent time of being as the responsible and the perfect, the Swede acknowledges that "all the pleasures of his younger years were American pleasures; all that success and happiness had been American" (Roth, 1997, p.213). After obtaining all the material symbols of his American pastoral utopia, he is to internalize within himself a set of principles that is supposed to transform himself mentally into a perfect American. The Swede disciplines himself with a set of rules which he believes to be the liberal doctrines of American spirit—"to respect everything one is supposed to respect; to protest nothing; never to be inconvenienced by self-trust; never to be enmeshed in obsession, to be tortured by incapacity, poisoned by resentment, driven by anger"(Roth, 1997, p.28-29). Nevertheless, his utopian fantasy of building up an American Eden and becoming a natural American is ruined by his daughter Marry, who participates into the anti-Vietnam movement and explodes the local post office. Actually, it is this erring love for America and the Jewish self-discipline to modify him to be the perfect that pull him deep into the pastoral contradiction and lead to the final downfall of his pastoral utopia.

III. Misinterpretation and Disillusionment of American Dream

Although the Swede's fantasy of his American pastoral life is grandiose, it nevertheless contains a fatal defect which dooms his American project. In the assimilation effort to merge into the American mainstream, the Swede wrongly interprets American spirit. In Milton Gordon's analysis, America is a nation which "is constituted by the union of the different---that the American way--is the way of orchestration" (Gordon, 1964, p.147). The Swede apparently misses this point when he submits entirely himself to American materialism and liberalism. Out of misinterpretation of American dream, the Swede falls into two pitfalls. One is the historical disparity which prevents the Swede to merge into American mainstream; another is the Swede's effacement of his Jewish subjectivity in order to fulfill his self-transformation.

The Swede, in his effort to be civil and perfect to shackle as much as he can his ancestor's stereotyped personality, discards his link with his ethical history when he tries by every means to conceal his Jewishness. To find a new sense of belonging, he needs to build a new contact with the history that he intends to delve in. However, the American history which he fantasies to reproduce in his Old Rimrock house reveals nothing but the unsurpassable gap that denies the Swede's assimilating effort.

One important sign of this unmatched gap is the Swede's ignorance of the colonized history of Morristown, where Old Rimrock is located. When Bill Orcutt, the descendant of Orcutt Family in old Rimrock, shows the Swede around to

the hard industry, the mining, the dirty whorehouse, and the gravestone of Morristown in a sightseeing trip, the Swede finds that he knows nothing of the local history which he chooses to be a member of. Although he feigns in difference and hides his resentment behind a modest demeanor to Orcutt who speaks in an encyclopedia manner, proudly suggesting the privilege of the Protestant's genteel history, the immense contract stings the Swede hard. The Orcutt's two-centuries-old ancestry is a sign of the gap that Swede could never surmount no matter how hard he strives in his personal effort to perfect himself. And for this, the Swede confesses that "his family couldn't compete with Orcutt's when it came to ancestors----they would have run out of ancestors in about two minutes" (Roth, 1997, p.306). This disparity in history nonetheless shows that his pastoral dream of being the one hundred percent American is only a superficial dream.

The inherent difference in their background of growing up suggests that Jews could not be the American the way they are. So this leads the Swede to disregard his Jewishness out of Jewish community's aspiration to be assimilated. In Zuckerman's words, the Swede's desire to be the perfect American transforms him into "an embodiment of nothing". There's no human substratum within him, no subjectivity, "all that rose to the surface was more surface" (Roth, 1997, p.23) .What Zukerman, the narrator of the fiction finds is that the Swede's Jewish subjectivity is stupefied by Jewish community's false illusion of American dream. Because of his Nordic appearance, his strength, his civility, and his glory in almost every field, the Swede is lifted to the exemplary altar and is complimented as Weequahic Kennedy. In a sense, the Swede is the embodiment of the community's hope to be successful. It could be said that what suppresses the Swede's Jewish subjectivity is the communal motive for assimilation. Though personally, the Swede has an enthusiasm for perfection—law-biding and superior at the same time.

The Swede's disregard of his Jewish subjectivity is also exhibited in his blind conformity to American ideology. He subjugates himself to his father's authority by acting as a civilize son; he accedes to his wife Dawn's luxurious demand by acting as understanding husband; and he tolerates his daughter Merry radical speech by acting as the liberal-minded father. In a self-restraint to be modest , to smooth everything over, to compromise, to keep decorum, never to break the code, never to hurt somebody's feelings, the Swede practices American altruism by offering not only everything he could afford materially but his real self. Misguided by American altruism, he feels complacent about conforming to other's expectation without realizing that he is captivated by other people's mind power. Besides this, what the Swede surrenders is also his thinking power. When he misplaced conformity with altruism and misinterprets decency with unconditional tolerance, there's no more Swede left, only the passive entity who is "an instrument of history".

With a false assumption of American dream, the Swede finds that his life is a false image of everything. For the pure, overqualified fashion he envisions in his romanticized American life, Zuckerman obtains the superficial resemblance to this American life vision. As the term "pastoral" rejects social reality, once this utopia encounter reality, the aura of the pastoral dream would wither into dull emptiness. The Swede learns this truth form his dear daughter, who should be the one to complete her father's dream than the terminator who dissolves the pastoral utopia. Merry Levov, the Swede's daughter is herself the misplaced product of the Swede's American dream. Like Orcutt, who remind the Swede of the Protestant history that he could never be a part of, Merry is to remind her father the ongoing history in America that he expelled subconsciously. In the Swede's pastoral vision, Merry should be the completion of her father's American utopia life. Nevertheless, it is this daughter who introduces the ongoing American history first through her vengeful stuttering, then through her explosion, and finally through her conversion to a Jain. Actually, in the domestic clash with his daughter, the Swede failed to perceive that Merry's antagonism springs from her quest for self identity, which is the necessary part of a person's growth. The Swede's estrangement from both Jewish history and American reality results in Merry's loss of belonging in the sixties volatile social unrest.

The downfall of the Swede's utopian dream in the 60's radical counterculture also suggests the loss of American innocence, the illusion that appeals to American Jews in Jewish assimilation movement. This is what Elaine B. Safer's means by saying that the fall of paradise in American Pastoral may "connect to American repeated loss of innocence, specifically for the years in which the nation engaged in a terrible war in Vietnam" (Safer, 2006, p.94-95). For American Jews who are ready to adopt a new identity in assimilation, Merry Levov's bomb ends this fantasy by overturning order, reason and progress of postwar years with anarchy, irrationality and lust for destruction. In this sense, the social unrest in 1960s serves as an appropriate historical subcontext in the examination of Jewish effort among individual American Jews. Under the turbulent social forces, assimilation is expected to jeopardy.

IV. THE AMERICAN JEWISHNESS IN TRANSFORMATION

The unaccomplished assimilation of the Swede seems to suggest the incompatibility between Jewishness and American ideal. In this fiction, through the Swede's reflection of his self-transformation, Philip Roth delineates the contradictions in American Jewishness through the clashes between the Swede's ideals and reality, which in many ways indicates Jewish introspection in the succession of Jewish traditions and American moderns.

In the first place, the Americanized Jewishness appears in the emergence of an American Jewish ethos which is deeply affected by American idea of self-striving. In defining the Swede's dream of an American pastoral life, it is more accurate if it is named as Jewish pastoral because the Swede's yearning for American-styled life reflects Jewish communal aspiration to be better and smarter. For most of the Jewish immigrants, their value on thrift, sobriety, ambition and high regard for education has pushed their American Jewish descendants to obtain occupational status and

economic affluence in American way. With this communal aspiration to become a member of the mainstream, American Jews are developing an American Jewish ethos which values personal efforts in making a better life. The aspiration for personal fulfillment helps to produce a distinct Jewish generation who models American frontiers in setting up a new life goal of self-making, "something powerful untied us. And united us not merely in where we came form but in where we were going and how we would get there. We had new means and new ends, new allegiance and new aims---" (Roth, 1997, p.44). What Roth seems to imply here is that for American Jews, they are the heirs to Jewish history, as well as the contributor to American Jewish history, which is an inseparable part of American history. On this land, they are encouraged to transform themselves as once Protestant frontier do to determine the fate of their own lives.

Nevertheless, though this pro-American aspiration indicates Jewish achievement as an ethnic group, it could be hazardous if it goes too far to set apart from Jewish tradition. As in the case of the Swede, in the blind conformity to American altruism, he is stupefied in his superficial resemblance to American material affluent. The big stone house, the prosperous glove business of Newark Maid, and a shiksa wife fool the Swede that he could no longer detect the Jewish heart that beats beneath his American appearance. Out of the reason, Roth has Marry, the Swede's daughter, to give her father the sight "to see clear through to that which will never be regularized, to see what you can't see and don't see and won't see "(Roth, 1997, p. 418). The Swede is forced to retrospect his Jewishness which is blanketed with his American fantasy.

In correcting the misinterpretations of American dream and in retrieving the link with his ethnicity, the Swede meditates on his life in self-transformation. To exert oneself in self-transformation does not mean that one needs to sweep everything inherited from past. Merry, who rejects American materialism to the extent of bare life necessities, is to behave in shocking acts to remind the Swede of Jewish tradition of self-purification.

The American Jewishness in the Swede is also seen in the Swede's effort to combine Jewish spiritual pursuit of purity with American transcendentalist thoughts. Since it is Jewish tradition to believe in loyalty, social justice and righteousness to obtain spiritual purity, in his pursuit of an American pastoral life, in his pursuit of an American pastoral life, the Swede expects to combine Jewish high morality with American transcendentalism, the protestant spiritual harmony with nature. Like Emerson and Thoreau, the Swede expects to establish a pastoral innocence in harmony with universe as his high spiritual ideal.

Nevertheless, this faith in innocence is relentlessly mocked by American social impurity. The Swede expects to achieve this acquired American pastoral innocence by building Old Rimrock as the fortress to expel any social turmoil that may impure his pastoral life, yet, it proves futile when the hatched vehemence in the chaos of social unrest taints his innocence as well as his daughter's. Not only his stone castle of Old Rimrock fails to prevent his daughter to get obsessed with the immolation of Vietnam monk through television, personally, his faith in innocence is subverted from every aspect of his life. He consents to Dawn's facelift out of a wishful thinking that the operation would regenerate herself after Merry's runaway, only to feel betrayed when Dawn whines that she hates the old stone house. He accommodates Orcutt with demeanor, yet what this Protestant descendant pays back is to seduce his wife. In the chaos of sixties, the Swede finally finds that he could not reconcile himself with American reality.

The influence of American thought is equally exhibited in the way the Swede forms his own family. Like his Jewish ancestors, family is the deepest concern in the Swede's life. From very early in his life, he yearns for a role to be the traditional devoted husband and father. It could be said that family is the very foundation of the Swede's pastoral dream. The Swede has a secret wish to own the things that money can't buy. The "things" he refers to here is the Jewish Walden free of political and ethnic distinctions where a new-styled family of different ethnic backgrounds could live harmoniously together. And it is out of this motive that Swede marries a Catholic and has a daughter who could be "Miss American." Yet, in reality, this idyllic scene of a family gathering where a Jewish family and a Catholic family meet could only be realized once a year, every Thanksgiving Day, for an ephemeral time of twenty-four hours, "It was never but once a year that they were brought together anyway, and that was on the neutral, dereligionized ground of Thanksgiving, when everybody gets to eat same thing, nobody sneaking off to eat funny stuff----" (Roth, 1997, p.402).

To some extent, this amalgamate family pattern reflects the influence of American liberalism. Nevertheless, though liberalism in a long run is beneficial to American Jews, it could produce unexpected damage to American Jewish community if no limit is to be fixed. In the case of the Swede's family, Roth dramatizes how dislocated Jewish liberalism brings more damage to the unity of family than strengthens its binding force. With "everything permissible, everything forgivable", the Swede takes an absolute liberal posture in tolerating his daughter and waiting for her to outgrow herself. He expects his liberal practice in family education could raise a daughter who is free from Jewish irrationality and anxiety. On the contrary, instead of getting rid of Jewish constraints, his daughter goes too far as to smash every existing doctrine in order to seek her own sense of self. Merry's bombing is a direct slap at her father's pro-American way of child education. To some extent, this domestic contradiction could also be regarded as the clash between American ideal and Jewish tradition. As Mark Shechner argues, "Merry Levov is an Essene at heart, and it is to Essene asceticism and zealotry that she returns. She isn't such an aberration, after all, she is her father's unconscious; she is the return of the repressed" (Parrish, 2007, p.147). Merry is to remind her father the Jewishness that is suppressed by his American strivings. While the father considers that "everything that gave meaning to his accomplishment had been American" (Roth, 1997, p.213), the daughter hates the "rotten system that given her own family every opportunity to succeed" (Roth, 1997, p.213). In a sense, both the Swede's "loves" and Merry's "hates" are reflections of the

contradictory nature of American Jewishness. The Swede is the post-Jew disguised in his glory of American dream; while Merry is the radical Jew who repudiates her father's superficial assimilation.

V. Conclusion

In a word, the recognition of American Jewishness in American Pastoral is taken a spiral elevation as Roth discuss some of the problems occurred in the transformation of American Jewish assimilation. In depicting the assimilation effort of an idealized Jewish figure, Swede Levov, Roth indicates that the belief to acquire the "in-group" feeling of being a Wasp-like American is a romantic illusion made by American Jews. Since the Gentile culture is no longer the one worthwhile to be trusted. By deconstructing Jewish stereotyped American Gentile identity through the disillusionment of the Swede's American dream, Roth calls for Jewish introspection into the assimilation act to ensure the continuity of Jewishness in America.

Note:

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The Study of the Inconsistency between ESP and General English Course Syllabi for the Persian Literature Major

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Abstract—In recent practices on ESP materials development the overt interrelation between applied linguistics and ESP has been simply neglected through the widespread ignorance of prior consultation with ELT veterans in the field. This trend has resulted in educational perplexity for both instructors and students who are the core consumers of the ambiguously designed ESP output. Although there has been strong emphasis on the significant application of prior needs analysis and on the goal-oriented personality of ESP materials (Robinson, 1991; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), still insufficient attention has been drawn to these factors in Iranian ESP course book development. This ambiguity in ESP course materials has been partly due to the mismatch between the prerequisite General English course content practiced prior to ESP courses. Therefore, the present research project aimed at exploring the mentioned inconsistency for Persian Literature major in Islamic Azad University, Shahr-e Rey branch. To this end, the employed research design entailed mixed Method which included two phases namely; qualitative (interview, questionnaire survey and observations) and quantitative (frequency analysis and application of Pearson Chi Square).

Index Terms—ESP, materials development, applied linguistics, general English, ELT

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to widely ignored significance of the correlation between applied linguistics and ESP in Iranian academic context, great numbers of obstacles have been created for both instructors and students -as the target population in developing materials for ESP courses at universities. Although the preliminary stage to develop materials for any courses such as ESP is deployment of a comprehensive and appropriate needs analysis process in accordance with the educational objectives of various fields, still vivid traces of the problems in connection with teaching ESP can be observed. This deficiency can be mainly the consequence of the inconsistency between general English syllabus content instructed at universities (as prerequisite to ESP courses) and ESP course book contents in different fields. To this end, the researchers in the present project have tried to study such an inconsistency in Persian Literature major's ESP course materials.

Nowadays, English language has been considered as the medium for scientific and scholarly communication in the modern world of technology. Therefore, teaching English in general and teaching ESP in particular has found major priority in the academic world.

In countries like Iran the only place where students are provided with the opportunity to be exposed to technical English relevant to their prospect specialty is university. In other words, one of the current educational policies in Islamic Azad University has been the obligation for taking 5 credits of prerequisite general English courses for all the students of the various majors before attending the ESP courses. Therefore, it is expected to observe a close relationship between curriculum developers, Heads of English and other specific faculties, ESP instructors, Course book authors and syllabus designers. However, it often seems that there is an inconsistency in this regard. Thus, there is a real need for comprehensive supervision, study and analysis of the current status of the teaching trends and its impact of the efficient ESP learning outcome. In order to improve the efficiency of all the educational attempts in the regard.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research in the filed of ESP returns to 1960s.Since then, different approaches toward the issues concerning teaching English have emerged. For instance, Hutchinson and Waters (1987), see ESP as an approach rather than a product, by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. They suggest that "the foundation of ESP is the simple question: why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?" The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required and the learning context, and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP.

Later on, Robinson (1991) refers to the significance of needs analysis and goal-oriented feature of ESP courses. In all the available literature reviews, four main factors have drawn the attention of scholars; instructor, course materials, needs analysis and assessment (Duddley Evans & Maggie Jo ST John, 2005). Considering the fact that in our country, Iran, among all the aforementioned factors, course materials are the mere source for the student's connection to the ESP courses. Thus, in the researches carried out over materials development, particularly, ESP course books the emphasis on needs analysis, appropriate text selection, designing applicable and appealing tasks, integrating four language skills in connection with the specific ESP course (Mumby, 1978; Hutchinson & waters, 1979, 1980, 1981).

Unfortunately, in Iran, there is an obvious ignorance concerning the relationship between ESP and applied linguistic experts. Thus the materials and course books are developed without any attention to prerequisite background of teaching English in general and teaching ESP in particular. This trend has perpetuated instructors and students. And consequently has downgraded the educational efficacy of ESP course. In this research project, it has been attempted to propose educational and administrative solutions to Islamic Azad University's policy makers, curriculum developer and syllabus designers. This has taken place through the application of needs analysis and considering the learners' general English proficiency level.

III. METHOD

Situation analysis: ESP for students of Persian Literature

In the present study, the researchers explored the current status of the ESP course for students of Persian Literature in Islamic Azad University Shar-e- rey branch in Tehran. As a result, they could figure out that the course contents and materials were rather outdated, confined, culturally irrelevant and inconsistent with the needs of the BA students of Persian Literature on the one hand and the internationally expected qualifications for specialists in the filed of Persian Literature.

Research questions

Present study was carried out to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any consistency between Persian Literature ESP course syllabus and the officially announced syllabus by ministry of science?

2. Is there any consistency between Persian Literature ESP course syllabus and prerequisite General English course contents?

Procedure

To conduct the present study, mixed Method research design was adopted with the main focus on qualitative and quantitative research procedures in order. The study will be concluded with a critical analysis of the Persian Literature ESP Course Content. The following figure depicts the whole research procedure:
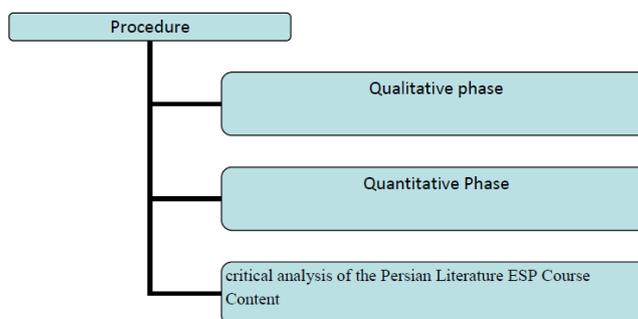
Participants

In this study, total number of 5 instructors was randomly selected from Persian Literature major to carry out the interview phase.

Then, based on the findings of the interview phase a questionnaire was devised and distributed among 250 Persian Literature ESP Students.

Finally, 5 instructors from Persian literature ESP courses were selected and their classes were observed.

Instrument

The instruments employed in the present study were interview questions, questionnaires, classroom observation checklists, course book content analysis checklist (Duddley Evans & Maggie Jo ST John , 2005).

Data Collection

Since the data collection in this study is influenced by mixed method research design, the following phases elaborate on the procedure.

Qualitative phase

In this phase the required data is collected through triangulation procedure as indicated in the picture below.
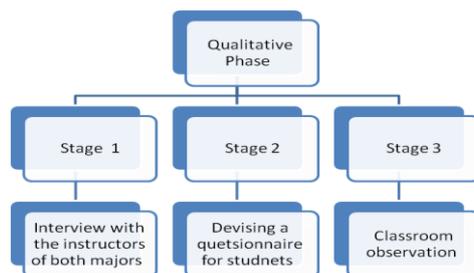
Semi-structure Interview

At the first stage of qualitative data collection, 5 Persian Literature instructors were randomly selected to attend a semi-structured interview. At this stage, the instructors were requested to provide the interviewer with information concerning the current status of the educational sources and materials for Persian literature ESP courses, the impact of these materials on the ESP students' learning and their overall evaluation of the status quo.

Questionnaire

According to the collected date and data coding in the previous stage a questionnaire was devised to carry out a survey on 250 Persian Literature ESP about the content of their ESP course materials, their individual learning rate in the class, the relevance of the material with modern literature, the attraction of the material, level of interaction created among the students due to the course material content.

Observation

At this stage, in order to evaluate the veracity of the statement on the two previous stages, the ESP classes of 5 instructors were observed (6 sessions per class). To do so, an observation checklist was devised based on the interview data coding and the result of the questionnaire surveys.

Quantitative phase

At this phase a Frequency Analysis was run on SPSS to generalize the findings of the questionnaire survey at the previous phase. To this end the responses of 250 Persian Literature ESP students to the questionnaires were measured. The results of this analysis are depicted below:

TABLE1.
QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY RESULTS

Persian Literature Students' responses to the questionnaire	Frequencies
1.I think the volume of the Persian Literature ESP course material is too much .	73%
2.I think the Persian Literature ESP materials are not up-to date. Moreover, the typing face and publication I not of high quality.	100%
3.I think I don't have a chance to learn inside the classroom.	90%
4.I think the number of tasks inside the Persian Literature ESP course content in too many.	74%
5. I prefer to work on activities in the form of test types.	100%
6. I think my Persian Literature ESP instructors' information is less than that of the Persian literature ESP course content.	80%
7. I think the grammar points are rarely reviewed and considered in the Persian Literature ESP class.	60%
8. I think our Persian Literature ESP instructor is an specialist in our field.	86%
9. I prefer multiple choice tests for the final exam.	78%
10. I think our Persian literature ESP instructors rarely give us the opportunity to participate in class activities.	84%
11. I think the Persian Literature ESP course content differs from General English and pre university English course contents.	89%
12. I think in Persian Literature ESP classes, the new vocabulary is instructed through translation to Persian.	100%

Critical material Analysis

At this phase initially the factual details of the course material instructed in Persian Literature ESP classes in Islamic Azad University Shahr-e- rey branch. The following table illustrates the description:

TABLE2.
FACTUAL DETAILS OF PERSIAN LITERATURE ESP COURSE BOOK

Factual Details
Title : Types of Poetry in English Literature
Authors: Manouchehr Haghighi
Price: Unknown
Publisher : unknown   ISBN: unknown   number of Pages : 100
Components: SB/TB/WB/Tests/ Cassettes/Video/CALL/ Other: None
Level: Advanced
Length: units: 8   Hours: 32 hours in one semester , 2 hours per week
Target Skills: English Poetry Comprehension
Target Learners: Students of English Literature (BA level)
Target Teachers : English Literature instructors

As it is depicted in table 2, the main pieces of information are missing and thus, the copy does not qualify the book to be selected for primary evaluation. However, the purpose of this research project was to elaborate on such deficiencies and refer to threats and the ignored opportunities.

Secondly, to develop a checklist to evaluate the target course book in the present study, the researchers adopted the ESP course book Evaluation checklist devised by (Dudley-Evans. T. & St. John M.J., 2005)and then to facilitate the evaluation process they attempted to reply to the evaluation questions proposed by Sheldon (1988). The reason to select these questions has been their comprehensive focus on the criteria mentioned by Dudley-Evans. T. & St. John M.J., (2005). Below you can find the detailed elaboration on Sheldon's (1988) questions.

• **Rationale:** In order to evaluate the underlying rationale of the target course book the assessor needs to study the availability of the pre-requisite needs analysis. In other words, this criterion can figure out whether the course book spells out its underlying rationale for the target users.

• **Availability:** The course book assessor needs to check whether the copies of the course book are easily obtainable and available. Moreover, he should investigate whether there are any responsive authorities (publisher's representatives) to provide users with further queries.

• **User definition:** The course book assessor needs to observe on the availability of the required specifications concerning the age range, culture, assumed background‹ learners' (users')entry/exit language levels, probable learning preferences, specialist knowledge (incase of ESP) for both instructor and learners (users) and educational expectations of the target users.

• **Graphics/ Layout:** The course book assessor should evaluate the layout and Graphics to realize whether the art work and graphics are appropriately designed and printed or whether they are enough appealing and colorful for the target users of the course book.

• **Accessibility:** The course book assessor should study the organization of the content material. In other words, to examines whether it differentiates the expected target progress and the progress already made. In addition, he should figure out whether the materials facilitate self study. He should also examine whether the course book includes any guidelines for the learners to explore the content.

• **Linkage:** By focusing on this criterion, the assessor can explore the extent to which the units and tasks are associated in terms of theme, situation, topic, pattern of skill development, or grammatical/lexical 'progression'. Furthermore, he can realize whether the nature of such association has been clarified through placing input texts and supporting tasks in close proximity. Finally, he will evaluate the level of the content coherence inside the book (internal coherence) and with other books in a series (external coherence).

• **Selection/grading:** Through this criterion, the assessor with evaluate how sufficient the presentation of the material in the content is. He will explore whether the introduction, practice and recycling of new linguistic items seems to be adequate for the target students?

• **Physical characteristics:** The assessor explores whether the course book leave enough space for note taking to facilitate both instructors and learners' note taking procedure?

• **Appropriacy:** The assessor will study how appropriate the content material is for the target course, if the level of the maturity and language has been considered? And if the language is tuned at the right conceptual level (particularly for ESP learners)?

• **Authenticity:** The assessor will evaluate the content authenticity.

• **Sufficiency:** Is the course book itself sufficient to be selected as the core and sole source in the class or there is a real need to prepare and support the course book with supplementary materials.

• **Cultural bias**: Is the content biased toward specific nation, culture, religion and society? How well have the target learners' expectations concerning the content, methodology and format been accommodated? How appropriate is the author's sense of humor? How appropriate the religious and social environments have been considered?

• **Educational validity:** This criterion evaluates the extent to which the content of the course book is inline with the concerns of the target board of Education.

• **Stimulus/practice/revision:** Through this criterion the assessor will explore the extent to which the course material encourages learners' interaction and promotes effective consolidation and how easily the material is retainable and remembered. Finally, he will ensure whether there are any achievement test, progress tests and self-check activities available for the instructors?

• **Flexibility:** Through this criterion the assessor will evaluate the probable practical constrains the instructors may encounter including the availability audio-visual equipment, visual aids, classroom environment, and time management.

• **Guidance:** Through this criterion the assessor will focus on the availability of teachers' Guide accompanying a course book. In other words, it evaluates the efficiency and sufficiency of the instructions stated as teachers' guide i.e. how explicit and effective the guidance is provided for the target instructor users. In addition, it will study whether the course book has presented any pieces of advice to the instructors concerning the type of possible supplementary materials they can provide or the type of various instructional techniques they can employ to teach the content. Moreover, the criterion will inspect the availability of typescripts, answer keys, 'technical notes' (in the case of ESP textbooks), glossary index, structural/functional inventories, and lesson summaries in the possibly accompanying teachers' guide.

• **Overall value for money:** Through this criterion the assessor will evaluate whether the selected course book can be prepared in a reasonable price, is user friendly, efficiently applicable in the target teaching context in terms of time, money and labor.

TABLE3.
ESP COURSE BOOK EVALUATION CHECKLIST

Factor	1st rater	2nd rater
Rationale	**2**	2
Availability	1	1
User Definition	1	1
Lay out/ Graphics	1	2
Accessibility	1	1
Linkage	1	1
Selection/ Grading	4	4
Physical characteristics	2	1
Appropriacy	1	1
Authenticity	1	1
Sufficiency	1	1
Cultural bias	1	2
Educational Validity	**2**	2
Stimulus/ Practice/ Revision	1	1
Flexibility	1	1
Guidance	1	2
Overall Value for Money	1	1
Key - Poor: ✦ fair : ✦✦ good: ✦✦✦ excellent : ✦✦✦✦		

In the present study via the application of mixed method research design(qualitative-quantitative) and proceeding through with the adoption of collected data triangulation (devising and carrying out a questionnaire survey on ESP students of Persian literature, Interview with the veteran instructors of Persian literature and TEFL majors, conducting series of classroom observations for Persian literature ESP instructors) and in accordance with standard indices of course book materials development and its association with general English and ESP education the three aforementioned research questions were addressed. According to the indices presented in L. E. Sheldon (1988) the critically reviewed Persian Literature ESP course content didn't contain the underlying rationale of the author to provide a clear road map for both learners and the ESP instructor. In addition, although the copied of the content material were available to all the students, it was rather illegible to the instructors and learners and it didn't carry sufficient space for them to leave notes. Moreover, the copes were authentic and followed British Literature culture and characteristics. Thus, it was culture-bound and irrelevant to Persian Literature. The copies did not entail a teacher's guide as well. Therefore, the Persian ESP instructors didn't have the opportunity to learn how they can deal with the tasks and the content material.

IV. Concluding Remarks and Proposed Solutions

One of the main purposes of Teaching ESP in Iranian Universities is training and promoting technical reading comprehension skills in English in order to instruct ESP learners how to deal with technical contexts relevant to their major. Meanwhile, one of the fundamental prerequisites in this regard is the deployment of appropriate learner needs analysis procedure to evaluate their general English level, their actual need concerning ESP after graduation before enrolling for the courses.

Thus, with regard to such consideration, the researchers in the present study came across a great deficiency and a gap in teaching ESP in general and teaching ESP to students of Persian Literature in particular. In other words, the absence of appropriate consultation opportunities with TEFL materials development experts and veteran instructors in syllabus design, materials selection, development and finally deployment has led to ample problems and deficiencies.

Although in Iranian context , generally ,there are TEFL materials development experts who are rather qualified and eligible to plan, develop, analyze and asses the educational content for teaching English to both general English and ESP students, their presence have been underestimated and/or completely ignored by the expert authorities in other majors. In fact, it is a simplistic view to consider technical knowledge of a specific filed as the adequate qualification for decision making in this critical condition which has embraced inefficient outcome for ESP education in Iran.

In other words, the imperfect selected course content and inefficient designed syllabus for ESP courses in general and Persian literature ESP course in particular has created a chaotic instructional atmosphere which is a real threat for the involved academic society

As a result, the researchers in the present study after exploring the gap and deficiencies proposed the following solutions to help the academic society to revise their perspectives in order to gain more satisfactory results.

1. The ESP course book developers and syllabus designer are highly recommended to hold brainstorming and consultation meetings with TEFL veterans in order to organize coordinate and harmonize their vision and mission, their strategies and target plans.

In this way they will be able to have homogenized techniques in preliminary recognition procedures, needs analysis, materials selection, grading and development and even on instructional techniques and assessment strategies.

2. The ESP instructors are strongly recommended to evaluate the ESP students' proficiency level before deciding on the course syllabus. This can be carried out by instructors at the very first session of every ESP course in the form of

oral or written tests. In this way the instructor would be able to tune their instructional techniques and materials in accordance with the students' level.

3. The ESP instructors are recommended to correctly put emphasize on the importance of teaching translation techniques and principles along with reading comprehension skills to ESP learners. Thus, the ESP instructors are required to be trained in this regard. This is particularly important since the instructors are only experts in the target major rather than qualified English instructor and they merely employ their personal translation and learning techniques as learners in their ESP classes as instructors.

4. In developing ESP materials typing, structure and international standards (ACTFL & ELTS) should be taken into consideration.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Analysis on the Personality of Maggie by Jung's Archetype Theory

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Abstract—**Maggie is the heroine of Stephen Crane's novel *Maggie: A Girl of the Street*. This paper analyzes the personality of Maggie according to Jung's archetype theory and comes to the conclusion that the deficiency on Maggie's personality is a main reason for her tragedy.**

Index Terms—**archetype, persona, shadow, anima, animus**

I. INTRODUCTION

Stephen Crane is the forerunner of American naturalism. His work *Maggie: A Girl of the Street* is the first American naturalistic novel. In this novel Crane portrayed the dreadful life of an innocent girl, Maggie, who lived in a slum of New York. Maggie was seduced by the bartender Pete and was discarded. Maggie's family showed no sympathy to her and did not allow her to return home. Maggie had to live as a whore and committed suicide at last (Stephen, 1986). This paper will analyze Maggie's personality based on Jung's archetype theory and summarize the reasons of Maggie's tragedy.

II. THE ARCHETYPES OF CARL GUSTAV JUNG

According to Jung, archetypes are innate universal psychic dispositions that form the substrate from which the basic symbols or representations of unconscious experience emerge. According to Jung's study, there are four types of universal archetypes: Mother, Rebirth, Spirit, and Trickster or Devil. "The archetype is a trend which could form some representations of motif (Jung, 2003). Representations can be various in details without losing their basic pattern. They are indeed an instinctive trend". The motifs are nothing more than conscious representations. Contrary to the deeper and instinctive sources such as the archaic remnants which can be called as "archetypes" or "primordial images", it would be absurd to assume that such variable representations could be inherited. Jung also described some typical archetypal events: birth, death, separation from parents, initiation, marriage, etc. Some archetypal figures could be mentioned as great mother, father, child, hero, etc. The archetype of initiation is strongly activated to provide a meaningful transition, with a "rite of passage" from one stage of life to the next. Such stages may include being parented, initiation, courtship, marriage and preparation for death.

Although the general idea of archetype is well recognized, there is considerable confusion to its exact nature and the way of how they lead to universal experiences. The confusion about the archetypes can partly be attributed to Jung's own evolving ideas about them in his writings and his interchangeable use of the term "archetype" and "primordial image". It may also be attributed to the fact that, given his belief that "archetypal symbols are spontaneous products of the unconsciousness", Jung was always intended "not to weaken the specific individual and cultural values of archetypes by leveling them out, for example, by giving them a stereotyped, intellectually formulated meaning".

Strictly speaking, archetypal figures such as the hero, the goddess and the wise man are not archetypes, but archetypal images which have crystallized out of the archetypes, as Jung put it, "definite mythological images or the archetype of order". Although the number of archetypes is limitless, there are a few particularly notable, and recurring archetypal images. The chief images are "the shadow, the wise old man, the child including the child hero, the mother and her counterpart, the maiden, and lastly the anima in man and the animus in woman".

The content of the archetypes is the collective unconsciousness of human beings. It also means the primary pattern, so all the similar matters imitate this pattern. It is the synonym of prototype. In order to understand the archetypes of Jung, a point is very important, that is, archetype is quite different from the memory image in your experience, and it is not a clear view in your mind. For example, the mother archetype does not account to the picture of the mother or some woman. It looks more like a film of your later experience. Some archetypes are very important in the formality of our personality and behavior. These archetypes are: the persona, anima and animus, and the shadow. Although archetype is a separated structure from collective unconsciousness, they can combine together under some certain circumstances. For example, if the hero archetype combines with evil archetype, maybe it forms a "brutal leader". If witchery archetype combines with birth archetype, the result would be the "birth witch" in the original culture. Since archetypes

can interact in different formulation, it works as the factor to influence the diversity of personality. Archetype is a general concept, that is to say, everyone derives from the same basic archetype image. The babies all over the world naturally have mother archetype unconsciously, but this archetype will generally turn to a clear image through the behavior, appearance and contact with the real mother. Different relationship between mother and child in different families may result in different mother images. According to Jung, as the appearance of the races, the diversity of collective unconsciousness came into being.

A. Persona

To Jung, persona is a mere "functional complex ... by no means identical to the individuality", the way of how we present or face to the world. It is a mask which protects the ego from negative images and according to post-Jungians, it is sometimes considered as a dynamic or structural component of the psyche. According to Jung's writings, the original meaning of the word "persona" is a mask to make sure an actor could act well in a play (Jung, 2003). There are also two paronyms: "person" and "personality". Theoretically, the persona makes a person have a certain kind of personality, but this personality may not be his real personality. Persona is just a person's publicly displayed appearance, the purpose of which is to gain a social permission. It also has another name "conformity archetype". Only when the archetype is beneficial for the individual and the nationality can it be a person's instinctive nature. Persona is essential for a person's survival, and is basic for social and public life. It makes us get along well with the others even someone we dislike, and makes a person's aim come true. For example, if a young man wants to gain achievement in his company, he should first know what kind of role he should play in the company, and what he should pay attention including behavior, appearance, modesty, his policy, his car, his wife as well as some other factors which are important to the company. And of course, he should first be hard-working, reliable, active, but all these are just a part of persona. If a young man can not play his role well in the company, he will not get any promotion and even be fired. Everyone may have one different persona, at work, at home, or with friends. They could change their masks, and all these masks make his adaptation to different situations in different ways. People have seen this as a key condition, but before Jung, it is not mentioned. This adaptation is an instinctive archetype. Persona sometimes is beneficial, and sometimes harmful. If a person is too much addicted to the role he is playing, the other aspects of his personality would be excluded. He will stay in a very tense state because his strong persona is contradicted with his other weak sides in his personality. If a person confirms his persona too much, it is "inflation". He will be proud of what he is trying to be or act, and enforce this role to others. All the laws and customs actually are the display of collective persona. These laws and customs enforce some certain behavior patterns to the whole collective without the consideration of the need of the individual, which means that inflation of persona will do harm to people's psychological factors. On the other hand, the victims are also themselves for the inflation ones. If they could not get what they require, they would feel pessimistic and pitiful for themselves.

Jung has enough time and condition to make research on the bad effect of people with inflation for most of his patients are victims of inflation. All these patients are from high occupations, but they suddenly find that their lives are very empty and meaningless. Usually when they come to the middle age, they feel the crisis from the persona of inflation. The therapy of the patients is to restrain the persona of inflation, and free all the other personas, no matter good or bad. Therefore a way should be sought to keep balance among all the personas.

B. Shadow

Shadow refers to the opposite of the ego image, often containing qualities that the ego does not identify with but possesses nonetheless. Shadow contains human's animal features more than any other archetype, and it may be the strongest and most dangerous archetype for it has profound basis during the evolution of human beings. It is the origin of all the good and bad things which are usually shown in the relationship between the same sexes. Jung considered the shadow to be the undeveloped suppressed mental functions (usually one or two of them) which could be released in a period of extreme stress. If some functions are undeveloped, and have no form of sublimation, they are suppressed. Under great stress, the person may not be able to hold them anymore, so that the shadow gets out. This can be verified in the fact that the person acts according to opposite type. In this case neither was under great stress, at least not from the issues involved. What they have done has been pretty consistent in their behaviors towards those who disagree with them even if it was a minute point. However, this does not mean that there is no great stress in their lives in other areas and that it is manifested on the net due to the ability to be anonymous to many people. According to Jung, if it is not stress, it is not shadow. Then Jung said that stress is the obstacle. This seems a bit absurd. Stress can bring out the best in a person or the worst. Jung calls the shadow the undeveloped processes coming out uncontrolled. This only happens under stress, for the immature processes are either suppressed or controlled. Basically, the stress makes it harder and even impossible for the person to continue suppression. The shadow is too strong to be suppressed. The following example is a good explanation. A farmer might be called by inspiration to become a poet, but the farmer did not feel that the calling was sensible. Because his persona was very strong, he always rejected the voice from the heart. But the voice disturbed his mood constantly till one day he took up his pen. Shadow always adheres to certain ideas or imagination which can be eventually proved to be beneficial or harmful. When shadow cooperates with ego perfectly, human could feel dynamic, which is the time when ego does not stop but lead the vitality to release from the instinct, which makes the spiritual activities become rich and vigorous. So it is not strange that creative people whose shadow can suppress his

ego at any time are always full of animal features and look strange.

C.   Anima and Animus

Animus is the masculine image in a woman's psyche. Persona is a publicly displayed aspect. Jung called it as "outward face" of spirit, and he called anima of male and animus of female as "inward face". Anima is the female aspect of male, and animus is the male aspects of female, as every person may have opposite sex features. From the biological aspect, both male and female secrete masculine hormones and feminine hormones. From the psychological aspect, human's emotion has bisexual tends. For thousands of years, male has anima archetype by interacting with female, and female has animus archetype by interacting with male. This anti-sex keeps balance and understanding between male and female. Anima and Animus should be displayed in individual's consciousness and behavior. If a male only shows his masculine feature, his feminine feature will be hidden in his unconsciousness, which makes him weak and sensitive unconsciously. Therefore some masculine people in fact are very weak and tender in the inner heart. Every male has a permanent female spirit in the inner heart. This is not some certain female image, but a female spirit which is unconscious and carved in the male's body as an original genetic element. According to Jung, male naturally has female spirit, and he will set a kind of standard which will influence his option of female, and determine whether he likes or dislikes some girl. The first anima inflection is usually his mother, and the first inflection of animus is always the father. After that, anima archetype will be inflected to a woman, who could arouse his emotion. If the male feel a passionate attraction, the woman must have the same anima spirit with the male. Many people are the victims of personas. But anima and animus are quite different. The two archetypes can not get sufficient development, for in the culture, people usually focus on the consistence of the characters and discriminate the female features on the males or the male features on the females. Such discrimination begins at a person's childhood. People always hope that man is the traditional man and woman the traditional woman, so the persona occupies and constrains the anima and animus. The contradiction between persona and anima and animus would result in the revenge of anima and animus. Under such circumstances, human will go to another extreme.

III.   THE ARCHETYPE OF MAGGIE

The persona of Maggie is beautiful and pure. Maggie is a kind girl. It is said that she is just like a flower in the mud. The shadow of Maggie is embodied in her behavior especially her unconscious impulse. Such kind of impulse made her love Pete for the first sight without noting that Pete was a playboy and had many affairs with a lot of women. Maggie loved him and believed that Pete was her ideal man, which was an important reason for her destiny (Fryer, 1976). The animus of Maggie could be seen in her courage to pursue love. In order to help the family, Maggie went out to work in a dreadful factory and had to endure the unfair treatment from the Boss. To pursue love was a relief of the pain she suffered in her work.

A.   The Influence of Persona on Maggie

What should be mentioned again is that persona is the aspect that people display publicly in order to get an approval from the society, so it can also be called "conformity archetype". The function of persona in personality can be both beneficial and harmful. If a person excessively addicts to or accept the only role he plays, the other aspects of the personality will be excluded. The person who is controlled by persona will live in tension of conflict between the developed persona and undeveloped other aspects in personality. If an individual extremely conducts self-identity of persona, the circumstance is called "inflation" and the individual usually impose the role on others. The inflation of persona will do harm to the mental health (James, 1983). Maggie played the role of persona as a good girl. She was tender, demure, sensitive and innocent, but these characters were also the persona of weakness and made her conceited. She looked forward to the rich life of the upper class. After she met Pete the bartender, she reflected upon the collar-and-cuff factory. It began to appear in her mind as a dreary place of endless grinding. Pete's elegant occupation brought him, no doubt, into contact with people who had money and manners. It was probable that he had a large acquaintance with pretty girls. He must have great sums of money to spend. When she saw him twice and he wore a different suit each time, Maggie had a dim impression that his wardrobe was prodigious. To Maggie the world is full of hardship and insult, so her instant admiration for a man made her full of fantasy. When she saw him, her eyes dwelt wonderingly and rather wistfully upon Pete's face. She looked keenly at him, occasionally wondering if he was feeling contempt. She perceived that here was the ideal man. Her dim thoughts were often searching for faraway lands where the little hills sing together in the morning. Under the trees of her dream gardens there was always a lover. The love and admiration for Pete made him take good advantage. She identified herself as a good girl more than everything. This meant that her persona was very strong. Even when she was seduced by Pete, she still faced everything with her weakness. When she was forlorn, she came to Pete, but the bartender made a violent gesture of impatience and cried with an air of injury. When she came back to her family, she was refused and cursed by her mother and brother. It seemed that everyone around her duped her, and in the process of her pursuit of happiness, her weakness made her unable to fight against the fate thoroughly. When she was abandoned by everyone, she was in despair. She had no way to go and committed suicide. From this aspect, her weakness and kindness caused her tragedy.

B.   The Influence of Shadow on Maggie

Shadow provides people with natural wisdom which is more profound than any knowledge or culture. Shadow usually involves some concept or image, which may be both beneficial and harmful to human beings. When shadow and ego cooperate with each other harmoniously, and ego does not stop but supervise the vitality to release from the instinct, shadow is characterized. Shadow contains the basic and normal instinct and it is the source of insight and reaction force. People may encounter some circumstances that need a rapid response when there is not enough time to analyze or consider the situation to respond appropriately. Under such circumstance, shadow or the unconsciousness will make reaction to the situation with a unique mode. If shadow has been characterized, it will react in a proper way. If shadow has been suffering from depression all the time, this instinctive catharsis will cause a person to be incapable of action. Simply speaking, to some extent shadow is the unconsciousness of a person. It is his heart, his impulse to do something.

For Maggie, it is believed that her sudden curiosity to Pete made her fall into the tragedy of death. The hardship and poverty of her life made Maggie have an instinct desire for a better life, so when she saw Pete, she could not hold her impulse to admire him, for her, his mannerisms stamped him as a man who had a correct sense of his personal superiority. There were valor and contempt for circumstances in the glance of his eye. He waved his hands like a man of his world who dismisses religion and philosophy. He had certainly seen everything, and with each curl of his lip he declared that it amounted to nothing. Maggie thought he must be a very "elegant" bartender. Her shadow, which was not individualized, made her unable to make a correct judgment on Pete. She did not realize that Pete was a playboy and had affaires with a lot of women. He was almost as obscene as a pimp. She took Pete's boasting as truth, and thought he was a formidable man who disdained the strength of the world. He was one who had contempt for brass-clothed power, one whose knuckles could ring defiantly against the granite of law. He was a knight.

Pete took her to see the show of orchestra. In fact it was a very vulgar show. A girl in pink dress with short skirts, galloped upon the stage, and sang in brazen soprano tones…she divulged the fact that she was attired in some half dozen skirts. It was patent that any one of them would have proved adequate for the purpose for which skirts were intended. An occasional man bent forward, intent upon the pink stockings. In such a show, Maggie did not realize it was a low place with frivolous show. She told Pete it was so great and wondered at the splendor of the costume and lost herself in calculations of the cost of the silks and laces (Vincent, 1993). Naturally, she was keen to the city entertainment life, and she wanted to live a life with much money, but her shadow or her instinct did not make a correct judgment on the temptation of such life. Eventually, her desire ruined her.

C.   The Influence of Animus on Maggie

Anima and animus always reflect to the opposite sex and decide the quality of the gender relations. It should be known that everyone is born with certain features of the opposite sex biologically and psychologically. For thousands of years, female form their animus by contacting with the male. Both male and female gain the features of the opposite sex which guarantees the coordination and understanding between the sexes. It should be allowed to develop the male character in female or the female character in male. The opposite sex factor always remains in the unconsciousness. People with manhood on the surface may be quite weak and tender in the heart, but people with womanhood on the surface may be proud and headstrong unconsciously. According to Jung, animus will influence what kind of man a woman will choose. On this aspect, the animus of Maggie influenced her fate. She loved Pete at the first sight, that is to say, Pete must have the same feature as her animus, and Pete was quite complementary with the persona of Maggie. For Maggie the soft girl, Pete was a man with persona superiority and had certainly seen everything; and as he became aware that she was listening to him closely, he grew still more eloquent in his descriptions of his various happenings in his career. All these features which existed in Maggie's unconsciousness were what Maggie looked forward to, and it made her admire him deeply. It was Maggie's Animus that leads her to choose Pete as a lover or she would not fall to the prostitution.

IV.   CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, we can conclude that personality is one reason for Maggie's tragedy. She wanted to pursue a happy life, but she could not find a good way to gain it. She hoped that her boyfriend would bring good luck to her, but she could not see through the real nature of him and thus led to her tragic end. As a woman, she should control her fate by herself and do not depend on others. Only in this way can happy life come to a woman like Maggie.

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The Iranian High School Students' Attitude toward CALL and the Use of CALL for EFL Receptive Skills

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Abstract—Computer-assisted language learning has received respectable amount of attention among researchers and language teachers. In this regard, innumerable large or small-scale projects blazed a trail for other teachers to follow. The present study is primarily concerned with the students' attitudes towards computer-assisted language learning. Its main purpose is to investigate what the Iranian high school students' general attitudes are towards computer- assisted language learning (CALL), and using CALL for teaching EFL receptive skills including reading and listening. The methodology employed a replication design and questionnaire approach. The findings demonstrate that most of the students have positive attitudes towards CALL and using it in language receptive skills teaching.

Index Terms—attitude, Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), receptive skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Using computer, as a matter of fact, has been regarded as a revolution affecting all areas of human life throughout the history. Different communities continue to have much more interactions with computers. All aspects of life have been influenced by these changes. Along with this development, it becomes more and more important for different countries that their new generations being prepared to use, understand, and cope with computers in their lives and in their future work experiences.

With the extraordinary growth of computer technology, much greater attention has been paid to educational technologies in teaching and learning. Therefore, a great number of countries all around the world have incorporated computer into their educational programs, and tried to take advantage of the contribution of such an experiment in their training course. It is also one of the most attractive fields in the current teaching and learning trend and the matter which is generally thought about is that language learning could not be excluded from this.

Gradually, multimedia or computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has become an overwhelming trend and has been regarded as a major reform. It is greatly acknowledged that modern technology brings about noticeable changes into language courses (Xiong, 2008; Zhao and Liu, 2011).

Some scholars believe that CALL is in accordance with students' requirements as it supplies some functional and practical information. Taking a look at their findings, the first point coming to our mind is that CALL should be put into use more and more in various language classes. Being a stress-free environment and a more relaxed atmosphere comparing with the traditional classrooms can be considered as the main reason behind. Additionally, students' being dependent upon themselves results in more frequent interaction apt to take place between the learners. Also they spend much more time on cooperation having the classroom become a more student-centered than a teacher-centered environment because CALL increases their opportunities for working together.

According to some other research findings, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is remarkable because the students gain more self-confidence in learning language by means of computer and also they believe that their language skills can be easily improved using computer, through developing their way of thinking.

In our country, Iran, some procedures have been adopted to integrate Computer Technology Resources (CTR) tools into the curriculum in recent years. Nowadays, the Ministry of Education has facilitated the integration of computer-assisted language learning in high schools in order to make the conditions of students' education and training better and better and gain more advantages on a national level and also to increase the effectiveness, efficiency and creativity level of the future management system.

In great wonder, there seems to be a particular extent of resistance against CALL and its integration into our high schools' curriculum which resulted into an entire failure. There are some pupils who express denial at CALL that is why they believe it is something undesirable bringing some "luxurious" change forth. Moreover, as getting involved in CALL is an enduring challenge that calls for further time and persistence, there has to be remarkable number of

students who would prefer not to agree with it. And also, some large numbers of questions were put forth concerning the attributed effectiveness of technology for teaching and learning.

Studies on the causes and reasons of such a resistance or failure should be considered of great importance to language researchers and teachers. Many experts think that they should take the students' ideas and opinions about CALL more seriously into consideration because students are not only potential operators of the language learning programs, but also are able to control their learning. So, conducting some studies concerning students' insights and impressions was called to mind.

Thus, there is a must to take a quick look on some special matters that may impede students' understanding the exact role of computer technology in their learning process. It is also imperative to analyze the influence of some factors like gender, environment, computer accessibility and familiarity on students' attitude towards use of computers. The information derived from these local researches or studies would help us in recognition of the main issues restricting the use of such worthy educational tools in high school classrooms.

Correspondingly, this study tries to assess the currently existing situation having to do with students' attitude and motivation and clarify the problems they may come across.

Studies on investigating students' attitudes towards CALL are of great importance due to the fact that such studies give close understanding of the value of the computer for our students. This research intends to investigate Iranian high school students' attitudes towards CALL and using it for teaching language receptive skills.

Although there have been some other researches on this issue especially during two past decades in Iran, however, there are some significant factors which should be put under emphasis to illustrate the attractiveness of more and more studies on it. Firstly, it is generally believed that students' resistance towards using CALL can be attributed to computer anxiety or computer phobia. In consequence of passage of time, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has been developed; also computers have been being accepted as a part of family life and used by students all throughout the world resulting in decreasing amount of such a kind of anxiety or phobia. Secondly, as far as technology keeps growing, computer programmers will be more able to expand the attractive advantages of computer applications and software which leads into more interest on the part of students. Therefore, such studies on such an issue should be done following one after another.

There will be some suggestions or advice as the result of this study which may help the curriculum designers face the problems in integrating CALL into high schools EFL classrooms.

A. Statement of the Problem

English as a foreign language has lately found to be important to the Iranian people. That's why; it has become the language of choice for world communication, especially with globalization and tourism acceleration, and ease of travel. Due to that, people in Iran admit the need to study English more than ever before. Many students in Iran have a strong wish to become proficient and increase their English studies, believing that masterfulness in English can help them in earning a living, communicating with the entire world, and building a better future .Some sociologists argued that the multiple functions associated with the use of English in Iran have caused English to attain a dominant position in people's mainstream desire.

There is a huge amount of research that attempts to evaluate CALL from a variety of aspects. Chapelle (2003) categorizes the researches in CALL according to their focus of attention into three classes including the ones concentrate on the educational software, the learning task or task pedagogy and finally the pupils. While the majority of these studies respecting this issue focus on software design, looking for the possibilities and strategies with the greatest obtained success, the others examine the learning tasks identifying how to structure them to provide ideal conditions for learners' learning. Just a small number of them put the learners and their way of interaction with the computers and the given software under emphasis. Moreover, fewer studies take learner differences such as personal attitudes into account.

However, the attitudes of learners toward CALL could play an important role in language acquisition. Unfortunately, high school students and teachers within Iran lack important information in this area. For this reason, a research study which investigates learners' attitudes toward CALL in Iran may provide an empirical base for future studies on EFL learners' attitudes toward CALL.

In addition, as more and more institutions are being wired and initiating attempts to integrate CALL applications into their future accomplishments, it is important to assess users' attitudes and reflections and implement those tools based on a sound rationale.

Liaw (2002) found out that the more positive attitude individuals have towards computer-based learning, the greater behavioral intention they will have to use it and Ayres (2002) believed that those students who show high motivation and think of CALL as something required should also consider it as having a prominent role in the coursework.

Acknowledging the fact that effective exploitation of CALL and achieving the intended goals rely heavily on the students' attitude, this study aims to explore students' attitudes towards CALL.

B. Purpose and Scope of the Study

Probing attitudes directing at computer-assisted language learning was regarded as the main objective of the present study among a sample including 106 Iranian high school students. This study is different from prior studies related to CALL in that it was not concerned with how CALL affects student achievement; instead, the researcher investigated

attitudes of learners toward computers in general and, more specifically, toward the use of computers when learning language receptive skills.

Therefore, inquiring into the two research questions below can be the scope of the current study:

1. What is the Iranian high school students' general attitude towards the use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in language instruction?

2. What is their attitude toward using CALL for teaching EFL receptive skills including listening and reading?

C. Significance of the Study

Computers and CALL materials have been integrated into the education philosophy and especially into English language curricula providing learners and teachers a broad spectrum of opportunities and resources for higher language achievement.

Research on the effectiveness of new technologies, particularly the use of computers in language teaching, has been an ongoing process. Notwithstanding many CALL researches on the software, the task and the pedagogy, this study appears to be important since it addresses students and attempts to pinpoint their attitude towards CALL. Moreover, most of the studies involve participants in higher education like university students but not young learners or high school students.

Attitudes can influence an individual's performance when learning CALL, including the student's cognition, emotion, and proficiency. Since attitudes toward CALL could be either positive or negative. Attitudes toward CALL have a great influence on further usage of it, as an example some scholars believe that negative attitudes toward CALL may hinder computer competency. Thus, a study on students' attitudes toward CALL could be useful in understanding the relationship between CALL and student proficiency in learning. Within the learning procedure one of the most prominent functions can be put into action by attitudes. Therefore, understanding how different attitudes could be used to foster English language learning in school can be thought of as something required. Thus, a study on learners' attitudes toward the use of computers in English language acquisition should enhance the ability of curriculum designers and teachers to understand the students' attitudes toward CALL. Furthermore, it will hopefully provide relevant information for educators about using CALL in similar contexts. It may be advantageous for researchers and teachers who are willing to conduct a similar study in the future. It is also hoped that some benefits can be derived of the current research study by the teachers who find it difficult to encourage their students to study outside the classroom and also by those students who are willing to take control and manage their own learning.

On account of not having a clear and complete knowledge of the role of technology and also its capacity of being implemented in teaching process by the majority of high school and educational institutes' teachers throughout our country ,Iran, yet, there might be some kinds of directions provided for them through this study.

D. Definition of Key Terms

Attitude: Wenden (1998) has defined attitude as evaluations, valued beliefs, motivations, what is believed to be acceptable, and approaching or avoiding responses towards something.

CALL: Though Chapelle (2001) expressed Computer- assisted language learning (CALL) as an expression, accepted by all participants in Toronto convention at 1983 and put to some regular yearly revision process, referring to the area relating technology and second language teaching and learning, this study embraces the one put forth by Egbert (2005) which means language learning process in any environment with, through, and around computer technology.

EFL: English as a foreign language (where English is not the official language but taught widely as a school subject).

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Setting and Participants

Iran Ministry of Education has been trying diligently to integrate CALL in every high school all around the country. Information Technology (IT) laboratories have been built in almost every high school recently. They are equipped with some appropriate hardware and software supplies including 20 Internet-connected PCs and also an information sharing system which enables the teacher to put his data on the students' monitors or send and receive files to and from them.

This study has been conducted in these IT laboratories in more than 12 separate boys' and girls' high schools in different counties, districts, and villages of Yazd, Kerman, and Fars provinces. The students who participated in this study including 45 boys and 61girls studying in first, second, third, and fourth(pre-university) classes in those above-mentioned separate high schools.

B. Instruments

1. Instructional Software DVD

As mentioned previously, the students who participated in this study were studying in first, second, third, and pre-university classes. These students were taught by means of a series of DVDs involving supplementary educational software named Khat-e-Sefid (The white Line) in a CALL environment for about one semester. This supplementary educational software has been designed according to the standardized published book of Islamic Republic of Iran Ministry of Education. These series have also been verified, approved and recommended to every high school English

teachers all around the country by undersecretary of information and educational communication of the aforementioned ministry at 13 March, 2011.

2. Questionnaire

For gathering data, this study used a questionnaire as a data collection instrument. As O'Maley and Chamot (1990) expressed comparing with other data collection instruments, questionnaire can be regarded as a feasible and applicable way of large scale or large population data gathering.

The second stage of this study included the questionnaire (Appendix A). At the end of the semester, immediately after finishing the course, the participants were given an attitude questionnaire and requested to fill it out. The objectives and aims of the present study were also talked about. Moreover, the students were appealed to express their ideas and opinions about using CALL for training and learning English in our high schools. Gathering data from the whole population, the high school students who were described before, was the most prominent reason for utilizing a questionnaire for the current study. With the exception of section one which included some open-ended response items, the questionnaire was mostly made up of Likert-scale items. As Turner (1993) pointed out in determining opinions and attitudes Likert-scale items are regarded as a useful and effective means.

This study utilized a questionnaire which was comprised of four parts. Gathering background information about the participants, their gender, age, schooling grade, location and some others including how often they use computer or whether they have passed a computer educational course or not, was the main aim of the first section.

The students' level of computer accessibility and familiarity were referred to in the second section of the questionnaire. In this part, the variable of accessibility was directed to in the first five questions and the second five referred to the variable of familiarity.

The third Section was comprised of fifteen questions concerning their general attitudes towards computer assisted language learning (CALL) and the final section of the questionnaire included five items to find out students' attitudes towards using CALL in instructing language receptive skills, reading and listening, separately.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONS ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Sections	Section I	Section II	Section III	Section IV
Question types	Background information	Accessibility and Familiarity	General attitudes towards (CALL)	Attitudes towards using CALL teaching Reading &Listening
Number of Questions	9	10	15	10

The questionnaire was comprised of Likert-scale items (sections 2, 3, and 4) asking the participants to choose the item that expressed their ideas, opinions, and attitudes towards integrating computer technology in language learning best. These response items included 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'undecided', 'agree', and 'strongly agree'.

According to the following scale the mean values of the item responses were interpreted:

1) Strongly disagree was shown by the mean values between 1.00 and 1.80
2) Disagree was shown by the mean values between 1.81 and 2.60
3) Undecided was shown by the mean values between 2.61and 3.40
4) Agree was shown by the mean values between 3.41 and 4.20
5) Strongly agree was shown by the mean values between 4.21 and 5.00

It is worth mentioning that, the research design was a replication based on a study done by Bulut and Abuseileek (2006) that investigated students' attitudes at King Saud University towards CALL and to evaluate the items suitability and the rubrics clarity some professors assessed the questionnaire outline format given by Bulut and Abuseileek (2006). There were some items reworded, some new ones added, ambiguous wordings modified, irrelevant items deleted due to their comments and suggestions taken into consideration. Moreover, making the items clear enough to the participants the grammatical mistakes were corrected. After some modification to the piloted items in the general attitude section, Cronbach's Alpha was run and determined to be **.82**.Although, due to the limited number of skills items, for the receptive skills section Cronbach's Alpha was not run.

After finalizing the items in the questionnaire, it was translated into the participants' native language, i.e. Persian, as it was assumed that it would be too difficult for students in high school level to comprehend. Then, to be sure of the translation, the questionnaire was translated into English again by a professional translator whose English proficiency was high enough. Minor corrections were made after the result of this back-translation.

C. Data Collection Procedures

The following procedures were followed. First, approval from the Director General of Education and Training Administration was obtained in a meeting. The researcher called some other English teachers who taught using the supplementary software to request their assistance in administering the questionnaires. The researcher's colleagues assisted him in distributing the questionnaires voluntarily. After about one semester, in March 2012, the English teachers administered the questionnaire to the students. Then they described the study objective. The teachers emphasized to their students that not being a test this research instrument does not have any right or wrong answer. After completion, the surveys were returned to the researcher for data analyses.

D. Statistical Analysis

The scores, generated by a 5-point Likert scale, determined each participant's overall attitude. For the purpose of understanding the students' attitude towards CALL, in the third section of the questionnaire, for each of the items students' responses were summed up, and for each and the total, the mean and the standard deviation were calculated. In a similar manner, for the two aforementioned language skills, in identifying the students' attitude the same method was also followed.

Describing and summarizing the collected data properties the descriptive statistics was used. For all descriptive and inferential statistics, the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 was put into use, except for nine open-ended response items in Section One.

III. RESULTS

A. General Student Attitude toward CALL

As the participants' general attitude toward using computers in language learning was the main issue of the first research question (What is the Iranian high school students' general attitude towards the use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in language instruction?), identifying the students' general attitude toward CALL was firstly taken into consideration.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY GENERAL ATTITUDE

Attitude	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Low	45	42.5	42.5
High	61	57.5	100
Total	106	100	

The level of participants' attitude toward CALL was determined re-encoding their attitude according to the distance from the mean and dividing them into high and low classes depicted in Table 2, indicating that 57.5% of them show high attitudes toward CALL.

In order to answer the first research question, the third section of the attitude questionnaire which included a series of 15 items regarding general attitudes (See Appendix A) was also analyzed illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3
PARTICIPANTS' GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARD CALL

Item	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	SD
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
01	6	5.7	8	7.5	26	24.5	36	34	30	28.3	3.72	1.12
02	4	3.8	7	6.6	28	26.4	34	32.1	33	31.1	3.80	1.07
03	3	2.8	14	13.2	31	29.2	34	32.1	24	22.6	3.48	1.06
04	7	6.6	3	2.8	48	45.3	28	26.4	20	18.9	3.49	1.04
05	3	2.8	12	11.3	45	42.5	23	21.7	23	21.7	3.48	1.04
06	8	7.5	11	10.4	35	33	26	24.5	26	24.5	3.48	1.18
07	4	3.8	16	15.1	43	40.6	23	21.7	20	18.9	3.17	1.07
08	7	6.6	11	10.4	37	34.9	38	35.8	13	12.3	3.18	1.04
09	5	4.7	10	9.4	36	34	32	30.2	23	21.7	3.45	1.07
10	4	3.8	7	6.6	33	31.1	34	32.1	28	26.4	3.71	1.05
11	5	4.7	12	11.3	43	40.6	24	22.6	22	20.8	3.46	1.08
12	10	9.4	18	17	44	41.5	20	18.9	14	13.2	3.09	1.12
13	4	3.8	6	5.7	31	29.2	38	35.8	27	25.5	3.74	1.02
14	4	3.8	11	10.4	30	28.3	42	39.6	19	17.9	3.48	1.02
15	9	8.5	20	18.9	41	38.7	13	12.3	23	21.7	3.10	1.22

1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3= undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

As can be seen in Table 3, the overall mean for all the items included in this section was 3.45 on a five-point Likert scale; moreover, 11 of the 15 items on attitude questionnaire were found to have higher means than 3.45 which means that students who have been recently exposed to CALL in their language learning experience have a positive attitude toward their new experience in general. Therefore, students who have been recently exposed to CALL in their language learning experience hold positive and accepting attitudes toward computer-assisted language learning.

However, certain items had lower and higher means when compared with the students' general attitude overall mean. For example, Item 12 'It takes less time to explain something during CALL classes' had the lowest mean score (3.09). For this item, only 13.2% of the students 'strongly' agreed. Similarly, Item 15 'I do not have technical problems in using computers during CALL classes' and Item 07 'I feel comfortable enough to share my ideas in English during CALL classes' had lower means compared to other items on the questionnaire (3.10 and 3.17), respectively.

There were also some items which had noticeably higher means than the overall mean. Item 2 'After taking CALL courses, I know how to benefit from my PC to improve my English' had the highest mean score (3.80).

This was followed by Item 13'I have become a better problem-solver after using the computer while learning English' and Item 1 'I can access extra information more easily during a CALL class' (3.74 and 3.72 respectively).

B. Students' Attitude toward CALL for EFL Receptive Skills

The response to the second research question is considered in this section. In order to address this research question (What is their attitude toward using CALL for teaching EFL receptive skills including listening and reading?) or in another word to identify the students' attitude toward the use of CALL for the basic language skills of listening and reading instruction separately, specific language skill items were provided to students who participated in this study.

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD CALL FOR LISTENING SKILL

Item	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	SD
	Freq	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**		
01	4	3.8	4	3.8	18	17	38	35.8	42	39.6	**4.04**	**1.032**
02	4	3.8	8	7.5	28	26.4	43	40.6	23	21.7	**3.69**	**1.018**
03	7	6.6	9	8.5	36	34	26	24.5	28	26.4	**3.56**	**1.164**
04	1	0.9	3	2.8	31	29.2	33	31.1	38	35.8	**3.98**	**0.926**
05	1	0.9	3	2.8	21	19.8	39	36.8	42	39.6	**4.11**	**0.887**

1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3= undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

The general mean for Listening skill was 3.87, which means that students had a positive attitude toward CALL for Listening in general. Thus, Iranian high school students show a positive attitude toward using CALL for teaching listening.

Out of these five items, Item 5 'Listening via computers is more useful in understanding the content when supported with visual information' had the highest mean and the lowest standard deviation (M = 4.11, SD = .887). This shows that students find visual information support to listening beneficial which is quite easily possible in a CALL environment. The low standard deviation also shows that most of the 106 students included in this section homogeneously agree on the benefit of visual information support. On the other hand, Item 3 'I can understand everything the teacher says via headsets clearly during CALL classes' had the lowest mean score (3.56) among the items for Listening skill. However, such a mean with the maximum standard deviation (1.164) shows that students didn't have a good experience on hearing the teacher via headsets, possibly because of some factors like being novice or deficient equipment. Other items had mean scores that fell between the highest and the lowest mean scores just mentioned.

TABLE 5
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD CALL FOR READING SKILL

Item	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	SD
	Freq	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**		
01	3	2.8	8	7.5	21	19.8	31	29.2	43	40.6	**3.97**	**1.082**
02	2	1.9	4	3.8	29	27.4	33	31.1	38	35.8	**3.95**	**0.980**
03	7	6.6	14	13.2	29	27.4	25	23.6	31	29.2	**3.56**	**1.227**
04	3	2.8	2	1.9	24	22.6	36	34	41	38.7	**4.04**	**0.975**
05	2	1.9	2	1.9	25	23.6	38	35.8	39	36.8	**4.04**	**0.925**

1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3= undecided 4=agree 5=strongly agree

On the part of reading skill, the general mean score for this group was 3.91, and this also shows that the students had a positive attitude toward CALL. Thus, Iranian high school students also show a positive attitude toward using CALL for teaching reading.

According to the data provided in Table 5, the highest mean score regarding reading skill items was 4.04 for Item 4 'I prefer to study reading via computers' and Item 5 'Reading via computers is more interesting when supported with visual information'. As CALL for reading included annotated texts and electronic dictionary use, students had the opportunity to compare their new experience in that sense and found CALL activities for reading useful. They also ranked 'visual information' item at the same level, which means that students think that visual information which is easily presented via computers is supportive in their reading comprehension. The lowest mean score (3.56) was for Item 3' In reading courses, listening to the written text helps me comprehend better as I can hear the intonation, stress, ...' which shows that the participants did not always want to have their reading in a complete CALL environment, even though they had higher mean scores for other reading-related items.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

On the basis of the current study findings, it was revealed that students have a positive attitude towards integrating CALL into the curriculum in general. Moreover, investigating the students' attitude toward using CALL for teaching EFL receptive skills as the second step of this study , it can be inferred that the participants generally have a positive attitude toward CALL for listening and reading skills.

As Almahboub (2000) stated, "based on behavior and cognitive theories, students should like and favor the subject or the activities in the learning environment in order to develop positive attitudes toward learning" (p. 66). The findings of

the present study suggest that attitudes toward using computers in learning English are generally positive; thus, teachers should encourage this change in attitude for all students.

In this regard, curriculum designers should work hard with teachers. They should be concerned that the curriculum for students has sufficient references to the use of CALL in teaching English. Those responsible for curriculum designing should make sure that each skill included in the English program is taught along with CALL. The designers and teachers should also make sure that what is taught to students in the classrooms should be related to what is taught in the CALL labs. Their roles should ensure that CALL labs are connected with external and internal facilities not only domestically but internationally, including using the Internet. It is their duty to make sure that the curriculum devotes more time or extra sessions to CALL classes to cover all skills being taught. This means that the same amount of time should be devoted to CALL as to other skills. They also should ensure that the curriculum provides additional courses for students with a modest computer background, but not at the expense of shortening the hours scheduled for CALL.

Administrators of the ministry of education should understand the students' need for CALL in English classes. Once they reach this understanding, they should be willing to provide enough lab facilities for CALL during classes and students' free time so they have adequate time to practice using a computer. The administrators are advised to purchase the latest versions of CALL software that does not conflict with the domestic culture, an opinion shared also by Alkahtani (2001) and Al-Shammari (2007). Moreover, their policy should be strict enough so as not to hire teachers who have no background in CALL.

APPENDIX A ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPUTER-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Questionnaire

The Questionnaire On Investigating the Iranian high school students' attitude toward Computer-Assisted Language Learning

This questionnaire is going to investigate your attitude toward Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in English language classes. Your answers will be treated as strictly confidential and will be used only for this research. This questionnaire is divided into four sections. Please answer the items as honestly as possible. Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

With special thanks
Masoud Azizi

Section One
Background Information
Please check ☑ the appropriate choices and provide your answers below.
1. **Age**: 15-16 [ ] 16-17 [ ] 17-18 [ ] 18-19 [ ] +19 [ ]
2. **Gender**: Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. **Schooling grade**: First [ ] Second [ ] Third [ ] Pre-University (Fourth) [ ]
4. **Location**: Village [ ] District [ ] County [ ]
5. **Do you own a Personal Computer (PC)?** Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. **How much proficient are you in using computer?**
Very weak [ ] Weak [ ] Average [ ] Good [ ] Very good [ ]
7. **Have you passed a Computer Educational Course?** Yes [ ] No [ ]
8. **How often do you use computers? Please check ☑   the appropriate option.**
A) Less than once a week [ ]   B) 1-2 times a week [ ]
C) 3-4 times a week [ ]   D) 5 or more times a week [ ]
9. **What do you use computers for? Please check ☑ the appropriate options to indicate your frequency of use?**
Never = 1 Sometimes = 2 Often = 3
   1. Electronic mail [1 2 3]
   2. Computer Games [1 2 3]
   3. Online shopping [1 2 3]
   4. School researches [1 2 3]
   5. Typing homework [1 2 3]
   6. Entertainment (e.g. music, film, sport news, news papers, magazines)   [1 2 3]
   7. Voice chat [1 2 3]
   8. Personal site or web blog [1 2 3]
Section Two
For the following items, please **circle** the answer that best reflects your opinion.

I do not have adequate access to the computers.	1 2 3 4 5
No suitable educational software is available at schools.	1 2 3 4 5
No suitable training opportunities are provided at schools.	1 2 3 4 5
School management does not provide us with equipped and sufficient computer labs.	1 2 3 4 5
School management does not provide us with any specialized supervisor in computer labs.	1 2 3 4 5
I do not know how to make use of computers.	1 2 3 4 5
I did not receive sufficient training to make use of computers.	1 2 3 4 5
It is not easy for me to get the information from the computer.	1 2 3 4 5
It is not easy for me to get the computer to do what I want to do.	1 2 3 4 5
My interaction with the computers is not clear and understandable.	1 2 3 4 5

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree

Section Three

For the following items, please **circle** the answer that best reflects your opinion.

I can access extra information more easily during a CALL class.	1 2 3 4 5
After taking CALL courses, I know how to benefit from my PC to improve my English.	1 2 3 4 5
CALL is a stress-free environment to learn English.	1 2 3 4 5
I can get more feedback in CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5
CALL is a more casual way of learning.	1 2 3 4 5
I benefit more from the group/pair work in a CALL class.	1 2 3 4 5
I feel comfortable enough to share my ideas in English during CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5
My achievement can be measured in different ways in a CALL class.	1 2 3 4 5
I can practice all language skills in a CALL environment.	1 2 3 4 5
I know more about how to use computers after having taken CALL courses.	1 2 3 4 5
I can understand everything we do in CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5
It takes less time to explain something during CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5
I have become a better problem-solver after using the computer while learning English.	1 2 3 4 5
CALL has helped me become an independent learner.	1 2 3 4 5
I do not have technical problems in using computers during CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree

Section Four

Attitude items for EFL receptive skills

For the following items, please **circle** the answer that best reflects your opinion.

STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD CALL FOR LISTENING SKILL

I prefer computers to tape recorders in listening in listening classes.	1 2 3 4 5
Sound is clearer via computers in listening classes.	1 2 3 4 5
I can understand everything the teacher says via headsets clearly during CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5
Computers help me identify the key words when listening is supported with visual activities.	1 2 3 4 5
Listening via computers is more useful in understanding the content when supported with visual information.	1 2 3 4 5

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree

STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD CALL FOR READING SKILL

It is easy to access the meaning of words while reading in CALL classes.	1 2 3 4 5
Computer activities make our job easier in reading textbooks.	1 2 3 4 5
In reading courses, listening to the written text helps me comprehend better as I can hear the intonation, stress…	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to study reading via computers.	1 2 3 4 5
Reading via computers is more interesting when supported with visual information.	1 2 3 4 5

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An Experimental Study of Interactive and Cooperative English Writing Strategy under Network Environment

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Abstract—The college English writing strategy and the students' performance in English writing are two problems puzzling the foreign language researching and teaching staff in China. The paper aims to find some effective strategies to unravel this obsession. According to the successful practice of Experiencing English Writing Platform in Tsinghua University, and based on a series of theories of the Mediated Learning Experience, the Constructivism, and the structure creation, the author proposes the interactive and cooperative writing strategy under network environment. This writing strategy revolutionizes the traditional teaching pattern mainly recurring to blackboard and teacher's unitary evaluation; it takes advantage of self-study platform, QQ group software, and E-mail system to realize scripless, instant and interactive writing training and evaluation. The main purpose of the strategy is, on one hand, to reduce the teachers' workload in making comment and correction, helping them focus on the writing content and process rather than language form and product; on the other hand, to promote the students' self-evaluation and mutual-evaluation system, and thus enhance their abilities in individual and critical thinking. The practice of this innovative writing strategy obtains its desired results: 80 subjects in this study improve their abilities in expressing their ideas in correct and logical way and organizing their content in rational and attracting skill; they have grown to cultivate proper and efficient English writing habits with the assistance of interaction and cooperation atmosphere. After repeated reflection and further exploration, this writing strategy is bound to be improved from different perspectives.

Index Terms—writing strategy, interaction and cooperation, VPIE platform, Growing-up QQ English Group, e-mail system

I. INTRODUCTION

From a macroscopic perspective, the economic globalization makes higher demands for the college students' foreign language capability, and in particular, for their oral and written English capabilities. The English writing ability is a vital indicator to measure the college students' English comprehensive ability, but English writing has always been regarded as one of the weak links for Chinese English learners. In CET 4 and CET 6, the commonly low scores in writing section is a case in point. This is partly attributable to the traditional writing pattern which is marked by its flaws of taking-time and low-efficiency. It tends to stress the writing product rather than writing process; it tends to stress the text form rather than thought expression; it tends to stress the writing techniques rather than writing contents. All these improper concentration and direction lead to inefficient and ineffective writing. Although the teachers and students have done a lot to improve the writing techniques, the results are always disappointing. In fact, writing is a rather practical course which is inseparably linked with writer's personal experiences.(Numan,2004) With the extensive application of computer and information into foreign language teaching, the network platform, the QQ software, the E-mail system, and the Electronic Mutual Evaluation all have come into effect on writing training. Li Zhixue (Li, 2003) points out: the trend of writing study is that learners turn to the main body of subjects, with software and network widely applying into its study.

The paper makes a tentative exploration to establish a comprehensive and effective writing teaching and training system with assistance of computer and network. It begins with the theoretical analysis and teaching review in Tsinghua University. The main theoretical underpinnings are Mediated Learning Experience, Constructivism, and Input Hypothesis, and the teaching experience focuses on resources sharing, platform training, skill developing, and team teaching. The third part is the author's main illustration about this interactive and cooperative writing strategy which includes distinctive English writing classroom, after-class multiple writing training through a couple of information systems, such as Automated Evaluation System, QQ Group software, E-mail system. In the fourth part the author analyzes the innovative points of this strategy, its affirmative results and inevitable drawbacks. To conclude is the author's expectation and recommendation for this writing strategy.

II. THEORETICAL EXPLORATION AND PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

A. The Mediated Learning Experience

Reuven Feuerstein, an Israeli cognitive psychologist, applied social interaction theory into teaching area in 1991. He put forward the theory of mediated function, arguing that the teacher fulfilled the mediated functions of intention, significance and purpose. (Feuerstein, 1991) Teachers devise and adjust their teaching strategies according to learners' requirements, employing digital writing platform to realize intervening teaching by means of analyzing the efficient information feedback from platform. These strategies can promote the learners' initiative, teamwork, oral English fluency and accuracy.

B. The Constructivism Theory

This popular theory holds that the individual cognitive development is closely relevant to the learning process. Knowledge can be obtained by meaning construction with others' help and necessary learning materials under some certain context. The Constructivism, on one hand, underlines the learners' function of subjects, and the student-centered learning style; on the other hand, accentuates the authenticity and sociality in the learning process. The network environment provides the learners with a positive learning environment in which learners can exert their talents and initiative to throw themselves into writing activities. This is an interactive, open and limitless environment which facilitates individual and personalized writing process.

C. The Theory of Structure Creation

According to Krashen's points of view, tremendous language input leads to meaningful language transformation, which indicates the significance of adequate information input for writing course. Under the network environment, there are abundant writing resources with so many excellent writing examples for learners to analyze and imitate. Meanwhile, teachers can assign various forms of composition to train students' writing abilities, and this enhancement of information input reinforces the content-centered language activities. (He, 2007)

D. The Successful Practice of Experiencing English Writing in Tsinghua University

After one decade of teaching exploration and practice, Tsinghua University has paved a new way for English writing, establishing a complete set of teaching and training pattern including various writing resources and technological support. It reflects four chief characteristics: (1) Resources sharing. It establishes such digital repository as Chinese students' tremendous writings base, typical writing errors-guide base, software of elementary writing, applied writing, creative writing, and academic writing, the textbook and software of Experiencing English Writing. (2) Platform training. The complexity of English writing is especially in need of delicate platform support. The famous international journal Language Testing discussed the reliability and validity of automated evaluation system and the influences of English error-correction system on foreign language learning effects. (Xi, 2010) Many special teaching software are developed to form the platform pattern in accordance with the fresh idea. These creative softwares include Automated and Generated Abstract software, Thesis Writing Expert System, Writing Evaluation Generated software, etc. They also develop a new product of intelligent platform capable of fulfilling three tasks together: scoring, commenting, and reporting of the writing. These digital writing feedbacks all come from American writing experts' comments which not only arouse the students' desire for writing, but also enrich their language expression. (3) Skill training. Naturally speaking, English writing is the transmission of one skill. To be good at writing, you have to depend on the support of technological textbook. Tsinghua University writing pattern implements the viewpoint proposed by Larsen-Freeman that grammar learning should be developed side by side with listening, speaking, reading and writing, turning to be the 5th skill in English learning. (Larsen-Freeman, 2003) So they emphasize the language accuracy when directing the students' writing practice, leading them to error-free writing. (4) Team teaching. The teamwork is a fundamental requirement for the sound development of academic traditions. (Murray, 1994) The experience of Tsinghua University Experiencing English Writing team proves that the development of digital English writing products is a systematic engineering combining network engineers, programmers, computer artists, foreign experts, linguists, English teachers, and students altogether. The faithful cooperation among these elites contributes to the cultivation of group consciousness, collaborative learning, good classmate relationship, and social practice.

III. PRACTICE OF INTERACTIVE AND COOPERATIVE WRITING STRATEGY WITH NETWORK ASSISTANCE

A. The Change of Writing Course and Direction in the Classroom: Different Tasks of Three Subjects

The writing course is completed in the multimedia classroom, and each computer is equipped with digital writing resources including some writing evaluation system, such as WRM system, some network platform, such as Experiencing English Writing of Tsinghua University. The teacher imparts writing elements through multimedia broadcasting teaching in a specific order according to different units. For instance, the teacher employs the electronic software of New College English Integrated Course 3 to introduce different writing styles of comparison and contrast essay. After illustrating the main points of writing skills, the teacher will assign different writing tasks: My Dream Life and Real Life; Dalian and Shenzhen.
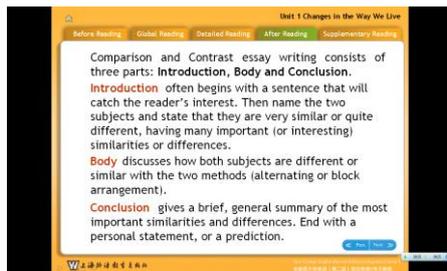
Figure 1: Three components of comparison and contrast essay

Apart from the classroom change, the procedures of writing class also change. In general, there are a series of class activities in our writing class which include teacher's tasks: theoretical illustration, writing assignment and final evaluation; group tasks: group discussion on the new theory or skill, group analysis of the new writing task, group evaluation; student's tasks: writing practice (from outline to detail), self-evaluation (one or two times), submission, feedback and reflection. Figure 2 illustrates three main tasks for three subjects in writing classroom.
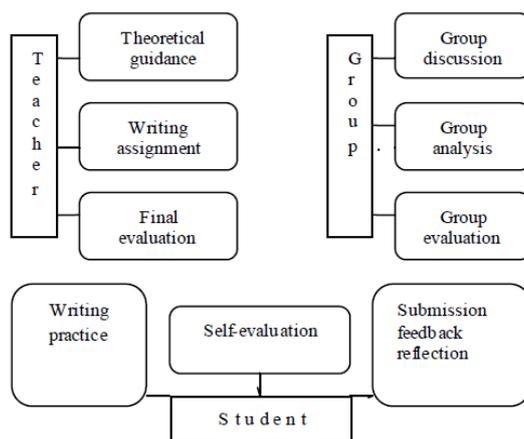
Figure 2: Three subjects' tasks in writing classroom teaching

B. The New Pattern of Writing Training after Class: The Interactive Combination of Network Platform, QQ Group Software, and E-mail System

Application of automated evaluation system: In our academy, we have established a platform entitled VPIE (Virtual Policing in English) (Wei, 2011) to train students' practical and professional English skills under virtual environment. The teacher utilizes this platform to help students' self-improvement in English writing by means of Automated Essay Scoring, such as Writing Roadmap, and other online writing editing resources, such as Google search engine, and some text processing programs, such as Wordpilot 2000, Check My Words, Word Neighbors. The automated evaluation system initiated in 1960s in America, and with the development of network and information technology, it has made profound progress in its various functions to meet requirements of teaching instruction and training evaluation. WRM is an automated system and a teaching-assisted system which possesses writing evaluation criteria in six dimensions: content, structure, voice, vocabulary, fluency, and correctness. After each writing class, the teacher will give students one or two writing assignments, and the students put their writings on WRM after self-evaluation. With assistance of WRM evaluation, the student will revise his or her composition again according to scoring in different dimensions. The practice of WRM training in six months indicates that WRM system can offer timely and effective supervision and guidance. The teachers spend less time on the correction of compositions and they can put more efforts on directing macro writing techniques and examining the state of implementation. That is to say, the emphasis of writing teaching has changed from the language forms to writing contents and expressions, from writing product to writing process. In the process of writing practice, the key link of it is to correct the composition. The timely feedback of automated evaluation system not only encourages students to correct their compositions immediately and raises possibilities of correction through evaluation feedback and resources. The teacher also gives the particular feedback according to the students' evaluation records, making up for the evaluation absence of the electronic system.

Application of QQ group software: The author established a QQ group entitled Growing-up English QQ Group (Wei, 2012) in April 2012；it carried out a series of English learning and entertaining activities. The writing training was also integrated into its regular operation. For instance, the teacher uploaded many materials in writing principles and techniques in her spare time, such as How to write a standard international paper?, see Figure 3.

Figure 3: Teacher's illustration of international paper writing methods in Growing-up QQ group on Nov. 11th, 2012.

The writing guidance and personal correction from English teacher via QQ group plays the significant role in students' final success in their writing course. Due to the time limitation in writing class, the teacher resorts to the cyber space to realize seamless or remote direction and supervision. For example, the author has corrected Tong Keni's (a student majoring in Investigation in Grade 2011) drafts of speech for three times in order to fulfill the requirement of less than three-minute speech and reach a higher level of provincial speech contest. Fortunately, she obtained the third prize in the contest (in October, 2012). After her own correction and author's repeated revision, this speech manuscript has attained her highest level for a college sophomore. We can appreciate this final version.

Health and Happiness

Many philosophers and thinkers have been discussing what is the most significant factor for human's whole life and they always come to the same consensus: health and happiness are two pivotal elements in building a contented and rounded life. As is known to all, Health always means much to every species, not to mention mortals. Health is reflected in all dimensions of human being, including physical, emotional, mental and spiritual well being. It is a state of higher-leveled harmony between body and mind. With health, the growth and achievement will naturally follow on, for health provides us with the fundamental element to accomplish our daily routine, and the enormous driving force to realize our great ambition.

When it comes to happiness, it involves the ability to love and work. Aristotle said: happiness is the whole aim at the end of human existence. We usually define happiness as a way of life, or an attitude towards our living condition. It is an overriding outlook composed of qualities such as optimism, courage, love, and fulfillment. Once these four virtues could become indispensable part of your life, harboring positive and optimistic emotions, fulfilling responsibility and assignment heart and soul, our life would be warmer with spring sunshine, and our world would be harmonious with common dedication.

As a matter of fact, however, health and happiness are also twin sisters; they are closely connected with each other and can be interchanged accordingly. A healthy life will be full of happiness, and in turn, people who live happily will usually lead a healthy life style. But how to maintain healthy and how to pursue happiness? Human's felicity is generated not so much by great pieces of good fortune that seldom happen. So, we shouldn't be extremely depressed or despaired at the time we feel unfortunate or unhealthy. To change a different perspective, and to give ourselves a period of time to balance our mental and psychological demands. Nothing will offer you a deep sense of health and happiness, unless you cultivate them consciously and continuously. It's not something that created by outside circumstances, but, instead, it is completely within your own control. So, my friends, if you are easy to be depressed or disappointed, if you are always dissatisfied with your present life, please listen to me, to get moving and, to make better daily choices. Try not to get down when a slip-up happens. Every day is a new day, and everyday you'll have a new chance to take a step in the right direction. This is the very secret of being healthier and feeling happier than yesterday.

I do believe all sufferings have their rewards. The failures and frustrations will add dignity and courage to the prospect of human life. Since no health and happiness are at hand, do you make adequate preparation to face up to the challenge of pursuing and living a healthy and happy life?

In fact, every writing progress is indispensable to students' careful creation and teacher's elaborate evaluation with assistance of automated evaluation system. Apart from this typical speech, the author also made comments and evaluations on many other students' compositions through QQ group sharing. Xu Hong uploaded his composition to the group sharing, and the author gave open correction and evaluation to make Xu Hong and other students aware of the merits and demerits in his composition, see Figure 4. The open correction and evaluation has many advantages over the traditional evaluation system which only benefits a single subject, while the open one can benefit more group members instantly online or offline, and meanwhile, this open and instant evaluation can arouse the students' interest in writing activity and give them the clear direction in how to write correctly and logically.

Figure 4: Xu Hong's composition and teacher's evaluation stored in QQ group message log on the left, and Huang Jiannan's music sharing on the right.

Application of E-mail system: In view of the fact that some of the students who want to make person-to-person communication and require teacher's individual assistance and correction, the E-mail evaluation system is applied to use. E-mail system is a kind of asynchronous writing practice, which is beneficial to students' comprehensive writing abilities and cooperative learning spirits. About 40 percent of students (80 students in all) are willing to send their writing assignments to the teacher E-mailbox. Figure 5 presents us with a student's composition through E-mailbox.

Figure 5: Xu Genghua's composition: My Dream Life via E-mail system on Sep. 17th, 2012.

Whatever a composition is uploaded to English QQ group or sent to E-mailbox, the teacher should take them seriously and equally, giving them careful comments, pertinent suggestions, and sound evaluation in different dimensions. The students can receive the most detailed feedbacks in the shortest feedback cycle, which will inspire students' desires to write articles on their own and enhance their writing awareness, senses and skills.

IV. ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH INNOVATIVE POINTS, OUTCOMES AND EXISTED PROBLEMS

A. The Innovative Points of the Reformed Writing Strategy

Innovation in learning means: the traditional writing course is featured by blackboard, paper and face-to-face explanation. The new writing strategy, however, transplants the network technology into writing training, realizing the digitalization of learning resources. The classroom teaching environment transforms from traditional classroom to network classroom with computers hooked up to the internet. Teacher can utilize multimedia broadcasting teaching, supervising relay, remote assistance, documents hand-out to network the learning process. Teacher and students feel the intuitionistic, swift, and efficient classroom teaching owing to the introduction of computer technology into writing class. Moreover, non-paper reading, writing, and peer-review have been applied in routine training. Students write their assignments on the computer, and upload them to QQ group software to receive peer-review from other QQ group members, and e-mail the revised one to the teacher. At last, the teacher makes the open commentary on QQ group. All the writing process indicates computer-assisted training contributes to the development of students' intercommunication skills, reading and writing skills as well.

Innovation in learning methods: this study emphasizes learners' participation, personal practice, and group cooperation, advocating progressive classroom teaching and after-class cooperation and interaction. Classroom teaching is closely connected with after-class personal experience, that is to say, the teacher can undertake writing direction and give assignment in class and after class; the students can listen to teacher's guidance in and after class; writing evaluation can be fulfilled in the same way. This open and easy after-class learning environment can promote students' learning desire for after-class writing. The students can increase their writing interests and abilities by self-study on the platform or QQ group interaction with other group members. Every writing assignment is submitted after group evaluation, and this process leads to the development of cooperative learning and teamwork. The previous study of cooperative writing interaction reveals that cooperation with other classmates may trigger active and creative thinking, prompt discussion, and unravel diverge. At the same time, this writing pattern may promote mutual learning and helping each other in terms of rhetoric, structure, theme, and language use, and hence, improves learning effects. (Shi, 2004)

B. The Affirmative Research Outcomes

Based on the innovative writing pattern with network support featured by interaction and cooperation among teachers and students, high efficiency and fast response in writing and feedback. The students who have experienced this new type of training in English writing substantially profit from its real effect. Their analytical abilities in discourse and writing have been improved and raised to the level set by the chief principles of English writing requirements for college students. They can write essays in different styles with rich content, fluent language, appropriate words and expressions. Furthermore, the abilities in self-study and cooperative learning have been enhanced greatly. Writing training under network environment lays special stress on cooperative learning activities in the process of writing after class with the students experiencing one step after another. From the sorrowfully passive writing to the delightfully active writing transformation, the students become confident of their writing abilities, which results in their high-quality writing output. Last but not least, the students' skills in computer and network technology are equally improved. To utilize network resources and develop individual learning habits on the basis of computer and network platform is to meet the demand of network era, and also meet the demand of the Ministry of Education. Therefore, it is an ideal strategy of killing two birds with one stone.

C. The Existed Problems and Countermeasures

While in the process of writing practice, we undoubtedly encountered some practical problems to cope with: (1) In view of our technological shortage, the resources of platform cannot be open and beneficial to mostly students, and so we have to optimize our VPIE and Cross-cultural Communication and Policing English Training Platform, combining with other universities and constructing an optimized digital network of good writing resources and training patterns. (2) The interaction in Growing-up QQ Group is unitary. The teacher-to-student and student-to-student interactions aren't sufficient and active. How to fully take advantage of students' writing assignments to realize the goal of online writing directions and multi-dimensional interactions is our primary task at hand. (3) The teachers' workload of writing evaluation on QQ or E-mail system is so heavy that they have to be online working most of their spare time. In order to relieve their work pressure and raise efficiency, we should explore multi-evaluation system, intensifying students' self-evaluation and mutual-evaluation. We also perfect the automated evaluation system and develop comment builder software to make E-system scientific, systematic and reliable.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The digital writing platform and other network writing resources provide the teacher with multiple and modern teaching approaches and evaluation means in English writing, and the students with dynamic and optimized writing resources to share and study. Through multimedia classroom teaching, online training and mutual evaluation, the students are more and more actively involved in writing experience and writing interaction. They not only revise and evaluate their own compositions repeatedly, but also fulfill the peer review regularly, offering comments and recommendations. More importantly, this writing strategy reflects and implements the principle of student-centered teaching pattern and achieves the purpose of cooperative learning concept. 80 students as the subjects of this experimental study have obtained, with mixed success, the targeted results, and their valuable learning experiences feed teachers and learners first-hand materials about how to enhance writing abilities in the true sense under the network environment. On-line Writing is the mega trend all over the world, and we can confirm that interactive and cooperative writing strategy predicts a promising prospect.

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Iranian EFL Learners' Perceptions with Respect to Speech Acts in Comparison with the Actual Content of the Textbooks[*]

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Abstract—**The perceptions of the EFL learners have been ignored in most of the textbook evaluation studies in Iran. This study aimed to make a comparison between the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards speech acts and the actual content of their textbooks. To this end, a descriptive and survey-based design was employed. A questionnaire was distributed among 100 first-year high school students in four schools. The first-year high school English textbook was also carefully analyzed with respect to the different types of speech acts. A comparison was made between the results obtained from the questionnaire analysis and the results of the content analysis of the textbook, which revealed the fact that the students generally had a positive attitude towards the teaching of speech acts. On the contrary, they rated the Language Functions Section in their textbook to be ineffective in terms of the teaching of speech acts. A closer examination of the dialogues in the Language Functions Section revealed that the range of speech acts covered in the textbook is extremely limited. These findings show that there are gaps between the Iranian learners' perceptions and the actual content of their textbooks. The findings can be useful to the textbook designers as well as language teachers.**

Index Terms—**textbook, textbook evaluation, needs analysis, speech act**

I. INTRODUCTION

Course books and the teacher are considered to be the main sources of input in EFL contexts. Nevertheless, studies have demonstrated that course books fall short of including the necessary input. This is especially true in the case of authenticity and coverage of important aspects of speech acts (Vellenga, 2004). Speech acts is not a new topic. In fact, they have been popular since they emerged in the late 1960s. The framework offered by Canal and Swain, which is a framework of communicative competence, caused a revolution in the field of language teaching by helping communication to be regarded as the ultimate goal of language learning. This led to speech acts coming into focus again because speech acts are the functions of language. Being a popular topic in the field of language teaching, speech acts has been offering research opportunities since the number of problematic areas in the process of teaching speech acts is on the rise, which necessitates clarification by further research (Baleghizadeh, 2007).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Arguments for Using Textbooks

The researchers who emphasize on the necessity and usefulness of textbooks can be said to fall into two groups. The first group of researchers argues that textbooks are a psychological need for teachers and learners alike. For example, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) suggest that the textbook is an almost universal element of English language teaching without which any teaching-learning situation is practically incomplete. Haycroft (1988, as cited in Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011) believes that students see textbooks as being useful to the measurement of their achievement and progress. Similarly, Sheldon (1988, as cited in Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011) believes that from the learners' perspective, textbooks have more validity and credibility compared to in-house materials. Also, textbooks are cheaper and more accessible than such materials and require less preparation time. Therefore, textbooks can reduce cognitive and occupational loads on both teachers and learners. Textbooks also can be useful in providing novice teachers with a sense of security, guidance and support (O'Neill, 1982).

The second group of researchers argues for the necessity of textbooks because they see the textbook as a repertoire of materials, exercises and activities, a reference source, a pre-determined syllabus, and a source of creativity which reflects research findings and learners' needs. This group believes that textbooks are systematic and thus give teachers and students an overall view of the course and syllabus, and also can inform them of where they are in the course at

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[*] It is to be noted that this study is based upon the M.A. thesis of the first author to be presented at the University of Tabriz.

present and where the course is going, while teacher-made materials are normally prepared weekly and are more likely to lead to a gap and lack of systematicity in both teaching and learning (Harmer, 2001). Textbooks also offer new activities and methodologies to which teachers can add local data should they find it necessary. In this way, textbooks can stimulate, change and expand teachers' repertoire (Harmer, 2001).

B. Textbook Evaluation

According to Tomlinson et al (2001), as an activity in the field of applied linguistics, textbook evaluation enables teachers, supervisors, administrators and materials developers to make judgments about the effects of materials on the end-users; i.e. learners. McGrath (2002) believes that textbook evaluation is important for the development and administration of language learning programs.

The primary goal of learning English in Iran is to help promote a universal understanding by familiarizing students with science, literature, and art of English speaking countries and providing them with a mean of finding and accessing sources of information in English (Birjandi & Soheili, 1982, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012). Failing to achieve these goals in Iranian language classes has caused the national EFL curriculum to be carefully scrutinized in order to find the sources of the demotivation of students and the reasons behind the failure of language programs in Iran. Research findings suggest that one of the sources of the inefficiency of the EFL curriculum in Iran is the English textbooks (Rahimi, & Nabilou, 2009), which serve as both the syllabus and main guideline for English teachers.

Textbook evaluation studies in Iran have focused on investigating the inefficiency of language teaching materials from teachers' perspective (Moradi, 2008, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012). However, the attitudes of students towards their EFL textbooks have been ignored in the evaluation of materials in Iran. Any language policy and planning needs to take into account the attitudes, needs, and interests of the target group for whom a textbook is designed (Lewis, 1981 cited in Baker, 1992, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012).

A few studies have been carried out in Iran in order to evaluate textbooks. For example, Yarmohammadi (2002) found that high school textbooks suffer from a number of shortcomings, such as ignoring oral skills and the interchangeable use of English and Persian names. Ansary and Babaii (2002) provided an outline of the common core features of standard EFL/ESL textbooks, and reached the conclusion that not every textbook would have these features. Amalsaleh (2004, as cited in Azizifar, 2010) investigated the representation of social factors in both junior and senior high school textbooks and showed that textbooks present stereotypical views of females and males in society. Rahimi and Hassani (2012) investigated Iranian high-school students' attitude towards their EFL textbooks and its role in their attitude towards learning English as a foreign language and found that in general students do not have a positive attitude towards their English textbooks.

C. Needs Analysis in EGP (English for General Purposes) Courses

Compared to ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses, general English courses do not show much concern for learner needs because it is wrongly assumed that specifying the needs of general English learners is not possible, and partly because there is a dearth of literature on the practicalities of analyzing the data obtained from Needs Analysis in the context of general English (Seedhouse, 1995). The results of a study by Seedhouse (1995) revealed that the primary reasons for the learning motivation of the Spanish students in EGP courses were psychological and social. His study shows that students in EGP courses have a clear understanding of what they need, and that findings from Needs Analysis could be useful for EGP course design, classroom implementation, and evaluation. Seedhouse's study helps validate Nunan's (1988, as cited in Liu et al, 2011) and Richards' (1990, as cited in Liu et al, 2011) stance on the issue. They both believed that it was possible to discern the needs of students in EGP courses through the application of Needs Analysis in EGP courses.

D. The Importance of Learner Preferences in Textbook Designing

Bell (1983, as cited in Nunan, 1988) claims that while some teachers freely design the syllabuses they use in their teaching programs, most teachers are mainly consumers of other people's syllabuses. Their role is mainly to implement the plans offered by applied linguists, government agencies, and so on. Considering the fact that the syllabus imposed by the textbook has a close relationship with what the teacher does in the class and how she does it, it is important to design the textbook in a way that will encourage the teaching of the material in such a way that will ensure maximum language acquisition. In so doing, it is important to take into consideration the preferences of learners in the designing of the textbook and classroom activities so as to increase the learners' intrinsic motivation.

E. Speech Acts

The British philosopher J.L. Austin proposed the speech act theory, which was later developed by another philosopher John Searle. Austin's initial insight was that people do not simply make statements that can be judged as "true" or "false", rather, they use language to perform actions that have an impact in some way on the world. The concept of performative utterance was developed in the 1950s by Austin. He distinguished between two kinds of utterances: constative utterances and performative utterances.

Constative utterances make a statement, describe a state of affairs, and are either true or false. An example of a constative utterance is: "John promised to pay me." Performative utterances are not true or false and actually perform

the action to which they refer. For example, the utterance "I promise you to be there." performs some action, namely the act of promising (Culler, 2000).

Both Austin and Searle (1969, as cited in Culler, 2000) tried to classify speech acts into different categories, and to identify the 'felicity conditions' for the successful performance of a speech act (Schmitt, 2002). Based on Austin's (1962), and Searle's (1969) theory, Cohen (1996) identifies five categories of speech acts based on the functions assigned to them:

- **Assertives / Representatives** commit the speaker to something being the case.
- **Directives** try to get the addressee to perform an action.
- **Commisives** commit the speaker to doing something in the future.
- **Expressives** express how the speaker feels about the situation.
- **Declarations** change the state of the world in an immediate way. (Jaworowska, 2012).

John Searle helped improve the classification of speech acts based on a distinction between two "directions of fit" between language and reality – from word to world, and from world to word. Assertives have a word-to-world direction of fit; directives and commisisives have a world-to-word direction of fit; Expressives have no direction of fit; and Declaratives bring about the fit between word and world as long as they are performed successfully (Smith, 2003).

F. The Importance of Speech Acts in Language Learning

Some students are able to produce sentences that are grammatically well-formed; however, being grammatically correct does not necessarily mean that their well-formed sentences are appropriate for the context within which they are employed. An example of a learner, who has an acceptable level of grammatical competence but lacks the skill to communicate appropriately, is one that in response to "Could you open the window?" says "Yes, I could." (Baleghizadeh, 2007). The present study seeks to answer the following questions:

Research Question 1: How effective are speech acts in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students?

Research Question 2: How effective is the Language Functions section of the textbook in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students?

Research Question 3: What is the range of speech acts taught in Iranian high school textbooks?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 100 first-year high school students whose ages ranged from 15-16 participated in this study. The participants were all bilingual speakers of Turkish and Persian. All participants were male and were randomly chosen from four high schools.

B. Design of the Study

A descriptive, survey-based design was employed in this study. A translated version of the questionnaire in Persian was distributed among the participants, which included Likert-type items. Afterwards, the Language Functions Section of the first-year high school English textbook was analyzed. Finally, a comparison was made between the results of the textbook analysis and the perceptions of the first-year high school students.

C. Materials

The questionnaire used in this study was divided into two parts. The first part presented the students with different samples of speech acts along with example dialogues. 10 questions followed the sample speech acts to provide the students with the opportunity to express their attitudes towards speech acts by answering Likert-type questions.

10 Likert-type questions were included in the second part of the questionnaire, which were intended to elicit their attitudes toward the actual content of their textbook; i.e. the Language Functions Section in their textbook.

D. Procedures

After obtaining the permissions from the Ministry of Education, the questionnaire was distributed in four high schools. The first version was pilot-tested with 15 participants. The second version was pilot-tested with 25 students and distributed among other high schools. The first-year high school textbook was analyzed in terms of the range of speech acts. Finally, the results of the questionnaire analysis were compared to the results of the textbook analysis. The data analysis results were also double-checked by another coder, which showed that the inter-rater reliability was 95%.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS & RESULTS

A. Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 1

The results of questions 1-10 in the questionnaire, which represent the first macro-category; i.e. "the effectiveness of speech acts in language learning from learners' perspective" are demonstrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS 1-10 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
1	How effective can practicing such speech acts be in making language learning enjoyable?				
	52	27	7	7	7
2	How effective can learning such speech acts be in increasing your motivation to speak in English?				
	51	28	10	5	6
3	How effective can learning such speech acts be in causing you to see a reason for learning English?				
	29	43	11	12	5
4	How effective can learning such speech acts be in providing you with the opportunity to practice what you have learned thus far?				
	31	37	13	9	10
5	How effective can practicing such speech acts be in improving your vocabulary knowledge?				
	42	37	7	6	8
6	How effective can practicing such speech acts be in increasing your mastery over grammatical structures?				
	42	38	12	4	4
7	How effective can practicing such speech acts be in improving your pronunciation?				
	38	40	11	6	5
8	How effective can learning such speech acts be in carrying out in-group interactions while performing role-playing tasks?				
	48	29	9	9	7
9	How effective can learning such speech acts be in helping you to speak appropriately (the same way native English speakers do)?				
	48	31	8	4	9
10	How effective can learning such speech acts be in fulfilling your daily needs (for reading stories, watching movies, etc.)?				
	50	26	5	7	12

As Table 1 shows, most of the students' responses are distributed in the effective end of the continuum. The difference between the number of the responses rating the teaching of speech acts as effective and the number of those rating them as ineffective is significant. Table 2 presents the percentages for questions 1-10 in the questionnaire.

TABLE 2:
THE PERCENTAGES FOR QUESTIONS 1-10 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
The Total Number of the Selected Options				
431	336	91	69	73
The Percentage of the Selected Options				
43.1%	33.6%	9.1%	6.9%	7.3%
The Merging of the Percentages of the Selected Options				
76.7%		9.1%	14.2%	

As Table 2 shows, the percentages of the responses rating the teaching of speech acts to be effective (76.7%) are significantly higher than the percentages of those that rated them to be ineffective (14.2%). The results of the analysis of questions 1-10 in the questionnaire are demonstrated in Fig. 1. Fig. 1 illustrates the results presented in the third row of Table 1 which merges the percentages in the second row of Table 1.
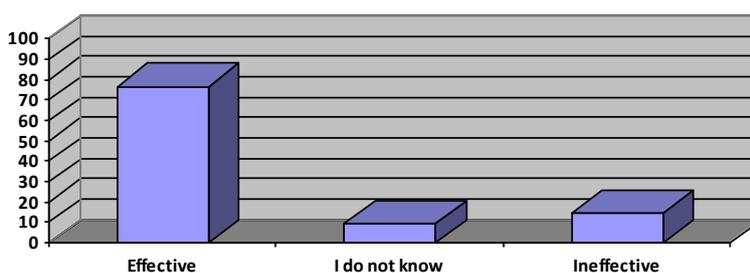
Figure 1.The merging of the results of the analysis of questions 1-10 in the questionnaire

As both Table 1 and Fig. 1 demonstrate, 76.7% of the responses rated the learning of speech acts as being effective in the overall learning of English and 14.2% considered them as being ineffective. 9.1% of the responses were indeterminate.

B. Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 2

The results of questions 11-20 in the questionnaire, which represent the second macro-category; i.e. "the effectiveness of the Language Functions Section of the textbook in language learning from learners' perspective" are demonstrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS 11-20 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
11	How effective is the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in increasing your motivation to speak English?				
	11	19	11	31	28
12	How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in enabling you to speak in English?				
	3	22	10	43	22
13	How effective are these dialogues in familiarizing you with various speech acts?				
	3	12	23	35	27
14	How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in making these dialogues meaningful to you? (for example, by giving information on the speakers involved or presenting you with pictures)				
	6	14	18	34	28
15	How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook with respect to presenting you with information on the situation in which the dialogues are taking place (such as interpersonal relationships or the location)?				
	4	18	20	29	29
16	How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in providing you with the opportunity to practice what you have learned thus far?				
	3	12	23	32	30
17	How effective are these dialogues in causing you to see a reason for learning English?				
	8	16	17	29	30
18	How effective are the dialogues in this section of the textbook in fulfilling your daily needs (for reading stories, watching movies, etc.)?				
	11	12	17	28	32
19	How effective are the dialogues in this section of the textbook in helping you to speak appropriately (the same way native speakers of English do)?				
	7	8	15	31	39
20	How effective is the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in providing you with the opportunity to practice the dialogues in this section?				
	6	9	21	31	33

As Table 3 shows, the number of responses rating the "Language Functions Section" as being ineffective is significantly higher than the number of those rating it as being effective.

TABLE 4:
THE PERCENTAGES FOR QUESTIONS 11-20 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
The Total Number of the Selected Options				
62	142	175	323	298
The Percentage of the Selected Options				
6.2%	14.2%	17.5%	32.3%	29.8%
The Merging of the Percentages of the Selected Options				
20.4%		17.5%	62.1%	

As Table 4 shows, the percentages of the responses rating the Language Functions Section as ineffective (62.1%) are significantly higher than the percentages of those rating them as effective (20.4%). The results of the analysis of questions 11-20 in the questionnaire are illustrated in Fig. 2.
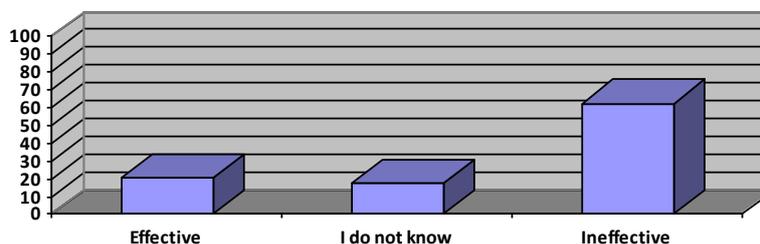

Figure 2.The merging of the results of the analysis of questions 11-20 in the questionnaire

As both Table 4 and Fig. 2 show, only 20.4% of the responses considered the "Language Functions" section of the textbook as effective, while 62.1% rated Section F as ineffective in the learning of English. 17.5% of the responses were indeterminate.

C. Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 3

The types of speech acts in the Language Functions Section of all nine lessons are presented in the Tables below.

TABLE 5:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 1

		Asking Someone's Name	Speech Act Types
Lesson 1	1	A: Excuse me. Are you Henry? B: Yes. And what's your name? A: I'm John.	Asking a question Answering + Asking a question Answering
	2	A: What's your first name? B: My first name is Ali. A: And what's your last name? B: My last name is Kabiri.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering
		On the Phone	
	3	A: May I speak to Mr Amini? B: Yes, just a moment, please.	Requesting Granting a request
	4	A: Could I speak to the teacher? B: Who's speaking, please? A: This is Reza.	Requesting Asking a question Answering
		Introducing a Friend	
		A: I'd like you to meet my friend, Henry. B: Glad to meet you, Henry. C: Nice to meet you, too.	Introducing Introducing Introducing

As Table 5 shows, most of the speech acts in the dialogues in lesson 1 are of two types: Asking and answering questions. The speech act of requesting is not the focus of the lesson. The speech act of introducing has been briefly touched on.

TABLE 6:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 2

		Finding out about People	Speech Act Types
Lesson 2	1	A: Where do you come from? B: I come from Japan. A: What do you do? B: I'm a teacher. A: What's your address? B: 172 Azadi Avenue.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering
	2	A: Who's that? B: That's Hassan. A: Where's he from? B: He's from Turkey. A: I see. And what does he do here? B: I think he's a student. A: Can he speak Farsi? B: Yes, he can.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering

As Table 6 shows, the dialogues in lesson 2 consist of only two types of speech acts, namely asking and answering questions.

TABLE 7:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 3

		Asking about Someone's Family	Speech Act Types
Lesson 3	1	A: Do you come from a large family? B: Yes, I do. A: How many are there in your family? B: Seven. A: What does your father do? B: He's a doctor. A: What about your mother? B: She's a teacher.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering

Table 7 shows that there is no speech act other than asking and answering questions in the dialogues in lesson 3.

TABLE 8:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 4

		Granting a Request	Speech Act types
Lesson 4		**Granting a Request**	
	1	A: May I borrow your pen, please? B: All right.	Requesting Granting a request
	2	A: May I have another sandwich? B: Yes, of course. Help yourself. A: Thanks.	Requesting Granting a request Thanking
	3	A: Could I see the newspaper? B: Yes, of course. Here you are.	Requesting Granting a request
	4	A: Can I watch the news on television? B: Sure.	Requesting Granting a request
		Rejecting a Request	
	5	A: Can I use your telephone? B: Sorry, I'm using it right now. A: Oh, I see.	Requesting Rejecting a request Closing the Request
	6	A: May I use your car? B: Sorry. I need it right now. A: Oh, never mind.	Requesting Rejecting a request Closing the Request

Table 8 shows that the speech act of granting a request, which can be considered as part of the speech act of requesting, is systematically taught in the Section F of lesson 4.

TABLE 9:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 5

		Identifying by Appearance and Dress	Speech Act Types
Lesson 5		**Identifying by Appearance and Dress**	
	1	A: Which (one) is Mrs Rasouli? B: She's the woman with glasses.	Asking a question Identifying
	2	A: Which (one) is Mrs Akbari? B: She's the tall woman.	Asking a question Identifying
	3	A: Who's Mr Amini? B: He's wearing a white shirt.	Asking a question Identifying
		Conversation in Context	
	4	Ali: What does your friend look like? Reza: Well, he's tall. He's about 180 centimeters. And he's got black hair. Ali: Does he wear an overcoat? Reza: No, he doesn't. Ali: Is he a nice boy? Reza: Yes, he's very nice.	Asking a question Describing Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering

As Table 9 shows, the speech act of identifying is taught in the first part of the Section F of lesson 5, but the second part (conversation in context) mostly consists of only two types of speech acts, i.e. asking and answering questions.

TABLE 10:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 6

		Talking about Appearance	Speech Act Types
Lesson 6		**Talking about Appearance**	
	1	A: What does he look like? B: He's quite good-looking.	Asking a question Answering / Describing
	2	A: How does she look like? B: She's very beautiful / attractive / pretty.	Asking a question Answering / Describing
		Talking about Age, Weight, Hair Color	
	3	A: How old is he / she? B: He / she is twenty five.	Asking a question Answering / Describing
	4	A: How much do you weigh? B: I weigh (about) 62 kilos.	Asking a question Answering / Describing
	5	A: What color is Babak's hair? B: He's got dark / black / brown / light brown hair.	Asking a question Answering / Describing

As Table 10 shows, all of the dialogues in lesson 6, Section F consist of the two speech acts of asking and answering questions. The speech act of describing overlaps with the speech act of answering the question in all of the dialogues.

TABLE 11:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 7

		Requesting Politely – Saying "Yes" to a Request	Speech Act Types
Lesson 7	1	A: Will you take these books to the library, please? B: Sure (certainly). A: Thanks a lot. B: Not at all.	Requesting Granting a request Thanking Thanking
	2	A: Will you turn off the radio, please? B: Yes, of course.	Requesting Granting a request
	3	A: Will you turn down the television, please? B: All right.	Requesting Granting a request
	4	A: Would you give this to Mr Karimi, please? B: Okay. A: Thank you very much. B: You're welcome.	Requesting Granting a request Thanking Thanking
	5	A: Would you open the window, please? B: Yes, all right.	Requesting Granting a request
	6	A: Would you bring me some water, please? B: Yes, of course.	Requesting Granting a request

Table 11 shows that the speech act of requesting is systematically focused on in lesson 7, Section F and the speech act of thanking is only present because it is required in the dialogue rather than being taught systematically.

TABLE 12:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 8

		Asking about Other People	Speech Act Types
Lesson 8	1	A: Where's John from? B: He's from Canada. A: What does he do? B: He's a mechanic.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering
	2	A: What's Carl's nationality? B: He's German. A: What is he? B: He's a farmer.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering
	3	A: Is Ramo Indian? B: Yes, he is. A: What's his job? B: He must be a doctor.	Asking a question Answering Asking a question Answering / Guessing

As Table 12 shows, the only types of speech acts used in the dialogues lesson 8, Section F are asking and answering questions. In one instance, the speech act of guessing overlaps with the speech act of answering a question.

TABLE 13:
SPEECH ACT TYPES IN SECTION F, LESSON 9

		Shopping	Speech Act Types
Lesson 9	1	A: May I help you? B: Yes, I'm looking for a dress. A: What size do you wear? B: I wear size 38. A: How about this one? B: It looks nice. How much is it? A: It's only 400 tomans. B: Okay. I'll take it. A: Anything else, madam? B: No, thank you.	Offering Answering Asking a question Answering / Asking a question Offering Describing + Asking a question Answering Accepting an offer Asking a question Answering
	2	A: Can I help you? B: Yes. I need a watch. A: How about this one? B: Is there a cheaper one? A: Yes, here you are. B: Thanks. A: Anything else, sir? B: No, thank you.	Offering Answering Asking a question / Offering Asking a question Answering Thanking Asking a question Answering

As Table 13 shows, most of the speech acts in the dialogues of lesson 9, Section F fall into the categories of asking and answering questions. The few instances of other speech acts embedded in the dialogues are not systematically taught.

V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The first research question was how effective speech acts are in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students. 76.7% of the responses rated the learning of speech acts as being effective in the overall learning of English and 14.2% considered them as being ineffective, so the answer is that students consider the teaching of speech acts as being highly effective in their learning of English.

The second research question was how effective the Language Functions section of the textbook is in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students. Only 20.4% of the responses considered the "Language Functions" section of the textbook as being effective, while 62.1% rated this section (section F) to be ineffective. This means that the majority of the students consider section F to be ineffective in the learning of English.

The third research question was what the range of speech acts taught in Iranian high school textbooks is. The examination of the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of the textbook revealed that the speech acts used in these dialogues are extremely limited in range. Asking questions, answering, describing, identifying, thanking, introducing, requesting (granting/rejecting a request), offering (rejecting/accepting an offer), and guessing are the only kinds of speech acts some instances of which have been embedded in the dialogues in this section. Moreover, only one type of speech act has been systematically introduced to the students, namely requesting. The great majority of the speech acts in the dialogues in this section are asking and answering questions. The few instances of other speech acts (aside from requesting) are not systematically taught and are present in some of the dialogues only because they are required in that particular dialogue. Moreover, most of the dialogues are organized around topics rather than speech acts. While the teaching of speech acts can help the learners to perform a variety of speech acts in different situations, the organization of dialogues around topics limits what the students can talk about. The number of the topics/subjects one can talk about is extremely broad and an attempt to capture them all seems to be rather impractical. The common types of speech acts, however, can be extended to various situations and have more benefits for the learners as their responses have demonstrated. Speech acts can be practiced in role playing tasks, which can be highly motivating both in providing the students with the opportunity to practice speech acts and in their potential to be performed in the form of motivating role playing tasks.

What is common among most of the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of the textbook is that neither the interlocutors nor the context has been specified in the dialogue. Indetermination of context in the dialogues can affect even the simplest dialogues. For example, this can cause the dialogue in lesson 1, in which one of the participants is enquiring the first name and last name of the other participant, to sound artificial because such a formal exchanging of information is limited to certain formal contexts and is rarely used in everyday life. This and the drawbacks that will be pointed out could have contributed to the poor rating of these dialogues by the students. Below, the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of the textbook are examined more closely:

Lesson 1: In the section F of lesson 1, four types of speech acts have been used in the dialogues, the majority of which are asking and answering questions. The second dialogue seems to aim at teaching two new words, "first name" and "last name", both of which appear in the vocabulary list. This is evident through the repetitive use of the two words as in "My first name is Ali." rather than giving a short answer such as "Ali". The first and second dialogues intend to talk about a specific topic (asking someone's name) and make use of the relevant vocabulary (name, first name, last name) and formulaic expressions such as "Excuse me" and "What's your name?" The proper usage of "Excuse me" is not highlighted, unless the teacher points out that it can be used before making a request so that students do not wrongly assume, through literal translation, that it is used for apologizing.

The third and fourth dialogues are organized around a topic (how to begin a conversation on the phone), but they do not attempt to specify the kinds of speech acts used in this situation. The third dialogue ignores other possibilities such as rejecting the request or giving a negative answer such as "Sorry, he's not available". Both "may" and "could" in dialogues 3 and 4 are modal verbs. The students are already familiar with the word "may" from guidance school, but the author has used this situation to remind the students of the usage of "may" and at the same time to introduce a new usage for "could". The students become familiar with "could" as the past form of "can" in the first lesson in high school, but are never directly taught that "could" can be used to make requests. This usage of "could" in dialogue 4 does not match with what students have learned about "could" in lesson 1 as meaning "the ability to do something in the past".

The fifth dialogue can be roughly categorized as an speech act; i.e. introducing, but it is far from being comprehensive, because there are a number of different ways in which one can introduce two people to each other.

Lesson 2: Neither of the two dialogues in lesson 2 is based on speech act types. They are merely a set of questions and answers whose primary purpose seems to be the use of "wh" question words to ask questions about someone else. What's more is that the situation presented in of the dialogues is uncommon. For instance, the first dialogue talks about a Japanese person who is a teacher in Iran, which can be readily understood from the street name (Azadi Avenue). This could make it difficult for students to connect with the dialogues.

Lesson 3: Just like the dialogues in lesson 2, the dialogue in lesson 3 revolves around questions and answers. No information has been given on the place of conversation or the interlocutors.

Lesson 4: The "Language Functions" section in lesson 4 teaches one kind of speech act; i.e. granting / rejecting a request, which can be considered as part of the speech act of "requesting". However, what has been neglected is that students have not been introduced to different ways of making a request; i.e. while they recognize the modal verbs "may", "could", and "can", they have not been taught how they can be used to make requests. It is only logical that

students be taught different ways of making a request before being introduced to the kinds of responses that they can give to a request.

Lesson 5: While identifying is considered as a speech act, due to limiting it to appearance and dress, its scope is narrow here. The first three dialogues present situations in which it is presumed that a number of people are all in the same place and one person is asking the other to tell him/her which of the people present in their immediate environment is the one he/she is trying to find. The sentence said in response to their question is one that includes the definite article "the" as in "She's the tall woman", which is the case when the respondent is identifying the target by their appearance. In the case of identifying the target by their dress, the respondent uses the present continuous tense as in "He's wearing a white shirt / glasses / a hat". No explanation has been given in this regard.

The "conversation in context" is different from the first three dialogues in that it is more about describing a person's looks in general rather than identifying them in the immediate environment of conversation. This is clear from the absence of the article "the" in "He's tall" rather than "He's the tall boy.", and also the verb tense used in the question "Does he wear an overcoat?" rather than "Is he the one wearing an overcoat?". Moreover, "he's very nice." is a statement that is describing a person in general, which has nothing to do with their appearance or outfit.

Lesson 6: The first three dialogues are describing a person's looks in general. The aim is to distinguish between the adjectives that are used to describe males (i.e. good-looking) and those that are used to describe females (i.e. beautiful, attractive, and pretty) rather than teaching speech acts. In dialogues 4, 5, and 6 some physical attributes are discussed (i.e. age, weight, and hair color). These utterances perform the speech act of describing.

Lesson 7: Here, the speech acts of (polite) requesting and granting a request are taught. Granting a request can be considered as part of the speech act of requesting. The dialogues do not explicitly teach the grammatical patterns often used in polite requests (Will you + do something (imperative) + please? / would you + do something (imperative) + please?), which could be confusing to students.

Lesson 8: The dialogues in this section are comprised of a set of questions and answers. The aim is to teach the name of countries and nationalities rather than speech acts. This is evident from the table that immediately follows the three dialogues. In the table, a list of countries is given. In front of each country, the respective nationality is presented.

Lesson 9: The dialogues in this lesson aim to demonstrate how English can be used to do shopping and what some of the common expressions in this situation are (Can I help you?, How much is it?, I'll take it., Anything else?). The problem with both dialogues is that they are truncated and are unlikely to happen in the real world in the way they are presented. For instance, in the first dialogue the shopper buys the dress without first trying it on. The rate used in the dialogue (tomans) suggests that the conversation is taking place in Iran. Clearly, English is not commonly used in Iran in such a situation, which fails to show why learning English can be useful. Moreover, the way an English speaker does shopping and the kinds of expressions used by both the buyer and the seller are determined by the culture they belong to. This issue needs to be addressed in the textbook. Since the textbook has not been updated for a long time, the price suggested for the dress (400 tomans) is no longer believable.

The second dialogue may seem unnatural for an Iranian reader. Since the store likely has dozens of models, "How about this one?" is highly unlikely to be said in a real situation. Being detached from reality can be demotivating for learners since they fail to illustrate a realistic use for the language that is being learned.

The results of this study suggest that there are mismatches between the actual content of the textbook and what the students perceive to be motivating and useful in the learning of English. These results can be useful to textbook designers who are willing to consider the perceptions of learners in the possible future revisions of high school textbooks. It can also give language teachers at high school level some insights about what their students perceive to be effective in the learning of English, and to what aspect of language they need to allocate more time in order to compensate for the shortcomings of the textbook. The results of the study would still be valid in the event of high school textbooks undergoing revision in the future, since the results reflect the preferences of learners which could be compared to the content of the revised textbooks, or may even be taken into consideration in future revisions.

<center>APPENDIX A THE ENGLISH VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE</center>

Below, you see some samples of speech acts with an example in front of each. Please read about them and answer the following questions.

Answering:	Ali: Can he speak English?
	Reza: Yes, he can.
Greeting:	Ali: Hi. How are you doing today?
Requesting:	Ali: May I borrow your pen for a minute, please?
Agreeing / disagreeing:	Ali: The new lesson is really difficult.
	Reza: You're right. / I don't think so. It's easy for me.
Apologizing:	Ali: I'm sorry for being late.
Thanking:	Ali: Thank you for your help.
Offering:	Ali: Would you like some biscuit?
Asking:	Ali: Give me your pen, please.
Denying:	Teacher: Ali, did you make that noise?

Agreeing to do something:

Ali: It wasn't me.

Reza: Let's go to the cinema.

Ali: That's a good idea. Let's go.

1. How effective can practicing such speech acts be in making language learning enjoyable?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

2. How effective can learning such speech acts be in increasing your motivation to speak in English?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

3. How effective can learning such speech acts be in causing you to see a reason for learning English?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

4. How effective can learning such speech acts be in providing you with the opportunity to practice what you have learned thus far?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

5. How effective can practicing such speech acts be in improving your vocabulary knowledge?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

6. How effective can practicing such speech acts be in increasing your mastery over grammatical structures?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

7. How effective can practicing such speech acts be in improving your pronunciation?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

8. How effective can learning such speech acts be in carrying out in-group interactions while performing the kinds of tasks that you were introduced to in the beginning of the questionnaire?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

9. How effective can learning such speech acts be in helping you to speak appropriately (the same way native English speakers do)?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

10. How effective can learning such speech acts be in fulfilling your daily needs (for reading stories, watching movies, etc.)?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

The following questions are about the Language Functions Section of your textbook (the last page in each lesson).

11. How effective is the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in increasing your motivation to speak English?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

12. How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in enabling you to speak English?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

13. How effective are these dialogues in familiarizing you with various speech acts?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

14. How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in making these dialogues meaningful to you? (for example, by giving information on the speakers involved or presenting you with pictures)

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

15. How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook with respect to presenting you with information on the situation in which the dialogues are taking place (such as interpersonal relationships or the location)?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

16. How effective are the dialogues in the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in providing you with the opportunity to practice what you have learned thus far?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

17. How effective are these dialogues in causing you to see a reason for learning English?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

18. How effective are the dialogues in this section of the textbook in fulfilling your daily needs (for reading stories, watching movies, etc.)?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

19. How effective are the dialogues in this section of the textbook in helping you to speak appropriately (the same way native speakers of English do)?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

20. How effective is the "Language Functions" section of your textbook in providing you with the opportunity to practice the dialogues in this section?

☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

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Strategies of College English Assignment Designing from the Perspective of MI Theory[*]

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Abstract—**College English assignment should be oriented at consolidating and extending what students have learned in the class, realizing the role of promoting students' English learning and even their all-round development. And a comprehensive achievement could be better reached if college English teachers employ the Multiple-intelligences Theory in the process of designing assignment, catering to aptitude and individuality.**

Index Terms—**Multiple-intelligences Theory, college English, assignment**

I. CURRENT SITUATION OF COLLEGE ENGLISH ASSIGNMENT

Assignment, as an essential part of college English class, belongs to a system of English teaching. However, current researches show that assignments are always neglected because most of teachers find it tiring and time-consuming to check assignment, while they need the time to do research work and giving class. Or, even some of them just ask students to do some written tests without considering students' learning styles, thus neglecting the necessity of individual development. Tan (2009) holds that college students always spend much time on rote-learning, thus failing to utilize their potentials and cultivate abilities of thinking and working independently. Unscientific assignments will make students learn passively, and therefore, they could not accomplish the target of consolidating and extending what they have learned in class (Shi, 2008)

II. FEATURES OF COLLEGE ENGLISH ASSIGNMENT

English assignment is a kind of purposeful teaching activity that teachers prescribe students to finish, and it mainly has three features.

First, assignment is an approach to consolidate what students have learned in class. Teachers need to check how much students have acquired and their understanding in class. However, those aspects could not be finished just in class, and then teachers need to give students some additional after-class tasks as a complement to the English teaching. As well, teachers can adjust teaching accordingly and reflect their teaching. Besides, this is also a kind of bond between students and teachers as a way to ensure the successful English class interaction in class.

Second, assignment enables students to take up more challenges in terms of English learning, and absorb more extracurricular knowledge. The traditional English class hour is intense but short, so it is impossible to accomplish systematic learning just in class. Therefore, students need more tasks and guidance to explore English as well as their potentials, while teachers' guidance is unavoidable. Teachers could lead students to do some practice, helping them to review language points, so as to encourage students to be more responsible and active in English learning.

Third, assignment develops students' comprehensive ability. English class is to enhance students' development as a whole person and, at the same time, and stressing on language learning. Traditionally, English assignment in China is mainly about rote-memorizing, testing, translation, seldom focusing on what teachers can help students' personal future development. It goes without doubt teachers mean well to help students finish some practical exercise like translation, reading and mechanically to pass the exams such as CET4/6(College English Test Band 4/6), while this exam-oriented exercise alone could contribute to students sound development physically and physically.

From the current situation and typical features of English assignments in China, it is imperial for teachers to adopt new concept to design English assignment so as to promote college students' comprehensive development.

III. THEORETICAL BASIS

College English Curriculum Standards (2007) stipulates that the main target of college English teaching are cultivating students comprehensive ability of using English, especially listening and speaking, ensuring that they can communicate successfully in their future learning, work and daily life, strengthening the ability of automatic learning, improving their comprehensive literacy, better adjusting themselves to the development of our country and international communication. Seeing the above, it can be drawn that college English assignment is related to not only students' English learning, but also further development.

Gardener (1999) holds that human beings would make greater contribution to society as long as we can make take advantage of all abilities. The Multiple Intelligences theory (MI theory) put forward by Gardner claims that each person possesses different combinations of ninth intelligences, namely, mathematical-logical intelligence, musical intelligence, verbal-linguistic intelligence, visual/spatial intelligence, bodily/kinesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence, naturalist intelligence and existential intelligence. The above nine intelligences are not forever fixed; instead, they can be developed and used to develop on a certain condition. Each individual has a different combination of intelligence, which explains that we deal with things in different ways.

In education, it advocates that teachers should address students' personal uniqueness and provide a wide range of intelligence-oriented activities and experiences to facilitate learning, which is consistent with the core idea of the *College English Curriculum Standards*, that is, English teaching is not only for knowledge, but for the all-round development and the individuality of every student as well. Gardner holds that it is impossible to find individuals having the same intelligence combination, while it is possible to finds people having highly developed intelligences and thus personalized learning styles. Teachers should admit and cater to intelligence disparity, offering education according to students' aptitude, respecting individuality, and offering students an environment that helps students display their highly-developed intelligence while improving weak intelligences. Since MI theory came into being since 20 more years ago, it has a great effect on education with the teaching practices in many countries and areas around the world.

IV. PRINCIPLES OF DESIGNING ASSIGNMENTS

A.   Principle of Individuality

MI theory advocates that each individual has his/her unique combination of intelligence, which corresponds to the needs of young people on college campus. They care more about their individual development, hoping to display perfect images on different campus occasions, for they have begun to explore what they want to achieve in future. Therefore, when designing assignments, teachers need to bear in mind that everyone has nine intelligences, which call for improvement and that weak intelligence should be promoted to be strong intelligences, instead of being neglected For instance, after learning a topic about music, after-class activities for checking understanding could be carried out by asking students of verbal intelligence to write lyrics and essays, students of music intelligence to compose rhythms, students of bodily/kinesthetic intelligence to dance or students of visual/spatial intelligence to decorate the stage or draw their understanding with colors, etc. if students express their understanding of the topic in a personalized approach, they will feel that they are respected; in the meanwhile, teachers will be more adept in exploring interest-arousing assignment.

B.   Principle of Subject

Since MI theory promotes an active perspective at students, namely, the real subjects of the class, and it claims that students are different in terms of intelligence combination, learning styles and learning strategies. As a result, teachers need to create different contexts for students to display themselves, making students the center of the class, respecting students' intelligence and thus putting forward their all-round development. It would be better if students actively develop intelligence-catering activities automatically, pouring new ideas and creations into the choices of assignments. Besides, after getting away from the intense learning in high school, college students have more free time at disposal. Therefore, students at this age are eager to improve and enhance their capacities as well as practical skills in dealing with social problems; meanwhile, they need some assistance from the people around to guide them and parents, peers and teacher are the suitable people. As a result, it is significant and beneficial to help students to experience the joy of creation and exploring ways for self-fulfillment.

C.   Principle of Enjoyment

MI theory emphasizes individuality, so teachers should try to brainstorm more activities which arouse students' interest and enjoyment. Only when they convert the class of "teaching to books" into "teaching to aptitudes", students will be motivated to do the assignments. If teachers are able to offer activities attracting students' curiosity, students will keep an eye on the class (Harmer, 2000). For instance, after-class activities for Unit 7 "Food and Health' in Chuangxin College English (2) may be fulfilled in the following forms: basics about healthy food, debating/parallel writing, poster designing/drawing, songs and dances, etc. Students are free to choose 1-2 items, in this way, assignments can not only ensure students' enjoyment of exploring daily life, but also consolidate what they have learned in class. If teachers try to conduct the real MI-based assignment projects, they need to take students as unique individuals with their own intelligence combinations, and should try to design more interesting tasks fit for students' cognitive development so that they can easily experience the sense of involvement.

D.   Principle of Cooperation

An individual could bring out a better performance as long as he/she succeeds in making use of most of their intelligences work together, and the same goes to English learning. Besides of the individual assignments which call for students to finish separately, so as to train their abilities of solving problems independently, there should be also activities which endow students chances to cooperate with each other, developing their skills of expressing themselves

and understanding others. Only teachers encourage students to take part in group work, new ideas can come out in the process of communicating, and thus push forward their all-round development. Activities can range from visiting/ interviewing from projects, etc. Those activities can both accumulate their successful life experiences and cultivate their skills of cooperation and life-exploration.

V. TYPES OF ASSIGNMENT

Under the guidance of MI theory, teachers should try to ensure each student chances to display their strong intelligences and improve the weak intelligences. Therefore, teachers can document students' intelligence combinations, bearing in mind that each college student in a classroom are unique. MI theory provides us with a new perspective to view intelligence, and scientific evidence to come up with teaching activities that concentrate on individuality (Christison, 1999). In the meantime, teachers can also invite students to be involved in designing after-class activities, helping them to be the real subject of learning. To design assignments based on MI theory, there are always three goals to be addressed, namely, exploration (encourage students to take advantages of intelligences through joining in activities); talent development (provide students with ample chances for them to exercise of abilities); and using strengths (create more accentuating students' intellectual strengths in their curriculum, paying attention to individualized or personalized education). Here, the author will recommend some activities according to the features of each intelligence.

Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence allows individuals to communicate and make sense of the world through language. Teachers can design assignments through listening, debate, storytelling, individualized reading, intensive and extensive reading, writing, keeping a diary or journal, etc.

Logical/Mathematical Intelligence enables individuals to use and appreciate abstract relations and understand the underlying principles of some kind of causal system. Teachers can guide students to do T/F questions, riddles, rewriting stories, sequencing paragraphs, bringing out solutions, etc.

Visual-Spatial Intelligence instills people the capacity to think in three-dimensional ways. This intelligence involves sensitivity to color, line, shape, form, space, and the relationships that exist between among elements. Assignments could be carried out by asking students to drawing pictures to express their understanding of the text, designing posters, watching videos and making use of colors to highlight the key points.

Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence enables individuals to use one's body to express opinion and feeling as well as the facility to manipulate objects skillfully. Students could be encouraged to finish after-class tasks through role-playing, dancing to memorize vocabulary, "hands-on" activities, facial expressions, physical relaxation exercises, role playing/drama, learning a topic or idea with a physical gesture associated.

Musical Intelligence allows people to create, communicate, and understand meanings made out of sound. Students can be encouraged to express themselves through creating lyrics about the material being taught, singing, playing instrument, listening to music, rhythm, composing.

Interpersonal Intelligence enables people to perceive and make distinctions in the moods, intentions, motivations, and feelings of other people. Students could cooperate to finish assignments by doing group projects, drama/role playing, simulation, subject drills with partners, quizzing each other, discussion, interviewing.

Intrapersonal Intelligence helps individuals to distinguish among their own feelings, to build accurate mental models of themselves, and to draw on these models to make decisions about their lives. Assignments could be expressed in terms of journaling, meditation, self-assessment, goal-setting, thinking about what has been learned, emotional processing, and guided imagery.

Naturalist Intelligence allows people to use, classify, and distinguish among features of the environment. Teachers can foster this intelligence by using relationships among systems of species, classification, comparing sets of groups, working in nature, exploring living things, creating observation notebooks of plant.

Existential intelligence is about posing and pondering questions about life, death and ultimate realities, and people of this style enjoy thinking, and questioning, and are curios about life, death, and ultimate realities. And college students are capable of questioning about in term of English.

Through students finish assignment in different ways, one point is assured, that is, the combination of English learning with developing intelligence, individuality, and personal interest. No intelligence can exist alone, and therefore efficiency of learning can be greatly promoted only when intelligences are involved. Therefore, in the process of designing after-class activities, teachers had better encourage students to make use of their intelligences, trying various approaches to learn English, which promotes English learning and develops their week intelligence.

Most teachers would agree that allowing students to learn in a way in which they are most comfortable will increase students' self-confidence as well as the possibility for substantive learning. In MI concept, everyone is appreciated for his or her uniqueness, and various MI-based activities are implemented to help students approach learning with confidence and joy for effective learning. Therefore, this kind of assignment appears to be especially crucial for college students as they are still establishing self-image from the ones surrounding them. Bearing in mind MI theory, it is easier to design a variety of assignment activities that cater to different needs and provide ample opportunities for students in different situations so as to exercise their unique intelligences.

VI.   STEPS OF DESIGNING ENGLISH ASSIGNMENT ACTIVITIES THROUGH MI THEORY

With the reference of Christison (1996), the author lists four steps to show how MI theory is applied to college English assignment designing.

(1). Setting Teaching Objective

For designing after-class activities, the most important objectives are still to help college students develop their own comprehension of the texts and enhance necessary language skills at the same time. Teachers should also try to use nine different ways to help students gain necessary learning skills, promoting balanced development of students multiple intelligences as well.

(2). Reviewing the List of MI-based Activities

It requires teachers to handle activities in a more agile and delicate way. Adult students will turn away once they find the activities dull. How can a teacher always keep the tasks attractive and interesting, and meanwhile conductive to the development of students' English learning and intelligences? As Gardner (1995) states, "The more ways you teach, the more people you reach". Teachers need to refer to various MI-based activities and keep searching for more new effective ones.

(3). Choosing Appropriate Activities

Not all students are exactly the same. Therefore, in designing activities for English assignments, teachers should take into the followings into consideration: students' needs analysis, strengths, learning levels, personal interest, etc. Armstrong (2000) in his article "Multiple Intelligences: Seven Ways to Curriculum" suggested that teachers use the following questions as a checklist when developing plans: How can I use spoken or written language (Linguistic)? How can I include numbers, computation, logic, classification, and critical thinking (Logical/mathematical)? How can I use videos, visualization, visual organizers, color, and art (Spatial)? How can I include musical sounds, environmental sounds, and rhythm (Musical)? How can I include movement, hands-on experience, and eye-hand coordination (Bodily/kinesthetic)? How can I involve students in cooperative groups, peer or cross-age tutoring, and large-group role-playing (Interpersonal)? How can I elicit memories, personal feelings, or present options (Intrapersonal)? How can I include classifying, observing, or environmental appreciation (Naturalist) (added by the author)? In choosing activities, teachers should avoid the dangers of just making students have fun in the process without get anything beneficial to their further study. Combining fun and English learning together is the key to a successful assignment.

(4). Reflection

At this stage, teachers need to track down what intelligence has been trained s by checking the MI weekly/monthly checklist, and later explore the other intelligence-related activities in the following class hours. Through this, teachers can reach the goal of catering to each intelligence in and out of the classroom, helping every student develop in an all-round way.

VII.   ASSESSMENT UNDER THE GUIDANCE OF MI THEORY

A.   A New Concept of Students and Teachers

If teachers are trying to employ MI theory designing English assignment, they had better have a through look at the brand new role of students and teachers in the framework of MI theory. Gardner holds that each individual own nine intelligences, which are displayed in various form and in different combinations. Therefore, there must be disparity among the development of intelligences, and English learning, as a way to cultivate human culture and intelligence, should be adjusted to satisfy students intelligence development. When teachers admit intelligence diversity, it means that we should encourage individuality in our classrooms. If we can appreciate human beings' intelligence and learning capacity in a scientific and logical perspective, we will fully understand the uniqueness of each student because of their unique intelligence combinations and learning styles, so as to promote equality in classrooms (Huo, 2003).

On the basis of admitting intelligence equality and diversity, teachers need to realize that English learning and developing students' intelligences are of the same importance. English students should enjoy the same education and therefore, they will get a sound development in the long run to be a useful person in society. The traditional English class just judge students simply with the standards of language tests, neglecting most students' strong intelligence and thus their learning styles. Actually, English teaching should provide students a cultural environment which promotes each intelligence of students; and with the encouragement and guidance of teachers, everyone is made to be successful, instead of some special ones. At the same time, it is also necessary to encourage students to know their intelligence combination and cognitive style, cultivating their active involvement in language learning, planning and monitoring. Teachers need to care for each student and design assignment according to their multiple intelligences, trying to help students display strong intelligence and improve weak intelligence in the process of doing assignment. MI theory offers us a new perspective at students, assisting teachers in designing more assignments which focus on individual difference (Christison, 1999).

B.   Comprehensive Development of Intelligence

Nine intelligences can stand separately while also work collaboratively, but people need to solve problems with all of their involvement; nearly each person, whatever his/her social background is, needs combining several intelligences to

work out problems (Gardner, 1983). The related neurological system will not function properly or even disappear gradually, if there is no suitable condition and training fit for intelligences. Education plays a great role in digging out a person's potential. Once a person is provided with a chance to make use of his/her potential and learn, they will definitely show a positive change in their cognition, mood, and even physical functions. MI theory advocates that people are born with intelligences, which can be promoted to a higher level with proper practice and guidance. The intelligences are interrelated and improved mutually; even sub-intelligences of each intelligence are in the above connections. In English leaning the subsystems of lingual intelligence, namely, listening/reading/ speaking/writing intelligences are related mutually, so it is scientific to promote the whole development of lingual intelligence by using the connections of these sub-skills. Therefore, in the assessment process, teachers need to combine the inner connections of intelligences and its subsystems. Learners of intelligence could take advantage of their verbal/linguistic intelligence to help the further development of other intelligences.

C. Multiple Forms of Assignment

English teaching is students-centered from the perspective of MI theory, advocating task-based teaching. Teachers help students' explore and employ their own strong intelligences, or combinations of intelligence to learn English, and help their comprehensive development of four language skills. Also, teaching should not just be limited to class hour, but also extend to students' out-class learning and daily life. English assignment is an approach to help the extending process, an improvement way to help students' extracurricular courses. Here are features of assignment under MI guidance. a. teachers need to assign individualized tasks according to students' multiple intelligence; b. intelligence development should be embodied in tasks, which vary in amounts and degree of difficulty; c. answers and forms of assessment are open, for students are allowed to choose different tasks, forms, and content; d, the objectives are related to students daily life, helping students experience success and self-realization.

D. Multiple Forms of Evaluation

Assessment needs to be realized in different approaches from the perspective of MI theory. Teachers should develop more formative assessment, including self-assessment, peer assessment, teacher assessment, etc., and teachers need to advocate the use of portfolios. First, teachers can encourage students to be involved in the project of self-assessment. This calls for cooperation of both teachers and students in planning and making assessment criteria. When students are involved in assessment of themselves, their friends, their intelligences of intrapersonal, interpersonal, naturalist intelligence are all practiced. In a word, teachers' assessments are just one small part, with respect to students' self-assessment. Intelligences should be the real performance of individuals in a learning environment; therefore, it can only be evaluated in a certain cultural background, instead of single tests (Armstrong, 1994) .This explain why assessment in MI theory are implemented in various forms and standards, because the real purpose of assessment is to help students' intelligence development.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In order to promote efficiency of English assignments while allowing students space to display their specialties, developing weak intelligences, it is advocated that, in and out of class, English teachers should take students' intelligence development into consideration, coming up with diverse activities. The concept of exploring more significant after-class activities under the guidance of MI theory enables students be to more confident and active in displaying themselves, developing students' cooperation and training their strong will. It is beneficial for them to explore English learning and personal future development through various forms of activities, fertile imagination, flexible assessment and autonomy to be involved in assignment designing. Currently, education in China is in an era of reform and creation, especially, the transformation of examination-oriented education to education for all-round development, so college English assignment will also definitely embrace its evolvement with the implementation of College English Curriculum Standards. Teachers should reconfigure the traditional assignment design, and Gardner's MI theory can provide profound implications for this reconfiguration.

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Error Analysis and Second Language Writing

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Abstract—The purpose of the study is to compare and examine types of written errors by EFL and ESL learners at under graduate level in English Language and suggest remedial measures to overcome the committing of errors. The data for the study were 200 students in the age range of 20 to24 at under graduate level in Mysore, India as ESL learners and Bushehr, Iran as EFL learners participated in this study. The results of the study indicate that the total number of errors committed by the Iranian students was 3045 and that of their Indian peers' was 3274. The maximum errors made by the subjects were from the realm of 'punctuation' (1387). The number of errors made by the Indian students in the use of punctuation was 718 which came to 22% for errors in punctuation. The Iranian students committed 669 errors. They constituted 22% of errors for punctuation. Thus, the minimum number of errors recorded in writing in this study was 'spelling.' The total number of errors in the use of spelling was 1050. The number of errors committed by the Iranian students in the use of spelling was 578 which come to 19% for errors in spelling. The number of errors committed by the Indian students was 472. They constituted 14% of errors for spelling.

Index Terms—errors, ESL learners, EFL learners, written errors

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study is to examine the written errors such as paragraph, punctuation, articles, spelling, and conjunction in writing of Iranian and Indian students. With the increasing number of foreign language classrooms today, the role of error analysis can be regarded as a 'device' the learner uses in order to learn. Researches have provided empirical evidences pointing to emphasis on learners' errors as an effective means of improving language of students. Corder (1974, P.125) viewed "the study of error is part of the investigation of the process of language learning. In this respect, it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongues. It provides us with a picture of linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications as to the learning process" .It is generally felt that the second and foreign language learners face a lot of problems in English language in general and in particular in writing the English language. That is one of the reasons why the researcher has researched this field. Students commit repeated errors in using the target language. There is a great need for such a study to point out why errors are committed by the students and then we need to bring out few remedial measures to enable the students to improve their language and use English flawlessly.

It is felt that Iranian and Indian students have not properly developed the skill in writing. So far it has been observed by the researcher on his visits to the universities and his discussion with teachers; that the students of English at under graduate level seem to have not acquired competence in writing skills. Corder (1973, P. 262) argued that studying student's errors also has immediate practical applications for foreign language teachers: Errors provide feedback; they tell the teachers something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques, and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention. They enable him to decide whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on. This is the day-to-day value of errors. But in terms of broader planning and with a new group of learners they provide the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a programme of re-teaching. Stig (1975) argued that the aim of an error analysis is an analysis of the learner's errors gives us evidence of his competence in the foreign language. We also gain valuable information concerning learners' difficulties at different stages. Such information is important for the planning of courses and the construction of teaching materials.

The present study attempts to reveal written errors of English learners at under graduate level in Mysore University in India and Bushehr Islamic Azad University in Iran. This study investigates written errors in aforementioned countries. It seems worth mentioning that English is considered as a second and foreign language in India and Iran respectively. However, this study tries to analyze the problems involved in acquiring the writing skill of the students who study English as an optional subject.

II. REVIEW OF THE PIONEERING STUDIES

Victor (1973) considered an analysis of errors in composition writing. He collected fifty two books which are used in composition writing over the last four terms, and then he classified all the errors. He believed no two people would have classified the results in quite the same way and several errors could fall into two or more categories. According to him classifications of errors were such as: Spelling, Punctuation, Sentence structure, Verb groups, Noun groups, Pronouns Adjectives, Prepositions, Intensifiers, Confusion or misuse of words and idioms, Contractions, abbreviations

and informalities, Repetition and circumlocution, and Carelessness. Schachter (1974) considered students' English relative clauses from Persian, Arabic, Chinese and Japanese. He believed that error analysis will reveal to the investigator just what difficulties the learners have in fact: the difficulties in the target language will show up as errors in production or the frequency of occurrence of specific errors will give evidence of their relative difficulty.

Ratna shielamani (1998) analyzed conjunction usage in the written compositions of a group of fifty advanced learners of English in India. The study showed that the students have made quite a number of errors in the use of conjunctions. Although they can be considered learners at an advanced level, they seem to make mistakes in the use of simple connective devices. The specific types of errors include using punctuation instead of conjunction and using both punctuation and conjunction inconsistently. Others involve using the wrong conjunction and omission or intrusion of "that" to different degrees, redundancy reduction ignorance of the relationship between words like antonym and hyponymy, and ignorance of the relationships between clauses like coordination or subordination appear to be important factors. It is evident from this study that the use of conjunctions is also connected to the use of punctuation. A look at most of the composition exercises of Indian learners showed how rich and suitable a field of error analysis punctuation offers. This study can be useful in constructing controlled tests to find out the learners' ability to handle specific functions of those items. Bhatia (1975) chose students for his study from the second year B.A. Class in the pass course stream. Their first language was Hindi. He discussed in detail, the approach to error analysis of students compositions. The composition works of a hundred students were considered and then, the five chosen topics were selected. The areas of investigation were two: a) errors at the level of mechanics, i.e., errors of grammatical nature within the sentence; and b) errors at the level of organization, i.e., errors of paragraph development, which included such points as relevance, order, clarity of construction, and adequate development, of what is called "content comprehensiveness". Therefore, analysis of areas of errors both in mechanics and in organization offer a significant insight into the nature of difficulties in writing faced by second language learners. He concluded that the composition training program suggested in the study is aimed at helping the students achieve intelligible paragraphs in acceptable English through logical development. The suggested classroom activities are meant to help them learn to use both the correct grammatical forms and to develop some competence in their writing. Kharma (1981) considered articles errors of 128 Arab students in department of English in Kuwait. Out of 128 students, 41 of the students were male and 87 females. In this study, three tools employed as follows:

1. A special test which was similar to both of the groups
2. A comparative study of the English and Arabic uses of the articles
3. An examination of a number of the essays written by the students

Thus the test consisted of 40 items .each items, consisted of a slot to be filled in by "a", "an", "the" or "no article." In the study, the author collected about 2950 syntactic errors from essays written by the students at the English Department of Kuwait University over the last few years, but about 300 of the errors belong to the category of errors dealt with in this paper. Out of 300 errors in the use of the definite / indefinite articles in English were classified in terms of their percentages as follows:

1. In the use of "the" 50%
2. In the use of no article 37%
3. In the use of "a/an" 13%

He found that many kinds of errors were due to Arabic interference and other errors were due to wrong strategies or tactics such as false analogy or over generalization or wrong equation of the two systems. He also said that responsible for most errors may due to inadequate teaching.

Radwan (1988) examined the types of grammatical and lexical errors in the nominal group. The result of his study showed that the errors made in the use of articles had the highest percentage. This was followed by relative-clause errors, genitive errors, number errors, word class errors, and then other miscellaneous errors.

Belhaaj (1997) investigated the errors his students generated in the translation papers. The result of the study showed that the grammatical errors generated by the students were arranged according to their frequency as follows: verb formed tense errors, relative clause, adjective errors, preposition errors, noun errors, article errors, and miscellaneous. The importance of this research paper is that it describes a cross-level investigation of errors to examine the acquisition of English grammar across the four levels of the Department of English, Al-Azhar University -Gaza. It also aims at pinpointing some English language segments that ought to be of immediate concern to teachers in the department.

Khansir (2008) analyzed syntactical errors of a group of one hundred college students enrolled in Second Year B.Com at Mysore University in India. The aim of the study was to classify "errors" made by the students at the sentence levels such as: Auxiliary verbs, passive and tenses. The research showed errors committed in the use of auxiliary verbs, passive forms and tenses. The study indicated that there exist systematic errors in learner's target language. Within the perimeter of the paper, the errors pertaining to auxiliary verbs, passive voice, and tenses indicated that teaching English is not satisfactory in the colleges, and that learning strategies are the cause of errors.

III. HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The following hypotheses are formulated:
H 1. There is a significant difference in types of errors in writing between Iranian and Indian students.

H 2. There is a significant difference in types of errors in paragraph between Iranian and Indian students.
H 3.There is a significant difference in types of errors in punctuation between Iranian and Indian students.
H 4. There is a significant difference in types of errors in articles between Iranian and Indian students.
H 5. There is a significant difference in types of errors in spelling between Iranian and Indian students.
H 6. There is a significant difference in types of errors in conjunction between Iranian and Indian students.

IV. METHODOLOGY

The present study concentrates on the errors of writing of learners of English at under-graduate level. The methodology adopted in this study consisted of the processes: Research design; Data collection; and Data analysis. By the use of the tests, the errors in writing by Iranian and Indian students at under graduate level will be analyzed, and valuable remedial measures suggested. This study is implemented on the basis of an ex-post facto design. The reasons behind choosing such a design such as no control over the manipulation of the independent variables; no treatment will be given to the subjects; and the present researcher in this study required looking for some degree of relationship between the variables rather than a cause effect relationship. The collection of data in any study is usually determined by its objectives. The collection of data in this study is used in terms of the objective: a) to examine types of errors in target language (i.e. English language); b) to compare types of errors in writing of Iranian and Indian students; to suggest remedial measure to overcome the committing of errors. The data was analyzed utilizing the computer programmed from SPSS in this research.

A. Participants

The subjects for this study were 200 students in the age range of 20 to 24 at under-graduate level in Mysore, India as second language learners and Bushehr, Iran as foreign language learners. Ages of the subjects are presented in the following table:

TABLE 1.
AGE AND FREQUENCY OF THE SUBJECTS BETWEEN IRAN AND INDIA

Country	Iran		India	
Age	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
20	-	-	72	72
21	59	59	16	16
22	18	18	4	4
23	15	15	4	4
24	8	8	4	4
Total	100	100	100	100

The groups of the subjects were comprised of 124 females and 76 males who were selected for computer analysis from two universities after they took a General English Proficiency test and the Grammatical Judgement Test. 100 out of the 200 selected students of B.A. (English) III year studying in 5 colleges of the Mysore Colleges affiliated to the University of Mysore in Mysore city were participated for the purpose of collecting data. These colleges were used to collect data as follows:

1. J.S.S.College for Women.
2. MaharajaCollege.
3. MahajanaCollege.
4. MaharanisCollege.
5. Evening college.

And also 100 Iranian students of B.A. (English) III year studying in department of English from Bushehr Islamic Azad University in Bushehr city were participated for the data collection. Thus, the number and the educational level of the students selected from both groups were the same. Both Iranian and Indian participants in the current study belong to middle class.

B. Instruments

The instruments utilized in this study were: General English Proficiency Test, Background Questionnaire, and Grammatical Judgment Test (G.J.T).The General English Proficiency Test (Transparent) consisted of 50 multiple choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items. The test was selected to assess the participant's level of proficiency in English. In administering the test, the Researcher piloted the test for the target groups with the same level. In addition, 15 students in each target group, in two countries, with the same level and similar characteristics to participants of this research participated in the pilot study. The General English Proficiency Test was found to be appropriate for the participants' performing level. Its reliability through the K-R 21 formula turned out to be .64 for Iranian and .68 to the Indian students. In this experiment, the students who scored between one standard deviation below or above the mean score were selected for the purpose of collecting data in the present study .The background questionnaire for this study was designed to elicit information on subjects. The questionnaire developed by the present researcher consisted of 13 questions which were related to their residential address; age, language use, information

about the parents, details about siblings, language attitude, etc. Grammatical test has always been used as one method for collecting data. Grammar tests are designed to measure learner's proficiency in an academic work. Grammatical test is a test which aims to measure knowledge or control of grammatical structures, as compared with tests of ability to use the language, such as performance tests. Crystal (1997) mentioned that the function of the grammatical judgment test (G.J.T.) is distinguished between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences and he added that it judges whether these sentences are well-formed or ill-formed. The grammatical judgment test utilized in this study was a combination of the essay writing and multiple-choice which consisted of 5 items such as paragraph, punctuation, articles, spelling, and conjunction. The test was used to identify the type of errors in writing of Iranian, and Indian students. It was chosen to examine the ability of the subjects in selecting the correct items in English. In administering the test, the Researcher carried out a pilot test for the target groups with the same level. In addition, 15 students of each target group in the two countries with the same level of proficiency and educational level and also with similar characteristics to the participants selected for this study have been piloted. To ensure whether the grammatical judgment test is appropriate for subjects of the current study, the Researcher experimented with the KR-21 formula. Applying this formula to measure the reliability of grammatical judgment test for both Iranian and Indian students appeared .61 and .63 respectively.

C. Procedure

To achieve the objectives of this study the procedures were adopted: Development of the questionnaire, Administration of the proficiency test, Development of the grammaticality judgment test and its administration, and Analysis of collected data. Before focusing on the grammaticality judgment test which plays the role of a pedestal function in this study , the present investigator developed and administered the background questionnaire and English general proficiency test. The administration of the proficiency test was administered to the Iranian and Indian students respectively. Those students who score between one standard deviation below or above the mean were selected to participate in the next stage of the research. 250 students as total were selected to participate in the next stage, 120 of them were Iranian students studying English in department of English at Bushehr Islamic Azad University in Bushehr city in Iran and others 130 students studying English in colleges of Mysore University in My sore City in India. The background questionnaire was designed in order to elicit information on subjects. The questionnaire consisted of 13 items which were related to their residential address, age, language use, information about the parents, details about siblings, language attitude etc. The test was administered to the Iranian and Indian students respectively. The time limit was, therefore, set. Thus, before the collection of data, the participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to investigate a research work and the test result would not affect their annual examination results or any other results. The grammaticality judgment test was chosen to help in the fulfillment of aims set forth in this study. The test was administered to the Iranian and Indian students respectively. The time-limit was set in such a way as to allow all the students to attempt every item in the test with ease. The researcher cleared the students' doubts during the test. The Researcher had to exclude 50 students from this study, because they had skipped answering most of questions. The remainders were selected for computer analysis. The data was analyzed utilizing a T-test statistical technique in order to answer the research hypothesis posed in this study. The analysis of data was concerned with the tests: General English Proficiency Test, Background Questionnaire, and Grammatical Judgment Test (G.J.T.). The tests were analyzed utilizing the computer programmed from SPSS. The statistical analysis proceeded in three steps: in the first analysis, before making any attempt to investigate the six hypotheses of this study, (Errors of this study), the General English Proficiency Test was examined. The actual scores of the subjects on the test were examined. After this analysis, the subjects were selected for the purpose of the collecting data. In second analysis, the Background Questionnaire was used to elicit information on the subjects. In third analysis, the Grammatical Judgment Test was used to investigate the six hypotheses of the study and the errors committed by the subjects between the two countries. The analysis of work in this study was concerned with the processes: Classification of errors, Comparison of errors, Explanation of errors, and Suggestion of remedial measure. In this process, an attempt was made to classify errors in writing. In the second process, an attempt was made to compare types of errors in writing of Iranian and Indian students. The total numbers of errors by the subjects in writing were compared between the two groups. In the third process, wherever possible an effort is made to explain the errors in terms of whether an error is due to incomplete knowledge or lack of knowledge of English rules, etc. And, in the next process, the last attempt was made to suggest remedial measures to overcome the committing of errors on the basis of insight gained into the nature of errors in second and foreign language learning for second and foreign language learners. The aim is to help the students to improve their language and use English flawlessly.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The 6319 errors which were utilized in writing for this study were classified into five major   categories. Based on the category, it was found that the total number of errors made by the Indian students was 3274 and their Iranian Peers' errors were 3045. The five major categories came in table 2:

TABLE 2.
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF WRITTEN ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Sl No	Test item	Iran		India	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1	Paragraph	611	20	638	19
2	Conjunction	569	19	689	22
3	Article	618	20	757	23
4	Punctuation	669	22	718	22
5	Spelling	578	19	472	14
6	Total	3045	100	3274	100

The above table indicates that the maximum errors made by the subjects were from the realm of 'punctuation' (1387). The number of errors made by the Indian students in the use of punctuation was 718 which came to 22% for errors in punctuation. The Iranian students committed 669 errors. They constituted 22% of errors for punctuation. Thus, the minimum number of errors recorded in writing in this study was 'spelling.' The total number of errors in the use of spelling was 1050. The number of errors committed by the Iranian students in the use of spelling was 578 which come to 19% for errors in spelling. The number of errors committed by the Indian students was 472. They constituted 14% of errors for spelling. The other areas, in which the incidence of errors that vary from error type to error type, were: 'Paragraph' (1249). The Iranian students committed 611 errors which came to 20% and the Indian students' errors were 638 which came to 19% for errors in paragraph. 'Conjunction' (1258). The number of the Indian students' errors was 689 which came to 22% and their Iranian peers' errors were 569 that constituted 19% of errors for conjunction. The number of the Iranian students' errors was 618 which came to 20% and the number of the Indian students' errors was 757. They constituted 23% of errors for article. Writing tests encompassed sub-categories that are presented as follows:

In paragraph, the maximum errors observed in the selected connectors among the students in this study. In this sub-category, the number of the Iranian students' errors was 386 which came to 63% and their Indian peers' errors were 393 that constituted 62% of errors for paragraph. The minimum number of errors were in selected topic sentence, in this sub-category, the number of the Iranian students' errors were 41 which came to 7%. The Indian students' errors were 41. They constituted 6% of errors for paragraph.

In conjunction, the major errors observed are wrong use of subordinating conjunctions. In this sub- category, the number of the Indian students' errors was 479 which came to 69.5% and their Iranian peers' errors were 410 which came to 72% for errors in conjunction. The students seemed to have a tremendous difficulty with both coordinate and subordinate conjunctions. They did not know the use of conjunction properly. The learners were not exactly sure where it is optional and how to use the conjunction at appropriate place.

In article, the maximum error observed is the wrong use of the indefinite article 'a' for the definite article 'the.' In this sub-category, the number of the Iranian students' errors was 137, which came to 22% and their Indian peers' errors were 235 which came to 32% for errors in article. The minimum number of errors was omission of the indefinite article 'a'. In this sub-category, the Iranian students committed 16 errors which came to 2.6% and the Indian students' errors were 6. They constituted 0.08% of errors. The subjects seemed to have not mastered in the use of the English definite and indefinite articles in English. The learners were not familiar with the use of articles in English.

In punctuation, the largest number of errors observed is the use of semi colon in this category. In this sub- category, the number of the Iranian students' errors was 134 which came to 20% and their Indian peers' errors were 140 that constituted 19.5% of errors in punctuation. The minimum number of errors was quotation mark. In this sub- category, the Iranian students committed 50 errors which came to 7.5% and the Indian students' errors were 48. They constituted 6.7% of errors. These errors were essentially the result of the learners did not know the basic rules of punctuation. They misused a series of the punctuation marks at their appropriate places.

In spelling, errors with spelling encompassed such sub-categories as "omission of letters," "addition of letters" and "replacement."The maximum error observed is the use of omission of letters. In this sub- category, the number of the Indian students' errors was 204 which came to 43.2% and their Iranian peers' errors were 247 which came to 42.7% for errors in spelling. The minimum number of errors was replacement. In this sub-category, the Iranian students committed 122 errors. They constituted 21.2 of errors for spelling. The Indian students' errors were 118 which came to 25% for errors in spelling. The students misused the correct spelling. They used additional vowel and consonants in wrong way or they omitted vowels and consonants in a wrong way. The errors may be understood to be result of confusion.

VI. THE HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The present hypotheses were made in order to identify the results of the various analyses regarding to the subjects errors in this research. The six hypotheses were formulated that are considered as follows:

H1. There is a significant difference in types of errors in writing between Iranian and Indian students.

TABLE 3.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF WRITING ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	T	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	26.25	6.40	1.327	198	.186
India	27.42	6.10			

T-test was used to indicate whether there is a significant difference or not in types of errors in writing between Iranian and Indian students. Table 3 revealed that there is no significant difference in types of errors in writing between Iranian and Indian students. With respect to the mean scores the Indian students were (M =27.42 – SD =6.10) and the Iranian students (M= 26.25 – SD = 6.40). We can arrive at this conclusion that there is no significant difference between these two groups of learners in writing. Meaning that although, the Indian students have committed more errors in writing when compared with their Iranian peers; this difference is so negligible that it is to be ignored.

H 2. There is a significant difference in types of errors in paragraph between Iranian and Indian students.

In paragraph type-I (topic sentence) there was no significant difference between the Iranian student and their counterparts in India. An investigation of table 4 supports this result.

TABLE 4.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF PARAGRAPH TYPE I (TOPIC SENTENCE) ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	.41	.494	.000	198	1.000
India	.41	.494			

In paragraph type II (connectors) no significant difference was found between two groups. With reference to the mean scores it is clear that the Iranian and Indian students are similar in this regard.

TABLE 5.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF PARAGRAPH TYPE II (CONNECTORS) ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	.41	.235	1.337	198	.183
India	.37	.208			

In paragraph type III (selected connectors) t-test revealed no significant difference between the students in Iran and India. The mean scores refer to this fact that these two groups are similar in term of using connectors in a proper place.

TABLE 6.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF PARAGRAPH TYPE III (SELECTED CONNECTORS) ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	.493	.1917	.409	198	.683
India	.482	.1921			

H 3.There is a significant difference in types of errors in punctuation between Iranian and Indian students.

In punctuation, Iranian students were not significantly different from Indian students, although Indian mean score was slightly higher than Iranian.

TABLE 7.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF PUNCTUATION ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	6.54	1.720	1.341	198	.182
India	6.89	1.964			

H 4. There is a significant difference in types of errors in articles between Iranian and Indian students.

In article category, a high significant difference was found between the mean scores. An investigation of mean scores clears that Indian students have committed more errors than Iranian students.

TABLE 8.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ARTICLE ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	6.26	2.325	4.303	198	.000
India	7.58	2.00			

H 5.There is a significant difference in types of errors in spelling between Iranian and Indian students.

In spelling category, t-test revealed a high significant difference between the students in two countries. An examination of table supports this result. Indian students in spelling category have committed fewer errors than Iranian.

TABLE 9.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF SPELLING ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	5.87	2.092	3.327	198	.001
India	4.83	2.323			

H 6.There is a significant difference in types of errors in conjunction between Iranian and Indian students.

In conjunction category, there was no significant difference between the means scores. It can be concluded that both students in Iran and India are equal in committing errors in this part of writing.

TABLE 10.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF CONJUNCTION ERRORS BETWEEN IRANIAN AND INDIAN STUDENTS

Country	Mean	SD	t	dF	Sig. 2 tailed
Iran	6.32	2.558	1.379	198	.169
India	6.81	2.465			

VII. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The results of this study, which in many ways is similar to the findings of previous studies, show that the second and foreign language learners are not aware of rules of English writing. Corder (1971) argued that the learners fill in the gaps in their competence of the target language with an interim language structure, an idiosyncratic dialect. Dulay and Burt (1974) indicated that "Researchers in various parts of the world have now become fully aware of the significance of the learners' errors, it is thought, are not only inevitable but also necessary" (cited in Pathak 1988). It was found that in general there exist systematic errors in learners' target language and teaching English and learning strategies could be responsible for the increase or decrease in the number of the written errors in the students' data in the two countries. Therefore, it seems that there are several other sources which could be held responsible for the occurrence of the errors in this research. The sources of the errors could be interference of the mother tongue of the students, complexity of the English language, students' incomplete knowledge or lack of knowledge of English writing.

However, the findings of this study revealed that the occurrence of all errors types found here any proportionally related to the knowledge of the subjects on the basis of English writing. Based on the above claims, the researcher believes that errors are an integral part of learning second/foreign language or is a natural part of the learner's gradual movement toward the development of communicative competence, and he/she should be allowed to make certain types of errors which do not greatly affect communication. According to Burt (1975) the distinction between "global" errors which causes a native speaker not to understand the message and "local" error that makes a sentence appear awkward but, nevertheless, a native speaker can understand the meaning of the sentence, suggests that the teacher should concentrate mainly on "global" errors which interfere with meanings. On the basis of Burt's suggestions, it would appear that "errors" which block communication should be corrected more promptly than those which do not greatly affect the transmission of the L2 speaker's message, it is important for the teachers to be aware of the basic position that errors, as a natural and indispensable part of the learning process, should neither be tolerated nor corrected excessively. Therefore, the main objective of L2 teaching is to develop the ability in the learner to communicate in the target language. The type of errors in this study revealed that the students did not have the ability in supplying the correct rules of English writing. They need more practice in the areas. Sufficient exercises should be built in order to increase their knowledge of English writing rules and reduce their errors. On the basis of insights gained into the nature of errors in second/foreign language learning, remedial measures should be recommended that enable the teacher to teach at the point of error, that is, teach those items which the students have most difficulty. The teacher should arrange the remedial materials on the basis of the degree of frequency recurrence.

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Culture Teaching in Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract—The purpose of learning a foreign language is to learn to communicate in the target language. For foreign language educators, to develop the learner's intercultural communication competence is to know how to teach foreign culture. Culture teaching in foreign language education is a problem countered by language teachers throughout all universities and colleges in the world. Language is one of the most important carriers of culture and reflects the latter. Without language, culture would not be possible. The basic goal of learning a foreign language is to acquire the communicative competence, while the development and improvement of such competence is to some extent dependent of efficient and scientific teaching approach. Byram has defined the notion of cultural studies in foreign language education and put forward a model for teaching foreign language and culture. Shen Chen has put forward a proposal for developing Chinese foreign language learning learners culture creativity as an attempt to search for away through the difficulties. His cultural creativity refers to a kind of ability that only can be gotten by knowledge acquiring in foreign culture, existed in language and more than language itself, in the process of using such knowledge inter-cultural communication with others and creating new way of thinking for a new way of action. The students can get a further understanding of the target culture which will without doubt promote their understanding and command of competent communication in the target language.

Index Terms—language, culture, foreign language teaching, principle, method

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of learning a foreign language is to learn to communicate in the target language, to learn the customs and traditions of the speech community, and to promote one's study and work. The communicative competence is acquired through the socialization of the speaker. A person, from an ignorant individual to a social member, must learn the knowledge, skill and conversation so as to adjust himself to the society and qualify himself as a social member. This process is known as the socialization of a man and it goes throughout a man's life. This holds true not only to one's native language but also to his learning a foreign language in that language, as a social product, fully embodies the culture of its speech community and is closely related to the culture of the speck community.

Intercultural communicating means communicating among people come from many and various cultures face to face. For foreign language educators, to develop the learner's intercultural communication competence is to know how to teach foreign culture. Culture teaching in foreign language teaching is a question countered by language teachers throughout all universities and colleges in the world.

II. LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

A. The Relationship between Language and Culture

The relationship between language and culture is dynamic. Firstly, language is an important part of culture. It is the primary vehicle by which a culture transmits its beliefs, values and norms. Secondly, language is influenced by culture.

Language is one of the most important carriers of culture and reflects the latter. If there is no language, culture would not be known. On the one hand, culture is the basis and one of the most important attributes of language and exerts great influence on the latter. If there is no culture, language will be like water without a source or a tree without roots.

B. The Relationship between Culture and Foreign Language Teaching

In foreign language learning, linguistic transfer refers to the effect of one language, usually the native language on the learning of another usually the target language. This is also a common strategy employed by foreign language learners. They often use native language patterns or rules in learning target language, which results in errors or inappropriate forms in the target language. This is called negative transfer, also known as interference. Language is inextricably bound up with culture. Cultural values are both reflected by and carried through language. Accordingly, it is inevitable that the way of thinking and expressing influenced by the native culture will be unconsciously transferred to the target language during the intercultural communication. That is the cultural transfer. As a matter of fact, the most difficult thing for the language learners to deal with in their study of the foreign language is not the linguistic forms or grammar, but the cultural difference. In the process of cognition of the world, people always store the schemata into their brain, schemata can be compared to an immerse system of files in one's brain, where you can classify and store you brain and individual knowledge and experience. After receiving some new information, the brain will set up a new schema to store it or put it in an established schema of the same class. Cultural schema refers to the knowledge structure

based on cultural knowledge. The teaching of cultural knowledge and the establishment of cultural schema will be of great help to the learners' linguistic comprehension and expression. Once needed, the cultural schema stored in one's brain will be used by the students to get rid of the obstruction and solve the problem resulting from cultural differences. Cultural schemata are of vital importance for many aspects of the foreign language learning.

III. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Intercultural communication focused on what occurs when the source and the receiver are in different contexts or cultures. Becoming a competent intercultural communicator means being effective in communication with those of divers cultures and groups. The first judgment refers to the ability to produce sentences which are grammatical. The second judgment refers to the ability to produce sentences which are feasible or psychologically acceptable. The third judgment refers to the ability to use correct forms of language in a specific socio-cultural context. The forth judgment is about the occurrences of the linguistic forms.

Communicative competence is the ability to achieve certain communicative aims by various possible linguistic or non-linguistic means. The communicative competence is far more than the grammatical competence of an ideal speaker and it is a highly complex ability. The acquisition of communicative competence in the mother tongue is a natural process of socialization, which has much to do with the whole social activities and social environment. For native speakers, there also exist different degrees of communicative competence. As far as communicative competence in a foreign language is concerned, the training of it takes time and efforts. The basic goal of learning a foreign language is to acquire the communicative competence, while the development and improvement of such competence is to some extent dependent of efficient and scientific teaching approach. Communicative approach takes the development of communicative competence as the main objective of foreign language teaching, with less focus on the correctness of linguistic structure but more on the getting through of meanings, especially the speaker's abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation in communication. When we communicate, we use the language to accomplish some function such as persuading or protesting, which should be carried out within a social context. Communication is a process, and it is not enough for the learners to simple grasp the knowledge of language forms , grammar and function. The learners must be able to use the language to negotiate meaning in communication, and be able to use the language appropriate to a give social context. Communicative approach will fail without the solid foundation of enough knowledge of the language. Communicative approach is of great significance lies in the fact that it attaches more importance to the practical use of the foreign language rather than the structure or grammar of it.

IV. CULTURE TEACHING

A.   Theories on Culture Teaching

Byram has defined the notion of cultural studies in foreign language education and put forward a model for teaching foreign language and culture. According to him, foreign language educations should include fore fundamental components, namely, language learning, language awareness, culture awareness and cultural experience. By combining the use of learners first language and foreign language through comparative analysis and new cultural experience, Byram believes that will provide an integrative approach for teaching and learning language and culture. He shared Buttjes's view about cultural content as a prime motivator for language learning.

According to Kramcsh, the teaching of culture in foreign language has taken two main directions: one has focused on cultural information, statistical information, institutional structures and facts of civilization, highbrow information. The classics of literature and arts, lowbrow information, the foods, fairs, and folklore's of everyday life, the other has been to situate culture within an interpretive framework, taken from cross-cultural psychology or cultural anthropology, using universal categories of human behavior and procedures for making sense of foreign reality.

By summarizing theories above, Shen Chen has put forward a proposal for developing Chinese foreign language learning learners culture creativity as an attempt to search for away through the difficulties. The practice of this proposal des includes students encountering new knowledge, and being exposed to new cultural experiences, which should be related to what is already known and experience. The notion of cultural creativity has its foundation in the Chinese cultural context although it draws from current western thinking on language education. It aims to links knowledge and ability throughout the process of learning. It demands and understanding of how knowledge is the basis of ability, which in turn is the source on developing new knowledge. By focusing on learning to know, to do and to interact.

B.   Cultivation of Cultural Awareness

Indeed, we can scarcely imagine learning a foreign language, say English, without acquaintance with the American Dream, the Lost Generation, frontier and so on. Undoubtedly, the belief that language teaching of linguistic knowledge has been dominate for a long period of time, even until recently. The students, educated in this approach, though possessing a good command of vocabulary and grammar, turn out to be incompetent in actual communication. Too often we will find native speakers in embarrassment, confusion even anger by questions like: where are you going, have you eaten yet, how much is your salary and so on and so forth. Lack of cultural awareness proves to be a hinderer in

foreign language learning. If fact, in the 1980's many linguists commenced to advocate the inclusion of culture in language teaching. That is, the culture knowledge directly associated with the target language is to be regarded as first and foremost in foreign language teaching. Aspects of culture involved are as follows:

Firstly, customs. Customs refer to the habits and traditions formed in the daily life and communication of a speech community. Among them are greeting, addressing, gratitude, apologies and departure and so on. The Chinese usually greet each other by where are you going, have you eaten yet, how much is your salary. These greetings are intended to show their concern and intimacy. However, the same greetings may well bring nothing but embarrassment and bewilderment to the westerners. One thing we have to keep in mind is that the westerners have a keen sense of privacy, as a result, resenting any trespass in this regard. In contrast, they usually greet each other by talking about the weather, such as morning, a fine day and so on.

The discrepancy of different nation in social system, custom and ethics lead to that of addressing. Kinship terminology, describing how people in various parts of the world refer to relatives by blood and marriage, is a universal feature of language because kinship is so important in social organization. The Chinese, for instance, makes a finer distinction of kinship. On the other hand, the westerners possess a very limited scope of addressing their relatives such as grandpa, grandma, uncle and aunt.

Chinese people and the westerners also differ in their way of visiting. The Chinese will usually pay a casual visit to their relatives or friends without informing them in advance. The westerners, however, will habitually make a call beforehand to ensure that the host is convenient and ready for their visit. The westerners will drop a hint that they are leaving about a quarter or twenty minutes before their real departure. Then the host sees him out, but only at the door. In contrast, in China, when one of the guests say, it is getting late, he in fact is implying that the host and the hostess need a rest. The other guests, on hearing this will leave together with him, which will be considered abrupt and impolite by the western people. In addition, the host and the hostess will often see the guests out at the gate and more often on the road. In fact, the Chinese culture and the western culture are so different that it is difficult to make a detailed and complete list of the difference. It is worth nothing that with the exchange of culture, the Chinese especially the young, have begun to adopt some of the westerners way of dealing with people. For example, they will avoid question such as how old are you.

Secondly, psychology. People's psychology may differ in the sense that the values and morals cherished very from nation to nation. As is well-known, individualism and equality are pursued in their nations. They care for frankness or a clear-cut stand of opinion. The Chinese unlike them, value modesty and collectivism than individuality and rather than directness.

Thirdly, historical backgrounds. The term historical background covers the historical development of culture and the accumulation of cultural ethics. Such as in English, we have keep up with the Jones, John Bull, Uncle Sam, the last straw that breaks a camel's back. This kind of knowledge is directly related to some historical figures and events and has to be learnt specifically.

Now that the necessities of teaching culture in foreign language and aspects involved in it have been discussed, a question occur to us: what is the fundamental principle to be obeyed so as to eliminate as many barriers as possible on account of cultural difference. In short, there are three basic principles: firstly, step by step principle. Developing. students cultural awareness should follow the basic sequence of from simplicity to complexity, from surface to depth. The teachers must be conscious of the general level of his students and constantly adjust to it the scope and depth of his cultural teaching. In this sense, we may call for a systematic program for culture teaching. Secondly, appropriateness principle. In cultivating students cultural awareness, we must bear in mind that the ultimate goal of teaching culture is to promote their linguist knowledge and communicative competence. The teacher should strike a proper balance between linguistic teaching and culture teaching to avoid going to the other extreme of rejecting the teaching of linguistic knowledge. Thirdly, as know, culture covers a wide rang including geography, art, custom, history and science. There are sub-branches under each culture. The teacher is to distinguish the mainstream from the less important and to introduce to the students the mainstream.

Novels ,books, and journal. The literature of a particular country is usually a good reflection of its culture. By reading the writings of a specific speech community, the students at the same time of appreciating the masterpiece, can also get familiar with the customs, cultural background reflected the book. For instance, in Gone with the Wind, the students can get information of the American Civil War as well. Films, videos and other electronic aids. These means can present the customs and values of a culture to the students directly and impressively and thus produce an unexpected effect by materializing the western culture. Analysis and comparison. By analyzing and comparing different cultures, the students can get a further understanding of the target culture which will without doubt promote their understanding and command of competent communication in the target language.

V. CULTURE INTRODUCTION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the past, in foreign language teaching, teachers usually focused on the language points while neglected the importance of culture introduction in language teaching, so most students know a great many of words and grammar knowledge well, but they lacked the ability to use the language properly. When such students communicate with foreign people, they may make a lot of mistakes. For example, when they meet foreigners, they may ask questions like 'how old

are you, are you married, how much do you earn'. Such questions made foreign people embarrassed, because they do not ask these questions in their own country. These questions are very personal for them. Although we often ask such questions in our country when we chat with people. In our country, when we meet some acquaintance, we may say 'where are you going', so when students meet foreign teachers, they may ask such questions too. This question as a greeting, is very normal for us Chinese, while in English speaking countries, it is not polite, its personal question too. Why students made such mistakes? Because they do not know the foreign culture, they just know the language, the grammar. It is not enough for language study obviously.

Because of the culture difference, students also made mistakes when they just translates their native language and foreign language to each other. For instance, in English they say 'eat like a horse', but some students may say 'eat like a wolf and a tiger'. So if students don't know the culture background behind the language, they can not understand and use the language well. In foreign language teaching, teacher should not only let students know the basic knowledge of the language, the grammar, but also the culture knowledge. So students may develop a good thinking habit while they use the foreign language, that is our goal while teaching.

Through the teaching experience, I think while give the culture background knowledge, we should firstly learn enough before teaching. We should know politics, economics, geography, history, art, religion, literature and other aspects of the social life. And for the language part we should learn the everyday language, idiom, proverbs because they reflect the culture behind the language. We can get these knowledge by reading books, movies, literature, communicating with foreign friends and so on. Secondly, in our country we don't have course to introduce foreign cultures for non-English major students, when we explain language points and text we should give the culture background at the same time. Thirdly, compare the contrast between the native language the foreign language. In the teaching, we should not only introduce the culture knowledge, but also we should compare the difference between the two languages, so students can the foreign culture clearer.

Words are very important carrier of the culture information, all kinds of culture features can be reflected in the words. Some word have positive meanings in one language while negative meanings in another language. For example, in Lesson from Jefferson, there is a word 'statesman', when teachers explain this word, they can put this word and the word 'politician' together, compare these two words. When these two words are used in American English, 'politician has negative meaning, while 'statesman' has not. Through such comparison, students can know Thomas Jefferson better. And, in Lady Hermits Who Are Down but not Out, there is word 'lost dog', the word dog in Chinese usually with negative meaning, means some one bad, while in English, it is a good word, means loyal, lucky, friends. So when we have this text, teachers should explain this word clearly, so students can understand what the author really want to express. Students often meet sentences with much culture information, as this time, teachers give the cultural background knowledge, in this way, students can understand the sentences better and have a foundation for them to understand the whole text. For example, in A Miserable, Merry Christmas, if students do not know the culture information about story about Christmas or about the Santa Claus and how Santa Claus give children the gifts through chimney, they will not understand the sentence, no candy, there ought to be something to fill your stocking with , and Santa Claus can't put a pone into a stocking? And the sentence, he could not lead a pony down the chimney. The structure of these sentences are simple, but if students do not know the culture information , they can not understand the meanings of these sentences. And in Why I Teach, there is such a sentence, being a teacher is being present at the creation, when the clay begins to breathe. When students read this sentence, they do not know what the author is saying. Teachers should give them the culture information about the Bible. According to Bible, God create people by clay, and God blow the clay, so the clay have life, that is how people was created. Here in this sentence, the author made a metaphor, teachers just like God when help students to be real human. From the examples above, we can know the culture information is so important that teachers must give to the students when necessary, let students know culture meaning not the word meaning only. Miserable, Merry Christmas and The Sampler both talk about stories happen during Christmas, so when we have these two lessons, we should give students the culture background information about Christmas. In Lessons from Jefferson, we should introduce Jefferson, let students know Jefferson is the writer of the Declaration of Independence, let students know who is Jefferson and the information about the Declaration of Independence and American history in this period. In the Death of Hitler, we can add information about the World War Two.

From the angle of the second language acquisition, according the language processing mode, learnig starts from the controlling process, learners learn the dominant language knowledge through practicing and exercising, dominant language knowledge changes to recessive language knowledge. Through culture information introduction, the second language learner will focus on the contrast between the native language and the second language and practice, so the culture knowledge of the second language will become the recessive knowledge for the second language learners. So the intercultural communication can be made smoothly.

VI. CONCLUSION

Needless to say, the exploration in this paper of how teach foreign culture in foreign language education only touches a limited number of issues. Rather than giving a best approach to teach culture through foreign language teaching in China, we have just suggested several suitable ways to teach. Actually, it is a very difficult task for us Chinese foreign

language teachers to find a best suitable way to foster the learners intercultural communicative competence by teaching foreign culture. The close interaction of language and culture justifies the cultivation of cultural awareness in foreign language teaching as well as challenges the traditional teaching approach centered on the teaching of linguistic knowledge. The teaching of culture knowledge will undeniably promote communicative ways and methods. The paper through a brief discussion of the relation between language and culture, the principle involve in cultivation of cultural awareness and the approaches to develop cultural awareness, aims at a tentative exploration into the modern teaching method of foreign language teaching. At the same time, attention should be given that cultural awareness, through important and indispensable in foreign language teaching, can not be so overemphasized as to neglect the teaching of linguistic knowledge. The proportionate combination of the two is delicate yet to be appreciated.

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Distress and Psychological Distortions in Dennis Lehane's "Shutter Island"

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Abstract—The research in hand sets out to analyze, illustrate and exemplify the mental distortions, trauma, and the traumatic events through which not only the plot of "Shutter Island" was constituted, but also the identity of characters, as they will be duly psychoanalyzed through the course of this paper, was stoutly solidified through their impact. Trauma, via this study, is to be examined through the perspectives of leading predecessors such as Freud as well as pioneer thinkers including Ronnel, Althusser and scholars of sovereign order in human sciences so that a conclusive maxim of the nature of the trauma and its implications in "Shutter Island" will be attained, thereby allowing for a multifarious psychoanalytic quest as desired. Needless to say, mental disorders as diverse as psychosis, delusion, hallucination and amnesia, whose ubiquitous occurrence and recurrence would not cease throughout the story, will be discussed and lucidly illuminated, not regardless of how and why they have been given rise to, for 'Shutter Island" is not but a conflation of two entities as cited above: trauma and the mental distortions.

Index Terms—trauma, repetition, internal psychic splitting, delusion, hallucination

I. INTRODUCTION

Trauma, whose elusive nature has constantly given thinkers and critics pain and ordeal, has afforded itself paths to penetrate all the arts particularly cinema and literature. Trauma-centered literature and cinema happen to be in an unprecedented state as though, without trauma, one cannot perceive the alternatives such arts could have turned to. "Shutter Island", either the novel or the film, stands as a recent emblem of such literature or cinema. An in-depth understanding of trauma is tantamount to one's thorough grasp of psyche, its labyrinths, mazes and riddles; the very same site within which thoughts shape, images arise and abstraction finds life, yet once disrupted, irreversibility replaces all and it will not but prevail. "Shutter Island", over and above its focal trauma-centered theme, is a trauma per se, since it alienates the viewing and the reading minds to the best of its abilities and muse. One has to be both a psychiatrist and a literary thinker to permeate the essence of trauma in "Shutter Island". The language of "Shutter Island" is composed of two components at root: the mentality of the leading character or Andrew as the entity to which all the story is indebted and the traumas imposed on him from which his mentality stems. The distorted mentality of Andrew gives rise to countless dreams, delusions and hallucinations whose omnipresence never ceases all throughout the story. Then, through the words yet to come, initially trauma and its implications in "Shutter Island" will be investigated through a myriad of dominant perspectives in order that a thorough understanding of its nature in "Shutter Island" could be obtained. The role of mental distortions in line with the traumatic events and twists of the story is of an indelible significance which the present paper will take heed of as its secondary priority.

Dennis Lehane's(2009) best-selling novel "Shutter Island", as well-denominated as expectedly ghastly and appalling, whose merging of Gothic, mystery, suspense and turn of the screw Allan Poe style horror elements knows no end, is set in as far back as 1954, i.e. the height of cold war. Prefacing Rosemary Herbert's (2003) "WHODUNIT A WHO'S WHO IN CRIME AND MYSTERY" in his very exclusively painstaking style, Dennis Lehane is allotted an entry in her book whose commencement is as follows: "American crime writer known for depicting the gritty underside of urban life and the true grit exhibited by the characters who live in tightly- knit ethnic neighborhoods" (Herbert, 2003, p. 117). Had Herbert compiled her "WHO'S WHO" some months later when the composition of "Shutter Island" met its end, she, no doubt, would have incorporated it within the above-cited entry. However, unlike what Rosemary Herbert propounds in her entry concerning Dennis Lehane, namely Lehane's style inclination towards "depicting […] ethnic neighborhoods"(2003, p.117), Lehane, distancing from the so-called urban or social zones and taking a step beyond before, opts for an isolated Gothic setting called "Shutter Island" which bears no resemblance of any type to his previous canon.

Plot of "Shutter Island", if not for the delusions of the leading character, would remain only a bare and monotonous line of two detectives' resolute efforts in untangling the elusive escape of a Rachel Solando, a notorious multiple murderess who drowned her three children in cold blood, from a locked high security room in the Ashecliff hospital. In point of fact, the entire narrative is an instrumental means to an end of approaching the psyche of Andrew as to share

with him the grave severity of his illness, the regressions he had prior to then, the violence he was using to hurt other patients and guards, the delusions he had solemnly webbed around his unredeemable soul and, as a culminating goal, to unveil and expose the very private portions of his dying soul to him. Then, plot, in this respect, only sets the scene for the perverted thoughts of Andrew including all his delusional plot constituting notions such as the evil experiments happening in the lighthouse, his delusion-based characters like Solando, Chuck, Norris, Laeddis(not himself but the murderer of his wife) the Nazi-run experiments, his hallucinatory meeting with a factitious Solando in the cave, and the storm coinciding with all the other events whose arrangement comes at the hands of psychiatrists and their role play games. Therefore, plot herein suffers from an "unreliable narration", since Andrew is revealed to be an untrustworthy source of narration due to his unreliable mental state. On the other hand, with respect to the reliability of what psychiatrists disclosed at the end of the story, the above-mentioned incidents, to a certain degree, managed to take place all throughout the plot. Thus, in short, the plot is a mysterious juxtaposition of Andrew's mentality (unreliable narration) and the role play psychiatry (reliable narration). In other terms, what cannot happen(Andrew's ill thoughts) are helped to happen to give rise to a baffling plot whose fiction and reality can barely told from each other, thereby finding a symbiosis of an equal weight; a plot whose equilibrium might shatter easily should either side discord with the other. However, the entire plot, irrespective of its reliable or otherwise unreliable nature, employs Andrew's traumas as the hinge upon which it revolves. Traumas of Andrew, albeit of a reliable nature, ironically give rise to a mentality which suggests otherwise, hence the urge to dissect them.

II. Trauma in "Shutter Island"

If one is to do justice to "Shutter Island", in an attempt to write a distinctly different material of criticism whose underlying core is not inclined to deal with trauma – this originating from the thought that trauma is a matter of clichés and recurrent iterations in a tedious manner – then the justice, herein, is a doomed one which will not but fail, for trauma in "Shutter Island" barely steps aside, much less leave the stage of the plot which seems more of a delusion to the people of refined insights. Equally of the same incommensurable significance is the notion that trauma in "Shutter Island" does not only inhere in one character and in a single-time occurrence as one might expect, but in several characters and numerable recurrences. At the outset, to put forward a definition of trauma, one had better turn to Freud, as most ground-breaking psychoanalytic notions come down to Freud, where he contends " trauma is figured and read as the enigma of the human agent's repeated and unknowing acts" (qtd. in Wolfreys, 2002, p. 135). To add to the point and in another attempt to make his concept plain, he makes use of Tasso's story where Tancred unwittingly kills Clorinda:

Unwittingly kills… Clorinda… when she is disguised in the armour of an enemy knight. After her burial he makes his way into a strange magic forest which strikes the Crusaders' army with terror. He slashes with a sword at a tall tree; but blood streams from the cut and the voice of Clorinda… is heard complaining that he has wounded his beloved again (ibid, p. 135).

It is thus through a repetition of his unknowing act of slashing at the tree that the haunting phantasm of his wife forces into him a malicious shock of what he had earlier done to his beloved. In "Shutter Island", Trauma being the murder of Andrew's wife – for there are multiple traumas in it – one can obviously bear witness to the similitude between the Freudian recounted story of Tasso and "Shutter Island", in that Andrew, constantly in several sections of the story, finds himself recurrently encountering Dolores in a state filled with nothing but regret, guilt, and remorse for having lost her and for all he knew, due to his psychosis, an Andrew Laeddis had committed that unforgivable crime who was awaiting retribution. One extremely intriguing but paradoxically touching example of such encounters with Dolores, which psychoanalytically is an interface between the world dream and hallucination, is as follows:

"He wraps his arms around her from behind, buries his face in the side of her neck. "I' m not going to leave. I love you. I love you so much." Her belly springs a leak and the liquid flows through his hands.

"I'm bones in a box, Teddy."

"No."

"I am. You have to wake up."" (Lehane, 2009, p. 121).

Perhaps, the sole discrepancy at work between Freud's account of Tasso and "Shutter Island', for all a critic can differentiate, is in the word "Unwittingly", for Andrew, in shooting his wife dead, happens to be witting and conscious, unlike how Tancred shed his beloved's blood. In a shift from the trauma of his murdered wife to the trauma of war he had been through, there, too, can be discerned a body of Freudian repetitive haunting phantasm trauma to which sundry moving flashbacks were employed and by which many of his mental deviations could be justified. What truly has not been wiped off his mind is war, its ferocious violence, blood scenes, death camps, and massacres whose memories have paralyzed his mind. Two extremely traumatic war experiences impregnably come back to him more often than not, including the agonizing death of a Nazi subcomandant after having aimed to commit instant suicide upon the knowledge that the coalition forces were bearing down on Berlin but botched in an attempt to shoot himself in the mouth and the massacre of SS guards in Dachau:

Cawley, behind them, placed a record on the phonograph and the scratch of the needle was followed by stray pops and hisses that reminded Teddy of the phones he'd tried to use. Then a balm of strings and piano replaced the hisses. Something classical, Teddy knew that much. Prussian. Reminding him of cafés overseas and a record of collection he'd

seen in the office of a subcommandant at Dachau, the man listening to it when he'd shot himself in the mouth. He was still alive when Teddy and four GIs entered the room. Gurgling. Unable to reach the gun for a second shot because it had fallen to the floor (ibid, p. 106).

The vividness and readiness of Andrew's image in bringing this scene to an immediate mental life, alone and per se, is manifestly symptomatic of a preoccupied mind and a traumatized psyche whose unstable nature is prone to be triggered by a provocative piece of music whose sounding humane voice will not fade away unless high compensatory costs, i.e. his mental loss, are paid in return. And the following depicts the brutal massacre in Dachau:

Teddy said, "At Dachau, the SS guards surrendered to us. Five hundred of them. Now there were reporters there, but they'd seen all the bodies piled up at the train station too. They could smell exactly what we were smelling. They looked at us and they wanted us to do what we did. And we sure as hell wanted to do it. So we executed every one of those fucking Krauts. Disarmed them, leaned them against walls, executed them. Machine-gunned over three hundred men at one time. Walked down the line putting bullets into the head of anyone still breathing. A war crime if ever there was one (ibid, p. 188).

The grave consequences of this trauma in Andrew's mentality are, by no means, any more irreparable and traumatizing in the psyche of Andrew than the massacre itself whose adverse psychological effects find their way to every corner of his psyche, for it is, this once, the blood and lives of a mass with which he is obliged to cope, not a singular subcommandant. Most likely, the violence residing in him from which he is suffering a great deal is attributed to the above-cited massacre and its ensuing long-lasting effects from which he finds no way of redeeming himself.

Another dimension to the series of traumas imposed on Andrew, which manifestly traumatized his psyche beyond clichés and shibboleths, is the murder and loss of his children in a cold-blooded drowning to which, all throughout the novel, there are profuse flashbacks and from which he cannot be unchained and emancipated. The gravity and density of this trauma is far beyond words and so overwhelming that it somewhat falls stray from the path of phantasm Freud defined and moves past it, talking him into resorting to delusions of a Solando–not Dolores–who did what he could not fancy his wife to have done; this being the distorted image of the reality, he could redeem his conscience and set it free from the pain he no longer tended to feel. The image of lost children finds its way to every nook and cranny of the novel, either in dreams or hallucinations, whose border cannot be vividly ascertained. He goes through these images despite himself, among which the following piece chosen from the novel captures the intended gist: "And he broke into a run because there she was, Rachel Solando, shrieking as she ran through the ballroom with a cleaver. Before Teddy could reach her, she'd tackled the three children, and the cleaver went up and down and up and down, and Teddy froze, oddly fascinated, knowing there was nothing he could do at this point, those kids were dead"(Lehane, 2009, p. 236). To the main traumatic pieces of Andrew's trauma chain, a few further pieces are added, i.e. his childhood memory of his father's loss (to which there are few flashbacks in the novel and none in the film), burning down of his house by his manic-depressive wife (to which several flashbacks were pointed) and his career loss. These traumatic turns, albeit possessing a minor role in nature, should not be underestimated in traumatizing Andrew's psyche.

In a shift from the Freudian attitude to trauma to the perspectives of Avita Ronnel (1989) and Slavo Zizek (2001), certain thought tendencies remain alike and tend not to vary, save for some minor additional emphatic angles put forward in order to allow for a further explanatory zone, not elucidated by Freud in a critical sense. Thus, Ronnel observes: "Trauma, then, might be said to be a ghost"(Ronnel, 1989, p. 327).To her, the most paramount feature of trauma and traumatism is the fact the traumatic memory is " a memory that one cannot integrate to one's own experience" and also " as a catastrophic knowledge that one cannot communicate to others"(ibid, p. 313). And Wolfreys(2002) herself, to be further specific on the issue, states: "to read trauma is to register the sign of a secondary experience and recognition of the return of something spectral in the form of a trace or sign signifying, but no representing directly, that something having occurred, has left its marks, an inscription of sorts on the subject's unconscious, and one which, moreover, can and does return repeatedly; though never as the experience as such" (2002, p. 133).Favoring similar views and ancillary to Freud, Zizek in his book "On belief" asserts:

There is an inherent link between the notions of trauma and repetition, signaled in Freud's well-known motto that what one is not able to remember, one is condemned to repeat: a trauma is by definition something one is not able to remember, i.e. to recollect by way of making it part of one's symbolic narrative; as such, it repeats itself indefinitively, returning to hunt the subject; more precisely, what repeats itself is the very failure, impossibility even to repeat/recollect the trauma properly (Zizek,2001, p. 136).

What genuinely would strike any literary thinker as rather odd, having read or perhaps reread the attitudes clarified above, is the mode and approach they exploit to stress the role of certain elements, in what seemingly causes them to appear as common grounds, such as haunting repetition, spectrality and symbolization. "Shutter Island" is rife with repetition; not only a Freudian uncanny repetition but a repetition of an ominous type in the psyche of Andrew culminating in his psychosis. In other words, what indeed gives rise to the psychotic state of Andrew is the excessive repetition and recurrence of his delusions, hallucinations and dreams whose sole message is the reminiscence of the past memories, or more accurately, past traumas he finds himself unable to recollect and yet paradoxically enough unable not to recollect or as Ronnel contends elsewhere "a memory that one cannot integrate into one's own experience, and as a catastrophic knowledge that one cannot communicate to others" (qtd. in Wolfreys, 2002, p. 136). By way of spectrality, one might feel bewildered whether or not "Shutter Island" has specters serving its plot or characters. As a

solemn fact, Solando and Andrew are not but specters, not in a ghostly sense but as mental apparitions of Andrew's psychotic mind. Even in a demand for further accurate yet bold terms, specters in "Shutter Island" are those of a mental or psychoanalytic type which are at the full disposal of a character's fantasy, albeit a delusional one; a character who, exploiting these spectral fantasies and delusions, achieves far beyond what truly ghostly specters achieve in a ghost story or a horror film. Regarding symbolization and its interrelation with trauma, it is worth noting the very widely-known line by Zizek on the cover of his book "On belief" which carries too much in too little of a sentence: "In order to cope with a trauma we symbolize" (2001, p. I). The more one contemplates symbols in "Shutter Island", the faster one can opt for water as the most omnipresent symbol throughout the novel, for Andrew thinks of water as what contributed to his children's death, hence his creepy phobia of it. Thus, water, in every possible type, either at sea – causing his seasickness – or storm or the water dropping on him from the ceiling is despised and feared. Water to him is like his delusional fire, another symbol, for which he, by way of a delusion, blames to have killed his Dolores.

In a shift from the Freudian attitude to trauma to Louis Althusser's perspective, certain contradictions apparently surface within the realm of phantasm and structure, as clarified in his assumptions "Structural through and through, the traumatic phantasm – and indeed all phantasms in general – are contradictory, as Louis Althusser suggests, something occurs…but nothing happens…everything is immobile" (qtd. in Wolfreys, 2002, p. 134). And elsewhere he declares:

[we] are obliged to observe that in the phantasm Freud designates something extremely precise, an existent, though nonmaterial, reality, concerning which no misunderstanding is possible, and a material reality that is the very existence of its object: the unconscious. But we are also obliged to observe that the name Freud gives to reality…is the name of a metaphor: phantasm…the concept of phantasm in Freud…can…be, for us, the concept of the limit… (ibid, p. 134).

In an ancillary but revisionist attitude to what Althusser revealed, Wolfreys postulates that "the subject of trauma is rendered immobile, unable to move beyond the haunting effects left by trauma, […]. And yet, paradoxically, the phantasm is a symbol; what has to be understood, however, is that the symbol is not a mimetic representation, it is not an image of the experience itself. It belongs to the order of apperception rather than perception" (ibid, p. 134). Moreover, she, with the intent of obtaining a thorough elaboration on trauma's nature, borrows Dianne Sadoff's words in regards to trauma: "the material, physiological realm and the correlate mental realm" (ibid, p. 134).

It is amazing how trauma is in such a zone of disputes and controversies that many thinkers have been somewhat troubled taking a side, discrediting another, and putting various stances before and against each other; terms like phantasm against representation, perception against apperception, and mental against physiological. Trauma, regardless of its nature being either phantasmatic or representational, perceptive or apperceptive, and mental or physiological, is indeed a blow to the mind and heart whose impact will barely cease, whose haunting presence will not but resist, whose symbolization will dominate and eventually its memory will neither be included nor excluded. It is, however, a requirement to fill the gaps that concepts as such have put before us occluding us from yielding certain judgments. In a tangible sense, traumas in "Shutter Island" know no such boundaries; Andrew's traumas not only are phantasmatic – the grounds of its phantasm have already been illuminated earlier – but they are utterly representational to their greatest possible extent, in that they represent themselves in concrete examples such as his aggression and violence. Similarly, his traumatic state is both mental and physiological. The most prominent reason accounting for the above-cited claim is in the fact that Andrew is not only suffering from the mental delusions and hallucinations but also physiological ones such as his tremors and splitting headaches regarding which, throughout the novel, there were profuse lines, conversations and evidence.

In another reading of trauma by Cathy Caruth, trauma finds a rather more structural face. To her, unlike Freud's reading where trauma does not move beyond "the enigma of the human agent's repeated and unknowing acts"(ibid, p. 135), trauma is the "enigma of the otherness of a human voice…that witnesses a truth"(ibid, p. 135). Cruth, to remove the gaps set by the ambiguity of her assertion, using the story of Tancred, maintains: "the voice of his beloved addresses him and, in this address, bears witness to the past he has unwittingly repeated"(ibid, p. 135). Thus, to Caruth, Trauma rides into a realm of double, alterity, and otherness whose magnified ghostly impact resides in the psyche of the subject of trauma. "Shutter Island", viewed through Caruth's otherness, has even a lot more than what Tasso offered in his story, for Andrew in "Shutter Island" not only hears the voice of Dolores, but he, in his hallucinations, sees, touches and conveys words with her, thereby granting the melting of this alterity into his psyche so that, beyond Caruth, the other is factually his own self.

Another very intriguing province within which the trauma of "Shutter Island" had better be explored is that of a splitting and an incision in a self. As Nicola King(2000) in his book "Memory, Narrative and Identity" proclaims that the incised subject is considered to be composed of two identities indeed: one who believes to have survived the event and one who believes to have suffered and experienced it, however, these two selves might reach a balance in keeping pace with each other (2000, p. 17-18). The very same entity which Nicolas Abraham (1994) and Maria Torok (1994) agree to call "internal psychic splitting" (1994, p. 99-100).Two distinctly conspicuous occasions on which the above-cited self incision could be evidently discerned in "Shutter Island" are Andrew's anagrams and regressions. That Anrdew, unconsciously and unwittingly, designs an Edward Daniels – still a US marshal untarnished and umblemished by the stain of murdering his most cherished wife – to decline his primary self being Andrew Laeddis is to effectively substantiate his "internal Psychic splitting". With regression in mind, one has to recall Andrew in chapter 24, where, having been told about his mental condition, he progresses to his true self as Andrew Laeddis and owns up to

everything, however, unable to cope with the gravity of his situation, he regresses to his second delusional self as Edward Daniels to erase his unwashed sins.

III. MENTAL DISTORTIONS IN "SHUTTER ISLAND"

Distancing from the trauma-centered analyses and embarking upon the mental disorders and psychiatric section of "Shutter Island", one has to possess a vivid grasp of the nature of Andrew's mentality, bearing in mind that he is primarily a psychotic patient. Turning to the brief words of M. Keith Booker in his "A Practical Introduction to Literary Theory and Criticism", psychosis is imputed to people with repressed energies; "Healthy individuals can relieve the psychic pressure caused by repression through the process of "sublimation"; that is by redirecting the energies associated with unacceptable desires into acceptable activities. Unhealthy individuals tend not to sublimate effectively. In this case, repressed energies surface as symptoms of neurosis or even psychosis" (1996, p. 30). On a more psychiatric note than the above-mentioned repression theory:

The term "*Psychotic*" means grossly impaired reality testing. The term can be used to describe the behavior of a person at a given point of time or a mental disorder in which, at sometime during its course, all persons with the disorder have grossly impaired reality testing. With gross impairment in reality testing, persons incorrectly evaluate the accuracy of their perceptions and thoughts and make incorrect inferences about external reality, even in the face of contrary evidence (James Sadocks and Alcott Sadocks, 2007, synopsis, p. 272).

In the hope of a more concise yet telling introduction to psychosis, perhaps the following serves as a more fitting definition: "A mental disorder in which the thoughts, affective response, ability to recognize reality and ability to communicate and relate to others are sufficiently impaired to interfere grossly with the capacity to deal with reality; the classic characteristics of psychosis are impaired reality testing, hallucinations, delusions, and illusions"(James Sadock and Alcott Sadock,2007, synopsis, p. 281).

It is too obtrusive to diagnose Teddy's mentality with psychosis, ironically Teddy Daniels to denote his psychotic state yet Andrew Laeddis as a denotation of the sense of reality of which he has been deprived; though the delicacies, subtleties and tact he utilizes to forego the luxury of reality – of course this from the side of the sane for whom it is reflected as luxury – deny, rebut and distort it to his own mere advantage are the ingredients the psychotic Teddy has in his possession and what the above-cited definition is devoid of. The psychotic fictitious world he has webbed around himself afforded him reason enough to allow his sense of reality to ebb away and to hold steadfastly with his own reality that involves him being still a US marshal sent to a high security facility to untangle the mystery of a Rachel Solando's escape whose concoction of an intricate conspiracy theory to Teddy is yet another instance of his psychotic notions. Doctor Sheehan, or in Andrew's psychotic terms Chuck, pretends to be Teddy's partner in whom Teddy wholeheartedly confides, though in reality, he is a bright psychiatrist in charge of his treatment. Any new thought content that impinges on and clashes with the neat class of his psychotic thoughts is booed off the stage of his mind upon which his entire psychosis is built. Reality to him is as abhorrently odd as psychosis is to the sane. Under no circumstances could he think of a world where he not only had lost his wife, whom he adored, depended on and would wither away without, but his children, his career and a chance to love them as he used to, hence conjuring up all the above-mentioned. To quest for instances of psychosis in "Shutter Island" is literally like to seek examples of insanity in an asylum, yet it is a due preference to heed the traces of other psychological deviations as well.

Delusion, albeit less frequently discussed by some critics, is the central disorder through which a great many mysteries find their path onto the bedrock of the leading character's mind and will not but aggravate his psychotic state. Delusion, technically and professionally, is defined as follows:

Fixed, false beliefs, strongly held and immutable in the face of refuting evidence, that are not consonant with the person's educational, social and cultural background. Thus, delusional thoughts can only be understood or evaluated with at least some knowledge of patients' interpersonal worlds, such as their involvements with religion and political groups. One of the mind's primary functions is to generate beliefs, including myths and meaning systems (James Sadock and Alcott Sadock, 2009, textbook, p. 977).

Considering the delusional state of Andrew to be consonant with his psychotic state, one can readily witness the fine line, should there exist one, between the very two of them, but even so it would not be likely to harm our judgment to reckon that the psychotic state of Andrew far outweighs his delusional condition, for not every delusion would culminate in psychosis regardless of yet another fact that delusions are indistinguishable from everyday beliefs, hence its normality at times. However, the examples by which the delusional state of Andrew are substantiated, namely his false assumption of his identity, creating false and non-existent characters such as Andrew Laeddis and Rachel Solando, asserting that some inhumane evil experiments befall the patients in the lighthouse, tracking Nazi traces along the experiments, and falsely accusing the psychiatrists of drugging him, are not at odds with the grounds through which his psychotic state is solidified. It is wise to find in the ending chapters of the novel, specifically chapters 21 and 22, the most conspicuous instances of his delusional state, where all the cards of truth and reality were laid on the very table upon which Teddy, for several times, had encountered the nature of his suffering soul, which in essence compelled him to oppose Cawley and Sheehan coming up with derogatory words like "Bullshit" or "it's a nice act you've got going"(Lehane, 2009, p. 421). This is the very extent and scope within which the defining "fixed, false beliefs, strongly held and immutable in the face of refuting evidence" is exemplified. Unlike other canonical or cinematic works of

recent history, in "shutter Island" it is not just one character who is delusional, meaning it is not solely Andrew, or in his own psychotic terms Edward, who is suffering from delusion but his murdered wife Dolores, before Teddy ended his life, was pained by innumerable delusions, one of which was the delusion of the butcher whom she thought was a Russian spy: "SHE THOUGHT THE butcher on the corner was a spy. She said he smiled at her while blood dripped off his cleaver, and she was sure he knew Russian. She said that sometimes she could feel that cleaver in her breasts" (ibid, p. 451).

To be privy to the inner thoughts, however false and erroneous, and the psychic warps of the characters in "Shutter Island" particularly Andrew, it is crucial that one not overlook the notion and role of *hallucination* in the development of the characters' personalities, for to a certain psychological extent, with hallucination in danger of negligence, neither a full-scale psychoanalytic interpretation of characters nor a broad perception of the chief mental disorders, mainly schizophrenia, will turn feasible. Therefore, deemed integral to this research, a definition of hallucination borrowing the words of "Comprehensive textbook of psychiatry" by Benjamine James Sadock and Virginia Alcott Sadock, albeit brief, seems key to the work:

Hallucinations are perceptions that occur in the absence of corresponding sensory stimuli. Phenomenologically, hallucinations are ordinarily subjectively indistinguishable from normal perceptions. Hallucinations are often experienced as being private so that others are not able to see or hear the same perceptions. The patient's explanation for this is usually delusional. Hallucinations can affect any sensory system and sometimes occur in several concurrent combinations. When perception is altered, combinations of illusions, hallucinations, and often delusions as well, are frequently experienced together (James Sadock and Alcott Sadock, 2009, textbook, p. 987).

In various respects, hallucinations and delusions in "Shutter Island" serve as a pivotal hinge upon which the insanity, violence, and the schizophrenia of not only Andrew but Dolores and many other characters in the asylum revolve; in other words, should the mental warps of the "Shutter Island" form a spectrum, hallucination and delusions, at the very least, are the ones without which the spectrum would not have existed. No longer will Andrew live than his hallucination's life. "Shutter Island" teems with hallucinations, among which, the hallucinations of Andrew, in a multitude of aspects, predominate. To put it in more blunt terms, the plot of "Shutter Island" would not have come alive if it were not for Andrew and his hallucinations as well as his plot-shaping delusions which indeed serve like a waffle iron in which the raw ingredients of the plot are cooked and shaped. Take the spooky meeting of Andrew with Solando in the cave with whom the reader or the viewer definitively identifies; as unbelievable as it may sound, neither of them existed as far as the rationality and reality are concerned. The meeting is nothing but a figment of Andrew's hallucination, of course visual hallucination, and Solando is one of his abstruse mental delusions, whom he, in a paranoid chase, was seeking to get his cuffs on. Needless to say, the meeting in the cave is the most matchless instance of hallucinations since the others, more or less, accord with and fall into the domain of delusions. One other very vivid hallucination he experienced was the moment he talked to Dolores prior to his entrance to the lighthouse.

Hallucinations and delusions in "Shutter Island" are not confined to Andrew alone. Dolores, a manic depressive woman who had committed suicide before, was suffering from hallucinations as well. One of his hallucinations, mainly auditory, was as follows: "TEDDY DREAMED SHE woke him up one night and told him to get his gun. The butcher was in their house, she said. Downstairs in the kitchen. Talking on their phone in Russian" (Lehane. 2009, p. 453).Amazingly enough, Solando as a delusional figment of Andrew's mind, is delusional per se; a delusion within a delusion is what this state should be named. She believes she was a highly respected psychiatrist until she found out the corrupt nature of the things happening in the asylum:

"Oh, yes. I was a doctor." She looked up from her knees and her stick. "I still am, actually. But, yes, I was on staff here. I began to ask about large shipments of Sodium Amytal and opium-based hallucinogens. I began to wonder—aloud unfortunately—about surgical procedures that seemed highly experimental, to put it mildly."

"What are they up to here?" Teddy said.

She gave him a grin that was both pursed and lopsided. "You have no idea?" (ibid, p. 347).

What, by far, seems to be left unspoken of in "Shutter Island", without which the foundation of Andrew's mentality and therefore the plot would not have come to life, is the role of anagrams. Anagrams in "Shutter Island" cross the borders beyond which they were not meant to travel; in other terms, anagrams did not only live a life of numbers, digits, and dots through which the puzzles were ciphered and decipherd, but they, incontestably yet unwittingly, trespass the nature of their own definition of being an instrumental means to an end; they mould characters, thereby allowing for a vast scope of plot to gyrate around the above-mentioned, leaving the minds of the readers in suspense and bafflement while no such thing ever existed. The names Andrew Laeddis and Rachel Solando were not but anagrams indeed for Edward Daniels and Dolores Chanal respectively:

"Cawley stood. He walked over to the wall and pulled down one of the sheets. Four names were written there in block letters six inches high:

EDWARD DANIELS—ANDREW LAEDDIS

RACHEL SOLANDO—DOLORES CHANAL" (ibid, p. 416).

To stress the role of anagrams further, it has to be said that, what made the characters like Solando and Laeddis live was the power of anagrams and a magically delusional mind behind it. That anagrams are inherent in Andrew's mentality, irrespective of what he has been through, would be more of an understatement of Andrew's traumatic

condition. The state in which Andrew designs anagrams, calling forth his utter amnestic unawareness of his true name Andrew Laeddis, is suggestive and indicative of another mental disorder termed "dissociative amnesia" whose main feature, in the words of Sadocks, is as follows:

The essential feature of dissociative amnesia is an inability to recall important personal information, usually of traumatic or stressful nature, that is too extensive to be explained by normal forgetfulness. In many cases of acute dissociative amnesia, the psychosocial environment out of which the amnesia develops is massively conflictual, with the patient experiencing intolerable emotions of shame, guilt, despair, rage, and desperation. These usually result from conflicts over unacceptable urges and impulses, such as intense sexual, suicidal, or violent compulsions (James Sadock and Alcott Sadock, 2009, textbook, p. 665).

In their "comprehensive textbook of psychiatry", Benjamin James Sadock and Virginia Alcott Sadock cite a multitude of factors leading to dissociative amnesia after a traumatic experience such as traumas caused by human assault rather than natural disasters, repeated traumatization as opposed to single traumatic events, longer duration of trauma, fear of death or significant harm during trauma, close relationship between perpetrator and the victim, betrayal by a caretaker as part of abuse, threats of death or significant harm by perpetrator, violence of trauma, and earlier age at onset of trauma(1862).

It is outstandingly surprising how Andrew matchlessly suits the profile taking into account his numerous traumas (his traumas will receive treatment later), the assault nature of his trauma (murdering his wife who murdered their children), his close relationship with his wife as both the perpetrator and the victim (perpetrator in murdering the children and victim in being murdered by Andrew later), violence in turning to gun and blood throughout the course of trauma, fear of having his dark hunch of losing his children come true in the course of trauma and so forth. Apropos of the history of "dissociative amnesia" in cinema, one ought to take the liberty of claiming it has been utilized generously as a focal theme, not to suggest a cliché-ridden nature to them whatsoever, amid which "Memento 2001", "The English Patient 1996", "The Great Dictator1940" "The Last Temptation of Christ 1988" "The Man Without a Past 2002", and "Prelude to a Kiss1992" appealed to critics profoundly.

IV. CONCLUSION

With an analytic stance in mind, the events constituting the plot starting chronologically with the entrance of two US marshals to the asylum, investigating an escape case of a patient, flashbacks to a wife he cherished beyond words, hunting for a cold-blooded murderer, decoding various codes, searching for a patient 67, facing the truly missing patient, the thought of being drugged by the shrinks, and endeavoring to end the evil experiments carried out in the lighthouse are not but delusions and hallucinations of Andrew's mind via which the whole plot was arrayed, not to mention the fictitious or fake characters such as Chuck, Solando, Laediss, and Noyce who aptly filled the slots delusively carved out by Andrew. What truly renders the ground apt for the above-cited path of mentality to start breathing is the traumatic life of Andrew whose traumas were explained in detail. So, judging by the face of matters, is the entire plot a delusion too? This is the very question whose answer might be as vague as the reasons why some "Shutter Island" critics, after being provided with all the evidence targeted at substantiation of the insanity and psychosis of Andrew, still assert that he is utterly sane and nothing goes amiss in regards to his mentality; that it is all a set up against Andrew. Perhaps, the least of odds will go in such critics' favor once all the material scribbled above, particularly the reliability of role play psychiatry as mentioned earlier, is taken earnestly into account, yet the question "who knows?" might, in lack of better terms, serve our purpose of not taking an absolute side in abstract and subjective realms, leaving it more open-endedly than the way "Shutter Island" faded to the mist of its end.

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Jane Austen's Ideal Man in *Pride and Prejudice*

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Abstract—*Pride and Prejudice*, has been on top of the reading lists of Jane Austen. In Austen's artistic gallery, the portrayal of women is colorful and glittering. The panoramic view of female figures in man-dominated world, and the true description of inside-track examination of womankind, attracts eternal attention. In addition, the portraits of the men are no less noteworthy. These include the complexities of Darcy's personality, the eccentric Mr. Bennet, the good natured, impressionable Mr. Bingley, the mediocre Mr. Collins, and the hypocritical Mr. Wickham. They are not some essential ornaments and their significant sense and position can't acquire its deserved illumination in the artistic structures of Austen's novel. In 19th century, marriage was dominated by material base in English society. Social relationships and economic mode determined the rule of marriage. In Austen's day, the only road for mid-class lady's happy life was to marry well. The wrong choice of mate could spell social and financial disaster. Almost every woman's ideal man was a millionaire or at least a single gentleman with a piece of estate and much money every year. However, Jane Austen brought us a fresh wind about happy marriage and her ideal man two century ago. From Austen's viewpoint, her ideal man is a single man with extraordinary understanding, integrate personality, thick material base and social status.

Index Terms—background, marriage and love, ideal man

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a saying that literature somehow aims at studying society. Literature gives a faithful representation of life and thought of mankind. What's more, each work of literature has its own theme, emblem and fascination, which brings the readers endless aftertaste and consideration, so is Austen's *Pride and Prejudice.*

Austen began writing the novel in 1796 at the age of twenty-one but the publishing company refused to even consider it. Between 1810 and 1812 *Pride and Prejudice* was rewritten for publication. *Pride and Prejudice*, published in 1813, is Austen's earliest work; and in some sense also one of her most mature works. While the original ideas of the novel come from a girl of 21, and final version has the literary and thematic maturity of a thirty-five year old woman who has spent years painstakingly drafting and revising. From 21 years old to 35 girl of 21, and final version has the literary and thematic maturity of a thirty-five year old woman who has spent years painstakingly drafting and revising. From 21 years old to 35 years old, Austen didn't find her ideal man during these past years. As a 35 years old woman, her understanding of life and marriage must be much more profound than a 21 years old girl. She knew how hard the life was. But she still insisted on her views. She didn't comprise to reality. She would rather prefer to live alone than get married without love.

Elizabeth Bennet is the heroine of *Pride and Prejudice*. To some extent, she is the spokesman of the author. Elizabeth is born in a common middle class without plenty dowry, so it is difficult for her to marry a gentleman in Austen's time. However, she gets very good education as a daughter of a gentleman. Reading widens her knowledge and sharpens her perception. Her easy, unaffected personality and lively talent cast a light on the arrogant and wealthy upper-class young gentleman—Darcy. The novel begins with a series of misunderstandings between Darcy and Elizabeth and ends with Darcy and Elizabeth's true love. Darcy and Elizabeth's marriage presents us the power of true love, which overcomes class boundaries and prejudices. The emphasis of this novel lies in the perfect marriage that is arrived at the combination of physical life and mental life.

Jane Austen was among the first English woman to break the male monopoly of novel writing. Austen's works always focus on the everyday life rather than the important historical or political subjects. This might be called the limitation of Austen. In fact, in a broader sense, the big social problems can be perceived through the description of the daily life in the small town—a very narrow world. It is just from these unimportant domestic affairs of countryside that the social relations and class conditions of England at that time could be reflected. As readers of today, her novels remain fresh, providing not only an enjoyable sight but an opportunity to examine human nature in a different historical setting. Thus, Jane Austen has enjoyed steadily growing popularity, especially in the 20th century, and she has sometimes been ranked among the truly great English novelists by critics and literary historians.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foreign Studies of Pride and Prejudice

There are many scholars who have done such research. Among the so many scholars, Karen Newman suggests Elizabeth's love for Darcy as more consciously economic than fits with modern tastes. The romance plot does not conceal economic motivations; rather it is articulated with those motivations in a manner that reveals how desire is

mobilized by drive. Judith Newton recognizes that Jane Austen's novels can be read as supporting the conservative view of woman's role as ideally that of wife and moral guardian, and that the romance of Pride and Prejudice works as a compensatory fantasy for women's importance. Adams Margaret (1976) deserves attention for his thorough research of *Observations on Austen in Married Society*. Works like Gregory's, Chapone's, Pennington's, and West's opened a wider and more specific discussion of Austen, advocating curricula that would best prepare the young woman for the role in life that each author considered proper. They also advocated equal education along with greater opportunity for women to fill a greater variety of roles, both in the home and in society.

B. Domestic Studies of Pride and Prejudice

There are about 387 pieces of articles studying *Pride and Prejudice*. Some researchers study the relations between marriage and money. For example, Ma Jinhai(2006) analyzes the fighting between money and marriage in his article. Some others center on the text from the linguistic viewpoints, such as speech act theory, semantics study ect. Other researchers also study the marriage patterns. For example, Yu Xin(2006) puts forward that the marriage cases of most characters in the novel were very typical as all of the people's matrimonial value orientation are influenced by money.

Nevertheless, less specialized study of Austen's Ideal man in *Pride and Prejudice*. On the basis of all the former research, this thesis intends to address such problems: first, three features of Austen's ideal man; second, as a reader, what lesson can be drawn from this novel?

III. BACKGROUND OF THE NOVEL

A. Social Background

Jane Austen lived in the first decades of the nineteenth century, generally known as the Regency period in England. The society was highly stratified. In this period, social position tended to be established in terms of families, not individuals. The bourgeoisie and the proletariat were arising after Industry Revolution. In rural area, the nobility still possessed power and the squires still behaved submissively. With the development of capitalism, social stratums were subdivided delicately. Meanwhile, the concept of value had been converted yet that money became more and more important. In a word, at that time, the value of people counted on the possession of a fortune.

England always praises itself as a country of ladies, but in fact women were discriminated in Austen's time. If a woman from the gentry didn't marry and had no family members who could take her in and provide for her, often the only somewhat respectable alternative was to become a governess or a teacher in a school. Even those positions, however, lowered her social status, making it almost impossible for her to attract a husband who could provide for her adequately. To make matters worse, the income she could earn through such means was, in most cases, barely enough for survival. Thus marriage to an economically respectable man was considered to be the only legitimate choice for most women of gentry or the aristocracy. It was a tradition that men inherited all fortune. Therefore, women had to obey and gain their life necessities through an adequate marriage.

Obviously, this concept has a deep influence on Austen. The intended marriage mentioned in the novel mainly concerns financial conditions and subsistence rather than love and appreciation. This also explains why Austen creates her ideal man to be a single man in possession of a good fortune.

B. Background of Austen and Her Pride and Prejudice

Jane Austen lived and worked at the turn of the 19th century. She was the seventh child of REV. George Austen, rector of Steventon, and was born in the parsonage of the village in 1775. She was educated at home, and passed her life quietly and cheerfully, in the doing of small domestic duties. She began to write at an early age, and seems to have done her work on a little table in the family sitting room. When a visitor entered, she would throw a paper or a piece of sewing over her work, and she modestly refused to be known as the author of novels which we now count among treasured possessions.

Jane Austen herself had no portion and could not afford a handsome dowry, which apparently prevented one early mutual attraction from becoming anything serious. Later a fairly prosperous man proposed to her. However, her strong sense of independence and pursuit for spiritual happiness did not lead her to make a vulgar decision. Nevertheless, the life of an old maid could not be happy, either. Austen took it clearly that women were in a disadvantageous position when they had marriages based on fortune and social status.

Pride and Prejudice is about trivial matters of love, marriage and family life between country squires and fair ladies in Britain in the 18th century. The opening sentence of *Pride and Prejudice*—"It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife" —immediately establishes the centrality of advantageous marriage, fundamental social value of Regency England. The arrival of Mr. Bingley (and the news of his fortune) is the event that sets the novel in motion because it creates the prospect of a marriage of wealth and good connections for the eager Bennet girls. The opening sentence has a subtle, unstated significance. In its declarative and hopeful claim that a wealthy man must be looking for a wife, it hides the real truth of such matters: a single woman must be in want of a husband, especially a wealthy one.

IV. THREE FEATURES OF AUSTEN'S IDEAL MAN

In *Pride and Prejudice,* Austen gives her heroine, Elizabeth, high spirit and courage, wit and readiness, good sense and right feeling. She is manifestly superior to the people in her environment. She perfectly deals with her own love and marriage, and gets her real happiness in the end. Elizabeth Bennet is Austen's favorite character. Austen embodies her personal value in her heroine and is delighted with the result. So Austen writes to her sister about Elizabeth. "I must confess that I think her as delightful a creature as ever appeared in print and how I shall be able to tolerate those who do not like her at least I do not know"(Austen, 2007, p.66).

Elizabeth is the author's spokesman. She shows her views about the ideal man

A.   Love

1. Elizabeth's Choice to Collins's Proposal through Elizabeth's choice.

Mr. Collins is the first one to propose to Elizabeth. He is Mr. Bennet's cousin, and also the successor of his property. He is an arrogant, conceited man. A fortune chance had recommended him to Lady Catherine de Bourgh when the living of Hunsford was vacant. In a word, he is "a mixture of pride and obsequiousness, self-importance and humility man" (Austen, 2007, p.66).

He intends to marry one of Mr. Bennet's daughters for inheriting their father's estate, and shows his excessive generosity and disinterest. The reasons why he wants to marry are as follows: firstly, he thinks it a right thing for every clergyman in easy circumstances (like himself) to set the example of matrimony in his parish. Secondly, he is convinced that it will add to his happiness. Thirdly, he wants to please Lady Catherine de Bourgh. Marriage means a task towards Mr. Collins and he doesn't love Elizabeth at all. He believes confidently that he will receive a more favorable answer because of his outstanding property and social status. To his surprise, Elizabeth rejects his proposal plainly although Mr. Collins reminds her that "your portion is unhappily so small that it will in all likelihood undo the effects of your loveliness and amiable qualifications" (Austen, 2007, p.102). But Elizabeth still replies "to accept them is absolutely impossible" because "You could not make me happy, and I am convinced that I am the last woman in the world who would make you so" (Austen, 2007, p.102) Her refusal of Collins's pompous proposal is a mirror, which reflects, for the first time, her perception and character, and her attitude towards love. Apparently, these external material conditions such as wealth and social status can't win Elizabeth's heart. Elizabeth, actually Austen, insists that love is the fundamental base of her ideal man.

2. Elizabeth's Choice to Darcy's First Proposal

Another example also supports this point. Mr. Darcy is the second suitor. From appearance, he is elegant and handsome. As to fortune, he is the owner of great Pemberley estate and he has 10000 pounds yearly income. In politics, he has powerful influence in church and he has relationship to court. He is an ideal husband looking forward to by middle-class women in Austen's time. After all, it is a luxury that a single man's marriage only concerns love but ignores his lover's dowry and social status in Austen's day.

However, Elizabeth still rejects his proposal at the first time because she didn't fall in love with him. And she even dislikes him because of his pride. Elizabeth does not want to marry a man whom she dislikes. Although his arrogance spoils the chance of being accepted, he doesn't lose the control of himself. He behaves like a real gentleman. For example, he begs Elizabeth to forgive him for having taken up so much of her time, and accepts his best wishes for her health and happiness. After having being accused of arrogance and selfish, Darcy decides to make a change of him. In order to win the favor of Elizabeth, he invites Elizabeth and her aunt and uncle to visit his Pemberley. It can be noted that his manners have remarkably improved and his behavior strikingly altered. Then he does his utmost to rescue Lydia and Wickham from their trouble because of his true love to Elizabeth. It is Darcy's behavior and manner that moves Elizabeth and wins her heart finally.

Love is the magical power to alter Elizabeth's attitude towards Darcy's second proposal.

B.   Property and Social Status

As a daughter of a local rector, Austen was a genteel-class woman without dowry. She was so clear about the rule of the marriage market that she decided to lead an unmarried life considering her own situation. The man like Darcy and Bingley were so rare around her that it was almost impossible for her to find her ideal man in the fairly restricted circle of acquaintances in Hampshire, her hometown. To some extent, Elizabeth is an embodiment of Austen herself, so literature critics commonly regard *Pride and Prejudice* as an autobiographical novel. Austen points out emphatically that economic consideration is the bonds of wedlock and love. She says marriage is not determined by property and family status; but it is unwise to marry without money.

1. Elizabeth's Attitude towards Wickham's Poverty

Wickham is the first man Elizabeth loved. But their relationship ends without any result. The reasons why her attitude towards Widkham switches are as follows.

When Elizabeth first meets Wickham, "his appearance was greatly in her favor; he had all the best part of beauty—a fine countenance, a good figure, and very pleasing address" (Austen, 2007, p.68) and "whatever he said, was said well; and whatever he did, done gracefully. Elizabeth went away with her head full of him. She could think of nothing but of Mr. Wickham" (Austen, 2007, p.79). She once holds good feeling for Wickham, considering him to be the most agreeable man she has ever met. But meanwhile, when she had learned of Wickham's poverty-stricken situation she thinks it is too imprudent to fall in love with him. She says to her aunt, Mrs. Gardiner, "I will take care of myself and of

Wickham too. He shall not be in love with me, if I can prevent it." (Austen, 1997, p.181)

Elizabeth's attitude towards Wickham represents Austen's. A man without property is doomed not to be Austen's ideal man.

2. Property and Social Status in Elizabeth's Marriage

As for Mr. Darcy, no one can deny that Elizabeth's choice is partly because of his wealth and social status. After Elizabeth's first rejection, she is invited to visit Pemerley with her aunt and uncle. Elizabeth was delighted. She had never seen a place for which nature had done more, or where natural beauty had been so little counteracted by an awkward taste. They were all of them warm in their admiration; and on that moment she felt that to be mistress of Pemberley might be something! "With these rooms I might now have been familiarly acquainted! Instead of viewing them as a stranger, I might have rejoiced in them as my own, and welcome to them as visitors my uncle and aunt." (Austen, 2007, p.224)

In the end, Elizabeth moves in Pemberley and gets married with Darcy. She lives in a comfortable, elegant and fascinating life. Their marriage results from dispelling mutual misunderstanding. But economic fundament is essential security for their successful marriage. When Elizabeth's sister, Jane asks her how long she have loved him. Elizabeth replies that "It has been coming on so gradually that I hardly know when it began. But I believe I must date it from my first seeing his beautiful grounds at Pemberley." (Austen, 2007, p.338)Here Pemberley stands for wealth and family status. Even Elizabeth herself also admits that property and social status plays a significant role in their ideal marriage.

C.   Virtue and Esteem

1. Elizabeth's Attitude toward Wickham's Wickedness

There is another reason why Elizabeth breaks off the relationship with Wickham. It is Wickham's ill behavior. Wickham is the son of old Darcy's dead steward. He is charming and fascinating, but lacks the understanding of what virtue is. He is a deceitful, shallow-brained and dissolute man. He gets married with Elizabeth's youngest sister, Lydia. But at first he has no intention to marry Lydia even escapes with her and still hopes to make his fortune by a good marriage in some other place.

Elizabeth and Wickham are like old friends at the first meeting. They are all fond of passing judgment on Darcy. Wickham snipes at Darcy that he has been cheated out of an inheritance that his Godfather, Mr. Darcy's father, has left him. But Elizabeth is so intelligent a woman that she could see through how ridiculous Wickham's words are. But unfortunately, she is deceived by Wickham's blandishments. It is under Wickham's calumny that Elizabeth rejects Darcy's first courtship. When she reads the letter that Darcy writes with pain, she finally has a clear view of what Wickham is. She overthrows every cherished opinion of his worth. "What Wickham had said of the living was fresh in her memory, and as she recalled his very words, it was impossible not to feel that there was gross duplicity on one side or the other; and, for a few moments, she flattered herself that her wishes did not err". (Austen, 2007, p.189)And "she grew absolutely ashamed of herself. Of neither Darcy nor Wickham could she think without feeling that she had been blind, partial, prejudice, absurd." (Austen, 2007, p.189)

Now the truth is getting to the bottom that Wickham is an infamous scoundrel. Elizabeth's feeling is withdrawn from Wickham. The plots tell that Austen holds a negative attitude towards a man like Wickham and one of elementary character of her ideal man is an integrate quality.

2. Darcy's Virtue

Fitzwilliam Darcy, a son of a wealthy, well-established family and the master of the great estate of Pemberley. He is an intelligent and forthright gentleman. He always has a tendency to judge too hastily and harshly, and his high birth and wealthy make him overly proud and overly conscious of his social status. Indeed, his haughtiness makes him initially bungle his courtship. Darcy looks down upon her and her family at Netherfeild Park. He despises the Bennets as vulgar and beneath him. He judges Elizabeth arrogantly: "She is tolerable; but not handsome enough to tempt me; and I am in no humor at present to give consequence to young ladies who are slighted by other men" (Austen, 2007, p.9). These words unconsciously hurt the pride of Elizabeth. With the development of association, Darcy can't help adoring Elizabeth. He allows his pride to guide him in his first proposal to Elizabeth. He dwells more on how unsuitable such a match. And he spends more time emphasizing Elizabeth's lower rank than actually asking her to marry him. He begins his proposal like this way:

"In vain have I struggled. It will not do. My feelings will not be repressed. You must allow me to tell you how ardently I admire and love you." (Austen, 2007, p.175)

But the more Darcy expresses himself, the more irritated Elizabeth is. She can never bear a man so arrogant and so uncivil! He even shows no esteem to her and her family. So she offers her absolute dislike instead of her hand to Darcy:

"From the very beginning, from the first moment I may almost say, of my acquaintance with you, your manners impressing me with the fullest belief of you arrogance, your conceit, and your selfish disdain of the feeling of others, were such as to form that ground-work of disapprobation, on which succeeding events have built so immoveable a dislike; and I had not known you a month before I felt that you were the last man in the world I would ever be prevailed on to marry." (Austen, 2007, p.178-179)

In addition, Elizabeth accuses him of separating her sister and Bingley and of mistreating Mr. Wickham. Darcy leaves in anger but brings a letter the next day to answer her charges. He admits to the first one but he gives as his reason the improprieties of Mrs. Bennet and her younger daughters, and also his sincere belief that Jane did not love

Bingley. As for his alleged mistreatment of Wickham, he proved that he had in reality acted most generously toward the unprincipled Wickham. Though she begins to see him in a different light, Elizabeth leaves without meeting him. She accepts her insistent aunt's invitation to go on a tour to Darcy's home county and his estate when Darcy is not at home. But she meets there anyway and learns about the genial side of the man. At Pemberley he was more polite than Elizabeth had ever known him to be and the two become closer. Her prejudice is disarmed when Wickham elopes with Lydia, and Darcy intervenes to put things to tights. As Wickham has been brought up by his family, Darcy feels involved in the event. He seeks Wickham out and pays his debts on condition that he marries Lydia, which the villain does. The warm, caring side of Darcy's that the whole incident reveals changes Elizabeth's mind about the man. Elizabeth now more favorably inclined to him than ever before and hoped his coming. Austen fixes these plots to make Elizabeth be moved by Darcy's virtues. Actually Darcy wins Elizabeth's heart with his virtues. Virtue is one of requisite standards of Austen's ideal man.

V. Enlightenment

Nowadays, women's status has been greatly raised. They have the equal opportunity as men for getting well educated and having the same jobs. The percentage of women in possession has been larger than that of men. Austen's time doesn't exist any more. In the modern society, sometimes marriage is not the only form to get together. However; these qualities from the novel cannot be omitted: the respect for others, the understanding of one's own heart, and the correct principles learned by lessons and the pursuit of happiness and love.

Although the marriages of economic needs have decreased rapidly in modern society, the concept of "money determines everything" is still rooted in some people's mind. A lot of parents try hard to interfere in their children's marriages. Education background, possessions, and jobs remain the main reasons that may influence one's marriage. The prerequisite of marriage still calls for the reflection of people.

According to Austen, it is not sensible to marry for money, but it is silly to marry without money. Marriage is associated with property and social status, but it is not resolved by them. The first step to choose an ideal husband is to examine his virtue and personal qualitative. It is nightmare to live with a hooligan. The second one is to take his social status into consideration. Adequate living conditions could not be the first element but an important component. A person could be judged by his living and educational background. Last but not least, it is true love. Love is a magic power to bring two strangers into one, which dispels pride and prejudice between lovers, and also constructs mutual respect and understanding. The lesson from the novel is far from enlightening.

VI. Conclusion

Pride and Prejudice explores the moral and social conditions of life in the early 19th century in that enable us both to understand the earlier time and examine with greater insight into our own attitudes and actions within the moral and social conditions in our own time. It enables us to determine ways in which our decisions about love, marriage, and proper behavior are made. These reflect our own truths about what is ultimately right and wrong. The novel is simple and complex. It is simple because it deals with just one thing—love and marriage, while, complex in the sense that there are so many narrative threads loose at the same time, and so many characters of widely diverse personalities with exhibitions of such a rich spectrum of human emotions. The novel *Pride and Prejudice*, has the reward of women's apprenticeship to life—marriage. Through Elizabeth's choice toward marriage, three fundamental standards of Austen's ideal man can be drawn: love, property and social status, virtue and esteem.

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On the Relationships among Emotional Intelligence, Affective and Social Strategy Use, and Academic Achievement of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study attempted to investigate any significant relationships among Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence (EI), their affective and social strategy use, and their academic achievement. 106 Iranian junior and senior EFL students at Kerman University participated in this study. To obtain the required data, the following questionnaires were utilized: Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) developed by Schutte et al. (1998) to measure EI, and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) designed by Oxford (1990) to determine the frequency of affective and social strategy use. The participants' GPAs were also used as a measure of their academic achievement. The following results were revealed. Significant positive relationships between the following pairs-- EI and affective strategy use; EI and social strategy use; EI and academic achievement; and affective and social strategy use were shown. nonetheless, no significant relationships were found between the participants' affective and social strategy use and their academic achievement. This study recommends that EFL learners increase their use of affective and social strategies which will help them improve their EI; moreover, developed EI will lead to greater academic achievement.

Index Terms—Emotional Intelligence (EI), affective strategy use, social strategy use, academic achievement, English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

I. INTRODUCTION

Intelligence as a general concept encompasses social and emotional factors besides the cognitive factors (Cantor & Kihlstorm, 1987; Sternberg, 1985; Thorndike, 1920; Wechsler, 1943). Goleman (1995) stressed that, IQ contributes about 20 percent to the factors that determine life success, the rest is related to other factors including EI. EI refers to "the cooperative combination of intelligence and emotion" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004, p. 197). Research has shown that EI provides the basis for competencies that are important in almost any job (e.g., Carmeli, 2003; Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002). Recent research has also shown that in addition to work settings, emotional intelligence is also important for classrooms (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004), and it may influence academic achievement in different ways. From another perspective, since language is a social behavior and involves the external expression of emotions, affective and social language learning strategies also play important roles in determining one's academic success.

Although considerable research has been done on students' EI and their academic success (e.g., Abisamra, 2000; Khajehpour, 2011; Rastegar, 2012), there has been little, if any, attention as to how EI affects the use of affective and social language learning strategies, which, in turn, might influence the learners' academic achievement. This study, therefore, aimed at exploring the relationships among EFL learners' EI, their ALLS and SLLS use, and their academic achievement in an Iranian context.

A. Emotional Intelligence

Gardner (1983) initially described multiple intelligences which paved the way for recognition of other intelligences such as emotional intelligence. The term emotional intelligence (EI), partly stemmed from Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, was first introduced by Mayer and Salovey (1990). It was popularized then by Goleman's publication of the book *Emotional Intelligence* in 1995. Goleman (2001) introduced some studies showing that there are some other factors to make individuals with high intelligence less successful than those with average intelligence. These factors include another aspect of intelligence that Goleman called emotional intelligence. EI is the ability to perceive, understand, and manage one's emotions (Salovey, Hsee, & Mayer, 1993; Salovey& Mayer, 1990). Goleman (1995, P.34) defined EI as "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration, to control impulses

and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swapping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope".

Regarding the models of EI, there are two main perspectives: ability model, which considers EI as a form of mental ability and hence a pure intelligence, and mixed model, which combines mental ability with personality characteristics such as well-being and optimism (Mayer, 1999). The only ability model of emotional intelligence is proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1990). There are also two mixed models proposed by Bar-On (2002) and Goleman (1998). Furthermore, there are several scales for measuring emotional intelligence used in scientific research that are not based on any of the aforementioned theories of EI. One of these scales is the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) developed by Schutte and colleagues (1998).

B. Affective and Social Language Learning Strategies

In the literature, language learning strategy (LLS) has been defined by many researchers. According to Rubin (1987), language learning strategies are "strategies that contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and (which) affect learning directly" (p. 23). Oxford (1990) stated that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p.8).

There exist different classifications of language learning strategies in the literature. Three kinds of strategies which contribute directly or indirectly to language learning has been identified by Rubin (1981). This classification includes learning strategies, communication strategies, and social strategies. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) have divided LLS into three main categories: metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. Moreover, Oxford (1990) made a distinction between direct and indirect strategies: Direct strategies require mental processing of the target language. There are three main groups of direct strategies: memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, include: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Oxford's classification has been selected for this study.

Affective strategies are concerned with learners' emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. Oxford (1990) suggested that through affective strategies language learners can gain control over their attitudes, emotions, values, and motivations. She also suggested that good language learners are often the ones who know how to control their emotions and attitudes towards learning.

Social strategies refer to learner's communication with people who use the target language. Oxford (1990) asserted that, there are three sets of social strategies: (1) cooperating with others, (2) asking questions for clarification or verification and for correction, and (3) empathizing with others that includes developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings. Learners can use these strategies to establish the ability of self-directed learning. If people use these strategies efficiently, they can learn by themselves and self-examine their own progress. Therefore, having proper learning strategies can improve learners and their language abilities.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. EI and Language Learning Strategies

In this section, an overview of the previous researches that were considered relevant to the present investigation would be given. Hasanzadeh and Shahmohamadi (2011) carried out a research to study the relationship between EI and learning strategies. They found that there is a significant positive correlation between students' total emotional intelligence and learning strategies.

Heydari and Azari (2009) studied the relationship between EI and language learning strategy use with language proficiency levels of Ahvaz Azad university students. The result showed that there was a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and proficiency level. In addition, it was revealed that there was a positive relationship between language learning strategy use and language proficiency level of students.

Akbari and Hosseini (2008) tried to figure out the possible relationship between learners' multiple intelligences' scores and language learning strategies. The result of the study showed that there is low significant relationship between learners' MI and language learning strategies. According to their findings, there is a significantly positive correlation between MI and language proficiency as well. In his study of emotional intelligence and learning strategies, Aghasafari (2006) found considerable relationship between emotional intelligence and language learning strategies.

B. EI and Academic Achievement

The influence of emotional intelligence on students' academic achievement has been widely explored. MacCann, Fogarty, Zeidner, and Roberts (2011) and Rastegar (2012) carried out research projects and found that emotional intelligence was related to academic achievement: Students with higher levels of emotional intelligence were likely to gain higher levels of academic achievement.

In his investigation of the relationship among emotional intelligence, parental involvement and academic achievement, Khajehpour (2011) indicated that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement among the participants of the study.

By the same token, Song, Huang, Peng, Wong, and Chen (2010) investigated Chinese college students and found support that EI can predict the academic performance of college students and the quality of their social interactions with peers. Parker, Summerfieldt, Hogan, and Majeski's (2002) study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic success, has reported that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

C. Language Learning Strategies and Academic Achievement

Research has supported the value of using LLS and has shown the regular use of such strategies by successful language learners (Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993). Successful language learners have a tendency to select appropriate strategies depending on the requirements of the language task (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). The study carried out by Kummin and Rahman (2010) support the idea that there is a relationship between the use of metacognitive strategies and achievement in English. Abar and Locken (2010) in their study of 205 high-school students revealed that there was a positive relationship between learning strategy use and achievement.Ghiasvand (2010) also reported more frequent use of learning strategies among upper achievers.

Wu (2008) carried out a qualitative study on the use of LLS of 10 Chinese ESL learners studying at a vocational institute. Results showed that participants used a wide variety of metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective LLS. Social/affective LLS were found to be more popular than metacognitive and cognitive LLS among these participants. Karami (2001) compared learning and study strategies between lower and upper achiever students. He found that upper achievers use learning strategies much more than the lower achievers. Mortazavizadeh (2000) also showed that upper achievers use learning strategies much more frequently.

As Oxford (1990) conjectured, the social and affective strategies are found less often in L2 research literature. She stated that there is a need for more research on affective and social LLS. Hence, the same reason inspired this study on the affective and social LLS and the following research questions were posed to be answered:

1. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' EI and their affective strategy use?
2. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' EI and their social strategy use?
3. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' EI and their academic achievement?
4. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' affective and social strategy use?
5. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' affective strategy use and their academic achievement?
6. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' social strategy use and their academic achievement?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 106 junior and senior EFL students at Kerman University. The participants' age ranged from 20 to 25 and there were 80 female and 26 male among the participants of the study. The rationale behind carrying out the study in an academic setting was due to its aim at finding out the relationship between EFL students' EI, ALLS and SLLS use, and their academic achievement.

B. Instrumentation

The following questionnaires were utilized to obtain the required data:
1. Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test --SREIT (Schutte et al., 1998)
2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning --SILL (Oxford, 1990)

C. Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)

EI was measured with the 33 items five-point likert scale self-report emotional intelligence test. This scale assesses emotional intelligence based on self-report responses to tapping the appraisal and expression of emotion in self and others, regulation of emotion in self and others, and utilization of emotions in solving problems. Participants responded to the items by indicating their degree of agreement to each of the 33 statements using a ranging from 1*(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree)*. Items 5, 28, and 33 are scored reversely. The range of the score of this scale is between 33 and 165. According to Schutte et al. (1998), the original test has demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach's α ranging from 0.87 to 0.90), and a good test-retest reliability of 0.78.

D. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

In order to determine the participants' frequency of affective and social strategy use, SILL was administered. This inventory consists of 50 items and is a five-point likert type scale ranging from 1 (*never or almost never true of me*) to 5 (*always or almost always true of me*). It is divided into six subscales: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. For the purpose of the present study the last two subscales, namely affective and social, each consisting of 6 items were utilized. Higher scores indicated higher levels of affective and social language learning strategy use.

E. Data Collection Procedures

To collect the required data the scales, i.e., the SREIT and the SILL were distributed among the participants concurrently. They were given time to rate each item. Also, they were asked to write their GPAs as the measurement of their academic achievement. Moreover, their GPAs were also extracted from their records to ascertain the accuracy of their reports. The participants were assured that the gathered information would be used only for research purposes. Finally, the collected data was fed into the computer and then correlation analysis was performed utilizing SPSS Version 15.0 to explore the relationships among the sample's emotional intelligence, affective and social strategy use, and their academic achievement.

IV. RESULTS

After analyzing the data, the researchers drew certain results. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the variables of the study, namely EI, Affective Strategy, Social Strategy, and academic achievement.

TABLE1.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE VARIABLES

	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Variance
EI	106	66.00	92.00	158.00	123.94	15.72	247.17
ALLS	106	24.00	6.00	30.00	17.83	4.00	16.02
SLLS	106	20.00	10.00	30.00	20.27	4.56	20.86
GPA	106	6.51	12.79	19.30	16.23	1.35	1.83

To answer the research question posed for this research project, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used. The analysis of the collected data revealed that there are significant correlation between the variables of the study. The results are shown in Table 2.

As can be seen in Table 2, the Pearson's correlation coefficient between students' EI and their affective language learning strategy use is 0.41. Pearson's correlation coefficient between EI and SLLS use is 0.46. Moreover, Pearson's correlation coefficient between learners' EI scores and their GPAs is 0.22. The results of correlational analysis of the participants' scores on affective and social LLS use revealed a correlation coefficient of 0.54. Furthermore, Pearson's correlation coefficient between ALLS use and achievement is 0.61. Finally, Pearson's correlation coefficient between SLLS use and academic achievement is 0.49.

TABLE 2.
CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE VARIABLES

	EI	Affective Strategy	Social Strategy	GPA
EI	1.000	.411**	.467**	.228*
Affective Strategy	.411**	1.000	.548**	.049
Social Strategy	.467**	.548**	1.000	.067
GPA	.228*	.049	.067	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the results, it can be concluded that there were significant positive relationships between the following pairs: EI and affective strategy use; EI and social strategy use; EI and academic achievement; and affective and social strategy use. However, no significant relationships were found between the participants' affective and social strategy use and their academic achievement.

V. DISCUSSION

The first two research questions of this study sought to explore the existence of any relationship between EFL students' EI and their affective/social LLS use. The results indicated a significant positive correlation between learners' emotional intelligence and the frequency of their affective and social language learning strategy use. Based on the results, if EFL learners' emotional intelligence increases, their use of ALLS and SLLS also boosts. These findings are in line with those of the previous studies. Hasanzadeh and Shahmohamadi (2011), for example, stated that there is a significant positive relationship between students' total emotional intelligence and learning strategies. Similarly, Aghasafari's (2006) study found considerable relationship between emotional intelligence and language learning strategies. Moreover, Heydari and Azari (2009) confirmed these findings, reporting a positive relationship between language learning strategy use and EI.

The third research question asked whether there were any correlations between learners' EI and their academic achievement. As the results revealed, emotional intelligence and academic achievement were positively correlated among EFL learners who participated in this study. In line with many of the studies focusing on the construct of emotional intelligence that showed a positive relationship between EI and various measures of academic performance (e.g., Abisamra, 2000; Austin, Evans, Goldwater, & Potter, 2005; Downey, Mountstephen, Lloyd, Hansen, &Stough, 2008; Gil-Olarte Marquez, Martin, & Brackett, 2006; Khajehpour, 2011; Lyons & Schneider, 2005; MacCann et al., 2011; Parker et al., 2004; Qualter, Gardner, Pope, Hutchinson, &Whiteley, 2012; Song et al., 2010), the findings of the

present study indicated that those learners who have higher EI scores show higher academic achievement than those who have lower EI scores. However, the results of Heydari and Azari's (2009) study did not confirm the findings of the present study: their results showed that there was a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and proficiency level.

Regarding the relationship between EFL learners' affective and social LLS, the participants' use of ALLS and SLLS were found to be significantly correlated. It means that the EFL learners who had higher frequency of ALLS use also used SLLS more frequently. These findings are confirmed by the results reported by previous researchers. For example, Querol (2010) in his research indicated that affective LLS and social LLS were positively correlated. In other words, as the affective LLS are utilized so are the social LLS. "Both affective LLS and social LLS are therefore expected to be observed together as supported by O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) taxonomy of LLS that classifies affective and social LLS as one" (Querol, 2010, p.32).

The last two research questions in this study investigated the existence of any relationships between EFL learners' affective and social strategy use and their academic achievement. The results showed that there was no significant correlation between the two. In other words, in this study the participants' academic achievement did not depend on their use of affective and social language learning strategies. The findings of this study were in contrast to those of previous researches. Querol's(2009) study indicated that LLS proved significantly related to academic performance. All in all, most of previous studies have indicated a positive relationship between LLS use and language proficiency (e.g., Ababaaf , 2000; Abar & Locken, 2010; Adamzadeh, 2001; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Ghiasvand, 2010; Green & Oxford, 1995; Karami, 2001; Khaldieh, 2000; Kummin & Rahman, 2010; Mortazavizadeh, 2000; Oxford et al.,1993; Samadi, 2004; Wharton, 2000; Wu, 2008).

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to determine how emotional intelligence influences EFL students' use of affective and social LLS and how Iranian EFL learners' academic achievement is influenced by all these factors. It was concluded that a significant positive relationship exists between the following pairs: EI and affective strategy use; EI and social strategy use; EI and academic achievement; and affective and social strategy use. However, regarding affective and social strategy use and academic achievement no significant relationships were found. What these findings imply is that in educational contexts a great deal of attention should be paid to constructs such as EI and LLS, including affective and social strategies. In language learning contexts, attention to the aforementioned constructs can help the learners increase their abilities in different areas of language learning. To achieve such a goal, English teachers should become familiar with these constructs; moreover, they should try to raise the students' awareness about the constructs. In this way, the students can improve their language achievement. EFL learners do not usually pay heed to their social relationships and their feelings as part of the L2 learning process. Therefore, the ALLS and SLLS are ignored by many EFL learners. However, students that do not use these strategies should assisted.. As a result, EFL teachers and learners should try to develop strategy-based teaching and learning which will help them improve their EI, thus greater academic achievement will result.

APPENDIX GRAPHS

Graph 1

Mean =17.83
Std. Dev. =4.004
N =106

Graph 2

Mean =20.27
Std. Dev. =4.568
N =106

Graph 3

Mean =16.24
Std. Dev. =1.355
N =106
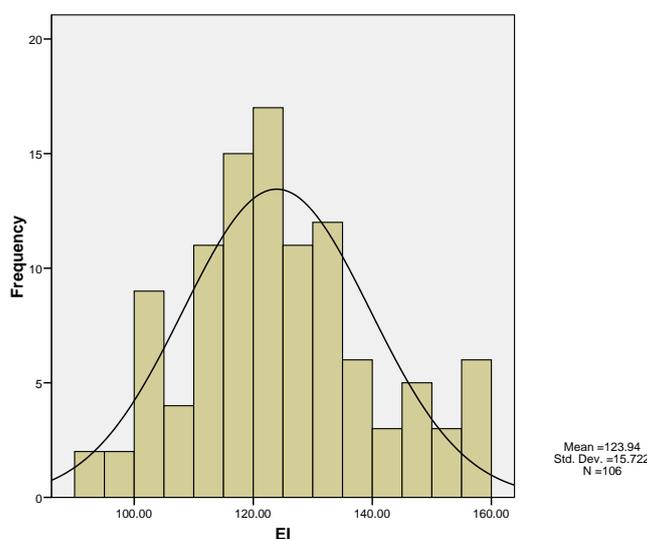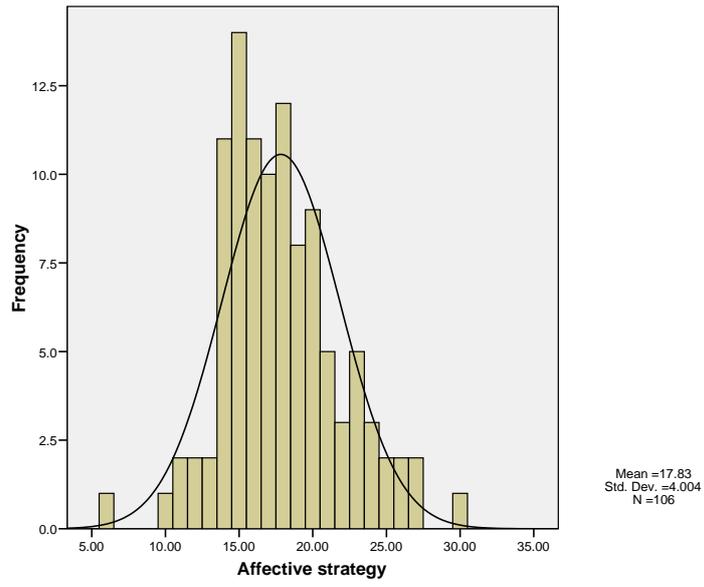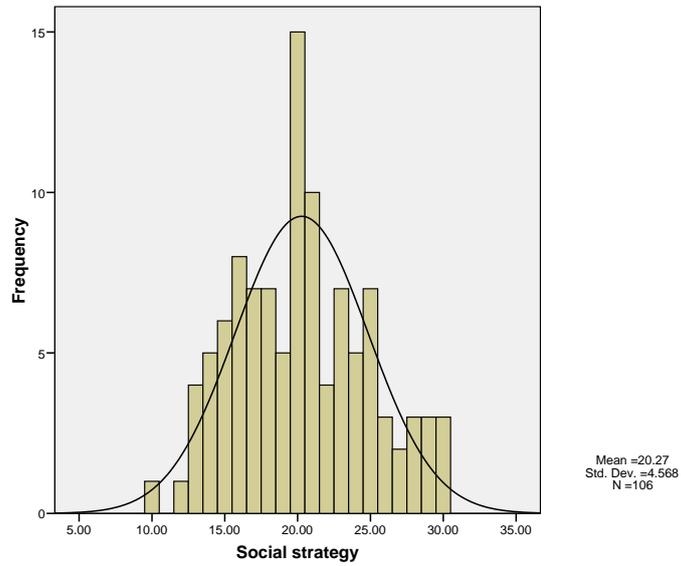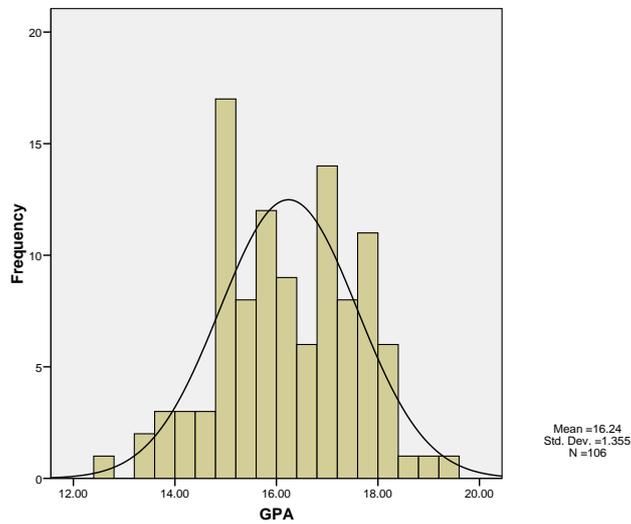
Graph 4

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  - Notification of acceptance
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