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# A Framework for Supporting Students with Learning Disabilities in Spanish Courses: Connecting Learning Characteristics and Instructional Methods

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**Abstract**—Students with learning disabilities are characterized by highly individualized dysfunction of the central nervous system. Current research has suggested that the learning difficulties experienced may be attributable to processing difficulties in working memory, attention, information retrieval, and phonological processing. In educational environments, students with learning disabilities often struggle to meet the demands of the general curriculum and require support or intervention to reveal their potential. Because the demands of learning an unfamiliar language can expose weaknesses and heighten anxiety, individuals with learning disabilities have often avoided or been discouraged from foreign language study. However, research conducted on the use of multi-sensory approaches has indicated that such instruction can help students with learning disabilities to succeed in learning Spanish. A discussion of the relationship between neurological research and multi-sensory teaching provides implications for persons with learning disabilities experiencing meaningful inclusion in Spanish courses. Application of research and associated theory to practice is expressed in the form of examples of general accommodations, existing resources, and learning strategies which provide a framework for students with LD to have positive experiences in Spanish.

**Index Terms**—multi-sensory, foreign language instruction, learning disabilities, working memory, Spanish vocabulary

## I. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING DISABILITIES AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE CHALLENGES

Individuals identified as having learning disabilities (LD) often experience difficulties related to language, resulting from central nervous system (CNS) dysfunction. This atypical operation of the CNS makes it especially challenging for students with LD to succeed with reading, math, and the oral or written expression of language. In addition to the obstacles which exist for established content areas, students with LD often experience added difficulty in learning a non-English language. The following paper will discuss the difficulties faced by students with LD, and the current state of research on how such difficulties may derive from CNS dysfunction. Additionally, the relationship between common challenges of LD students and successful learning with multi-sensory instruction will be considered. Finally, practical examples of accommodations, resources, and learning strategies for multi-sensory Spanish instruction will be offered.

### A. Learning Disabilities and the Central Nervous System

The role of language is pivotal to understanding learning disabilities, as language has become central to human expression, experiences, and endeavors of learning. A CNS dysfunction has been a consistent element in describing learning disabilities, with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA) defining a specific learning disability as “a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written” (IDEA Regulations, 34 C.F.R., §300.8[c][10]). Students with LD usually encounter early challenges in acquiring their native languages, and often struggle with multiple content areas in the general curriculum (Byrnes & Wasik, 2009). Wilson and Swanson (2001) concluded that difficulties with working memory and processing were characteristic of students with learning disabilities. Appropriately, interventions and compensatory strategies for individuals with LD typically include explicit and systematic methods which provide ample and deliberate repetition, minimize distracting stimuli, isolate critical content, and present a rationale for material to be studied (Archer & Hughes, 2011).

### *B. Learning Disabilities and Foreign Language Difficulties*

While existing learning strategies have contributed to heightened success for students with LD in the general curriculum, foreign language study has been more problematic. Levine (1987) remarked that foreign language study was the discipline most likely to create anxiety in individuals with LD. Barr (1993) indicated that success would be elusive beyond introductory levels, while Scott and Manglitz (1997) posited that difficulties experienced in English would also exist in second language learning. Simon's (2000) personal account corroborated claims about anxiety and first-language difficulties affecting the learning of a new language, as well as detailing the importance of both students and instructors examining and considering numerous facets of LD which necessitate strategies to promote student success. Ehrman (1996) noted the importance of simultaneous processing and mental shifts in second language learning, operations which are understandably difficult for individuals with atypical CNS functioning.

The challenges faced by students with LD in learning a non-English language have prompted waivers, reduced syllabi, and departures from traditional teaching as accommodations (Amend, Whitney, Messuri, and Furukawa, 2009; Duvall, 2006). Although Shaw (1999) emphasized that a minority of students with LD inevitably would not be well-suited to foreign language study required by many universities and college prep programs, it was deemed imperative to include the remaining majority of students with LD who could find success when provided with accommodations and strategies which recognized their educational needs and neurological functioning. Despite accounts detailing how students with LD often struggle to process new information, and despite the increasing expectation for high school students in the U.S. to earn credits in non-English languages for a diploma (National State Council of Supervisors for Languages, 2012), there is a deficit in both research and practice dedicated to supporting students with LD in learning a second language.

### *C. Multi-sensory Approaches*

The concept of multi-sensory instruction may be considered vital to the success of students with LD in any academic discipline, including foreign language study, and merits consideration in constructing a framework for supporting struggling learners. Sparks and Ganschow (1993) determined that a multi-sensory approach to teaching phonological skills improved the phonemic awareness of students in both Spanish and English. Further research has centered on multi-sensory instruction incorporating explicit phonological teaching (Ganschow & Sparks, 1995), and a two-year study of at-risk students indicated that a multi-sensory approach promoted performance comparable to peers instructed with traditional methods (Sparks et al., 1998). Because of demands in working memory and diverse functioning of the CNS which can affect second language learning (Kormos & Safar, 2008; Palladino & Cornoldi, 2004), multi-sensory approaches have been promoted by Dal (2008) and Sousa (2001) and supported by the research of Amend et al. (2009).

Multi-sensory learning experiences are often vital to success for LD students, and have gained traction as contributing to memory and efficient learning for a wide array of students. Medina (2008) unequivocally endorsed the use of multi-sensory presentation, citing research in which experimental groups in multisensory environments consistently experienced stronger problem solving and more enduring retention of information. Moreno and Mayer (2007) examined the effects of interactive multimodal environments upon learning outcomes, by pairing verbal and visual representations of content which relied upon the actions of learners. The basic premise of interactive, multimodal learning relies on a cognitive-affective model in which varied information sources are selected, with the intention of being processed by the student's working memory, creating a more elaborate model in partial conjunction with knowledge stored in long-term memory (Moreno & Mayer, 2007). Medina (2008) was emphatic about both attention and memory in relationship to engaging the senses, as "The more elaborately we encode a memory during its initial moments, the stronger it will be" (p. 119).

Elaborate experiences and repetition are crucial to storage of new information, and to the mental process of associating new input with previous knowledge through meaningful repetition of information and patterns (Gass & Selinker, 2001). Multi-sensory approaches are often indispensable to persons with LD in experiencing success in the standard curriculum. Additionally, several studies have explored the use of multi-sensory structured language (MSL) practices in Spanish courses, demonstrating that at-risk and LD students could complete course requirements and develop language skills (Ganschow & Sparks, 1995; Sparks & Miller, 2000). Sparks and Miller (2000) summarized this body of research by asserting that multi-sensory instruction which systematically and explicitly used both English and Spanish could lead to significant gains in both native language and foreign language (FL) proficiency. Further, in implementing a multi-sensory approach to learning basic Spanish, Sparks and Miller (2000) found that at-risk students and students with LD can pass introductory foreign language classes and attain proficiency.

### *D. Application to Practice*

By definition, students with LD possess the intellectual capacity to succeed in the general education curriculum. However, the aforementioned CNS dysfunction has made it essential for further resources, accommodations, and strategies to be available in a given content area. Although comparatively limited attention has been paid to the inclusion of LD students in foreign language courses, practical suggestions can be extracted from the existing body of research regarding how classroom instruction might better address their needs.

In consideration of these unique needs, general suggestions for accommodations and resources will be presented, followed by specific examples of learning strategies for students learning Spanish. Although some of the information



may be incorporated into the teaching of a variety of languages, the focus of this discussion will be the teaching of Spanish to students with LD whose native language is English. One reason for this is that a good deal of existing literature pertains to Spanish instruction, and may not directly apply to other languages. The utility and ubiquity of Spanish for U.S. students with LD is also notable, as Spanish is the most commonly spoken household language in the nation, for both native and non-native speakers (Gonzalez-Barrera & Lopez, 2013). Further, Spanish is overwhelmingly the language with the largest enrollment in U.S. K-12 institutions (Rhodes & Pufahl, 2009), and in U.S. postsecondary institutions (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2010).

## II. GENERAL ACCOMMODATIONS

Drawing upon definitions of accommodations provided by McLaughlin (2009) and IDEA Regulations (2006), accommodations are alterations to how the curriculum is presented to a student, but not fundamentally an alteration of the curriculum itself. By design, a multi-sensory Spanish framework for students with LD conceptualizes instruction in direct consideration of CNS functioning that is likely to make a traditional course of study more difficult. These accommodations are best understood as more general opportunities which may be offered to a student, in conjunction with specific resources and learning strategies.

### A. *Alternate Locations*

A common accommodation for LD Students is to allow for testing or instruction to occur in a separate room, either individually or in small groups. Although an admitted flaw with this accommodation may be the temporary removal or alienation from the general classroom, there are cases in which temporary changes of venue can be legitimately beneficial. For students who are struggling with material or concentration, or in need of another location for a multi-sensory activity, this accommodation could be considered appropriate.

Importantly, Medina (2008) advised the creation a designated space specifically for studying Spanish, which would include relevant resources and artifacts, and focus only on Spanish (Medina, 2008). Medina (2008) further asserted that environment plays a significant role in both encoding of information and recall, meaning that consistency of locations and methods for instruction and assessment can contribute to effective practice. Because elaborate learning events (Moreno & Mayer, 2007) and deliberate organization (Archer & Hughes, 2011) can contribute to memory and retrieval, a designated space for both learning activities and assessment is worth considering.

### B. *Advanced Organizers*

Archer and Hughes (2011) provided examples of giving students information in advance. This accommodation could involve distributing copies of materials prior to explicitly instructing, or previewing and describing an upcoming lesson or activity. Part of the rationale for this practice is to allow students extra time to absorb content, and to mentally organize information. However, materials and information shared with students with LD should also reflect the structure of a multi-sensory approach. Merely providing a student with oral descriptions or paragraphs of text ahead of formal instruction is not likely to provide meaningful support. Whenever possible, LD students should be provided high-interest, participatory resources, which prompt students to visualize, act out processes, or ask questions.

A neurological basis for this sort of priming of the brain may also exist. Willis (2008) cited recent neurological research, most notably Coles (2004) which indicated that new information or connections in the brain require the communication of both hemispheres. As a result, categorical connections appear to form, and information which enters working memory is more likely to be stored or processed—particularly in tasks like reading— if the information can link with existing information or categories (Willis, 2008). The deliberate sequencing of instruction promoted by Archer and Hughes (2011), along with the graphic organizing strategies described by Lazarus (1996) might also be described as facilitating this mental process in physical form. When the brain does not recognize a category or referent for new information, it may have to create a new category, which likely absorbs more working memory capacity, making encoding more difficult. For students already experiencing dysfunction of the CNS and difficulty in learning, accommodations which can provide background knowledge may be especially important, especially when faced with unfamiliar words or concepts in Spanish.

### C. *Reduced Cognitive Loads*

It cannot be emphasized enough that students with LD possess average or greater intelligence, but are stymied by innately individualized dysfunctions of the CNS. Neurological disharmony may impact the central executive (Kibby et al., 2004) and working memory (Willis, 2008), and is believed to contribute to challenges with attention, organization, and recall. The relationship of cognitive challenges to learning informed the explicit instruction model of Archer and Hughes (2011), which requires identifying and presenting critical information, and deliberately explaining and demonstrating procedures and concepts.

A related accommodation is to break long tasks into more, shorter parts, or to concentrate on fewer problems for practice or homework. This accommodation may directly benefit students with LD by not overloading working memory; it is conducive to mastery, may reduce anxiety, and can be coupled with elaborate multi-sensory experiences to promote retention (Medina, 2008; Moreno & Mayer, 2007). Mercer et al. (2011) stated that simplifying texts allows a consistent

sense of closure, and requires shortened sentences and basic words with a limited number of syllables. This practice fits neatly with an exploratory or introductory Spanish program, which would inherently involve basic words and phrases, as well as favoring expressions in the present tense, as also suggested by Mercer et al. (2011). In essence, reducing cognitive demands would appropriately facilitate a focus on learning and mastering a few words or concepts at a time through multi-sensory methods, rather than covering more material than students with learning disabilities might otherwise learn and remember.

#### *D. Extended Time*

As discussed, the increased demands of neural processing, and accompanying challenges faced by persons with learning disabilities make considerations about presentation of material appropriate and necessary. No remotely reasonable person would expect a student with a physical disability to run a four-minute mile, nor should a person with a dysfunctional central nervous system be expected to somehow process 20 new vocabulary words in a class period. Accommodations for any student with a disability reflect his or her particular difficulties, and are intended to minimize those challenges so that optimal learning can transpire. Because individuals with LD face unique neurological challenges, reducing cognitive demands with shortened activities, emphasis on crucial material, and previews of information can be beneficial.

Another form of additional time was described by Swanson (2012), who indicated that students who are facing additional processing demands may require slightly more time to respond, and can benefit from instructors who are mindful of not rushing and discouraging students. In conjunction with reduced cognitive demands and shorter assignments, students with LD can also be given extended time for assignments, assessment, or breaks. Another interpretation of extended time might simply be that more time is devoted to a concept or segment of instruction. Research involving response cards has demonstrated that increased opportunities to provide answers has increased engagement and decreased academic and behavioral difficulties (Gardner, Heward, & Grossi, 1994; Lambert, Cartledge, Heward, & Ya-yu, 2006). This notion of expanded or extended time aligns well with a multi-sensory approach to Spanish instruction, as more time spent on a particular sound or concept with a variety of sensory inputs and expressions is more conducive to both encoding and recalling information.

### III. IMPLEMENTING EXISTING INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

As with accommodations, instructional resources are closely linked with strategies, and often selected in relation to assessments of individual needs and progress. Similar to the accommodations and strategies which also constitute a framework for supporting students with LD in Spanish learning, student responsiveness of the student to a resource often provides an indication of whether to continue with an approach or incorporate others. Examples of existing resources and their uses are provided here with the intention of providing options which may be used to determine and address the needs of individual students.

#### *A. Graphic Organizers and Visual Displays*

Visual materials can contribute to Spanish learning both as another representation of vocabulary and content, and also as a tool for organizing and displaying the relationships between concepts. Kleinert, Cloyd, Rego, and Gibson (2007) asserted that graphic organizers are most effective when reflecting manageable amounts of material and when organizing vocabulary into categories which facilitate acquisition. Duvall (2006) similarly promoted the use of graphic organizers and visual aids to make content accessible to students with LD.

Depending upon the level of study, and the needs of learners, these visual materials could serve different purposes. For elementary or intermediate students, categorical lists of nouns like those described by Kleinert et al. (2007) could take the form of visual references in a classroom, created by either instructors or students. For secondary students, visual resources may be used to practice more complex material, like the gendering or pluralizing of Spanish nouns. At more advanced levels of study, illustrations of the process of conjugating Spanish verbs can provide practice with fundamentals of the language and metacognition. The preceding examples have the potential to be done on paper or with electronic resources, such as Glogster ([edu.glogster.com](http://edu.glogster.com)). An instructor-created electronic resource has the benefit of being readily available online and in a format familiar to contemporary students. In consideration of Medina's (2008) assertions about immersive experiences and learning, both paper and electronic methods may benefit students, so long as they are engaged and receiving timely feedback from an instructor when it is needed.

#### *B. Multimedia Reading Materials*

A read-along method, in which students are simultaneously presented with a story and an accompanying audio recording, is often beneficial for LD students. This is especially appropriate for individual students, with the option of using headphones, and could also feasibly be employed with small groups of students using the same ability-matched text. The pairing of audio elements with printed words already exists in commercially-available materials, such as the Spanish-language versions of children's books which are bundled with audio recordings offered by School Specialty (2012).

The increasing presence of technology in education may afford more numerous options in multimedia texts, including resources in Spanish. Reading is Fundamental (2012) has presented freely accessible Spanish read-along electronic books (e-books), *Rebota* and *Las hormigas negras y rojas*. Notable features of these texts include highlighting words in red as the narrator reads them, allowing the reader to navigate back and forth between pages, and giving the reader control over pausing and playing the audio. Essentially, it constitutes an animated resource, similar to those Moreno and Mayer (2002) indicated to be effective for memory encoding and successful learning.

### C. Multi-sensory Cards for Phonics and Vocabulary

Kleinert et al. (2007) indicated that color-coded phonics cards are particularly useful for supporting students who are struggling with decoding. Different varieties of phonics cards could be used to assist students in practicing phonics, and to promote mastery of vowels through multi-sensory experiences. For example, a different color could be associated with each of the five vowels, and every time the vowel is printed or represented, this color could be represented. If, as Kleinert et al. (2007) recommended, students construct their own vocabulary cards, this system of color-coding could be incorporated into the process. The presentation of vowel and consonant pairings could also follow this pattern, as well as the process of introducing one consonant at a time and demonstrating combinations with all five vowels (Sparks & Miller, 2000). A notable feature of the Spanish language is its phonetic friendliness; for example, all the vowels have essentially a consistent pronunciation. Unlike English, in which learning words by sight is appropriate, explicit instruction in Spanish phonics can provide a foundation for correct pronunciation and early confidence and comfort.

In addition to the color-coded vowels, an electronic presentation of phonics could include audio pronunciations, animation, and tactile components (e.g., drawing the shapes of letters, tangible letter shapes which could be manipulated) to encode more elaborately the experiences and promote phonological awareness. Because the rules of grammar and pronunciation in Spanish follow rules which are not familiar to native English speakers, a more immersive process can be more engaging. As noted by Simon (2000), students with LD may benefit from learning opportunities which create more engagement and minimize anxiety, as well as helping to focus on learning the intricacies of a language rather than fixating on how it differs from English.

### D. Software for Reading and Recording

Previously, examples were provided of electronic reading materials, such as e-books, which could be considered forms of assistive technology. For instance, the voice-recognition software utilized in a study by Kartal (2006) promoted student practice with language and metacognition. Technology of this variety typically requires students to speak into a microphone and then reproduces their speech as digital audio. Although this process has understandable utility for providing language practice to students with disabilities, it likely depends on English being the primary language of both the speaker and the software. Along with voice-recognition software, technological options such as Google Translate, the Kurzweil Reading Program, and audio capturing software may be beneficial to students with learning disabilities.

In addition to software to read text aloud or to capture and reproduce speech, other technological resources may be useful to students with LD in a basic Spanish curriculum. One example is Audacity, a free and streamlined interface for recording and editing sound which provides a graphic interface using familiar symbols for functions like recording, playing, pausing, or stopping audio. Audacity shares with other recording software the convention of visually displaying audio by depicting waveforms. Conceivably, the experience of capturing and manipulating audio events could engage students, as well as convey elements of rhythm, segmenting, and pausing that relate to phonology and spoken language.

For a student with LD, a resource like Audacity can be applied to Spanish learning in several ways. First, it could be used by a student to record a lesson. Recording lessons can benefit students who struggle with reading, likely compensating for some of the demands of working memory explored by Wilson and Swanson (2001). Further, Audacity can be employed by foreign language instructors as a means of both facilitating language practice and gathering data for assessment. The technology could be used by individual students (ideally with headsets) to record short responses or passages, or by small groups of students recording dialogs. By recording audio, instructors can compile a record of performances that can be analyzed to assess progress. Recordings allow instructors to identify patterns and to determine material for re-teaching, and can also provide students with a virtual portfolio from which to examine their progress. The practice of technologically-based self-reflection was supported by the findings of Kartal (2006), indicating potential gains in language and greater comprehension of learning processes.

## IV. LEARNING STRATEGIES

Because of the challenges faced by students with LD, detailed assessments of individual needs and abilities can indicate which resources, accommodations, and strategies are essential in supporting students to reach their potential. Although there still exists a need to develop further research-based strategies to support students with LD in learning Spanish, existing learning strategies can be implemented. The strategies described below have been included on the basis of being documented in the literature of at least one of the relevant fields, namely Spanish instruction or learning disabilities. Descriptions of implementation and age appropriateness are presented for each strategy.

### A. Games

Games have been evidenced to be engaging and effective components of instruction designed to involve students in learning English (Topping & Ferguson, 2005) and Spanish (Guebert, 1991; Herrera, Lorenzo, Defior, Fernandez-Smith, & Costa-Giomi, 2011). In some cases, the same basic game may be used in either language. For example, Guebert (1991) reported the successful use of baseball, both as a theme to focus student interest, and in the form of a vocabulary-based game to help students practice the language. One example of this game organized Spanish vocabulary words into four lists, representing bases, and competing students advanced bases or played defense by providing correct responses (Guebert, 1991). Mercer et al. (2011) described essentially the same game as an instructional game to help students with disabilities improve in reading by using pronunciation of words from flash cards to score points, with the class divided into teams for competition.

This game could be used as part of a multi-sensory strategy for teaching basic Spanish, as it increases engagement, requires active attention, and involves movement, sound, and vision. Although Spanish-language baseball could potentially be used at any level of K-12 instruction, elementary students are likely to benefit most. The use of the game to teach basic vocabulary is developmentally appropriate for elementary students, as is an added opportunity to practice with motor skills and following procedures.

### B. Incorporating Music

Music can be a powerful teaching tool, and has been found to improve phonological awareness in both students' native and non-native languages (Herrera et al., 2011). The study of music has been suggested to be naturally multi-sensory and accessible to students with LD, as both presentation of information and student practice may depend on combinations of auditory, visual, and kinesthetic functions (Darrow, 2012). Swanson (2012) supported the use of a multi-sensory approach, recommending color-coding and other visual cues to accompany musical activities, largely as a means to support memory. Providing both visual and auditory information in the fashion described by Swanson (2012) has been suggested to be mutually reinforcing, as the combination of different modalities promotes stronger comprehension and memory (Moreno & Mayer, 2002). This multi-sensory approach was also understood to involve accommodations appropriate to students with LD, such as providing longer "wait time" for student answers, and the strategy of establishing and maintaining a routine for instruction (Swanson, 2012).

The use of music to enhance foreign language learning has also been documented in existing literature. Dever (2008) promoted the use of Spanish songs, along with poetry and proverbs, as part deepening students' comprehension and appreciation of language, beyond literal translation of words. Richer experiences with language are intellectually and emotionally engaging, and have the practical benefit of motivating students to actually move their tongues, and to practice hearing and producing sounds (Dever, 2008). The engagement of multiple senses also has implications for learning and memory, by providing more absorbing experiences; such experiences have been shown to enhance storage and recall of information (Medina, 2008). While acknowledging the rhythmic differences between English and other languages, Tuan and An (2010) noted the value of using songs to provide simple, meaningful contexts and experience with syllables. The nature of lyrical music inherently and implicitly creates an accessible hybrid of linguistic and quantitative elements, which supports language acquisition and psychological development (Tuan & An, 2010). As part of a multi-sensory approach, the incorporation of music can provide persons with disabilities with heightened engagement and an alternative way to acquire information.

As with games, music can be incorporated at any level of K-12 education. Songs which more explicitly teach basic vocabulary, such as colors and nouns, are more appropriate for elementary students. Older students may prefer musical experiences which incorporate popular songs in Spanish. One example of this is providing students with a copy of lyrics with selected words removed, and having them listen carefully to the song two or three times in order to fill in the missing lyrics. A helpful variation is to provide a word bank for students who have been frustrated after an independent opportunity to identify the missing words.

### C. Using Both Music and Games

As a way to develop phonological awareness, Herrera et al. (2011) used a combination of music and games with children whose first language was either Spanish or Tamazight. Musical activities involved in the study were found to improve phonological awareness and naming speed (Herrera et al., 2011). Notably, the phonological interventions provided in the Herrera et al. (2011) study improved children's phonological awareness and accelerated the recall of words stored in the long-term memory. Because of neurological research concentrating on phonological processes (Blumstein, Burton, & Small, 2000) and investigations into elaborate experiences promoting memory (Medina, 2008; Moreno & Mayer, 2007), multisensory games like those used by Herrera et al. (2011) have a basis for use with struggling learners.

As with music and games used independently, a combination of both is likely most appropriate for elementary students. The familiarity of these activities, and possible student preference, may be higher for younger children. Additionally, though learning Spanish phonology is an important part of learning the language at any age, this particular approach is more appropriate for engaging younger students.

### D. Movement-based Learning

Kleinert et al. (2007) generally endorsed a movement-based model of foreign language instruction as a way to increase interaction, meaning, and relevance. Total Physical Response (TPR) was a movement-based approach developed and researched by James Asher to promote second language learning (Wolfe & Jones, 1982), and is still consistent with contemporary understanding of learning and memory (Kennedy, 2006). Amend et al. (2009) noted TPR to be one method which could be conducive to teaching vocabulary and grammar to students with LD.

A specific example of how this strategy might be used to provide basic Spanish instruction would be adapting the game “Simon Says” to Spanish phrasing and vocabulary for body parts, which can permit practice with attending to directions or eventual practice with the language as students lead the rest of the class through “Simon Says” (Celestino, 1993; Kleinert et al., 2007). Celestino (1993) observed that TPR connected students with language, while noting that TPR leaned toward the use of commands. However, Celestino (1993) was careful to emphasize that the use of commands in TPR can empower students by providing a means for participation in larger classroom settings. Further, because TPR is so closely linked to imperatives, it can be used indirectly as a means to teach students procedures and to perform other tasks and activities involved in the Spanish classroom (Glisan, 1986). This sentiment of empowerment and participation is especially resonant for educators serving students with LD.

While movement-based learning can be implemented at all levels, this component of a multi-sensory Spanish framework is also better suited to elementary students. The general importance of motor skill development for younger students cannot be understated, and the emphasis on imperatives and procedures described by Celestino (1993) and Glisan (1986) is particularly appropriate for students in the earlier grades who may benefit from more explicit practice with procedures and classroom behavior.

#### *E. Guided Visual Vocabulary Practice*

Guided Visual Vocabulary Practice (GVVP) is a multi-sensory strategy designed to encourage students to connect concrete Spanish nouns to their English equivalents. A GVVP template consists of six spaces which should ultimately contain three elements: a Spanish noun, an illustration, and the related English noun. When presented to the student, one of the three elements is missing. The student is explicitly guided to create an illustration or to provide a missing word. Spanish nouns are written and practiced by syllables, while English nouns are spelled out one letter at a time.

GVVP was developed to promote a more elaborate experience conducive to memory and retention (Medina, 2008) and to present new vocabulary in thematic groups, as opposed to superficial recognition (Folse, 2004). An individual GVVP template bears similarity to the vocabulary squares employed by Hopkins and Bean (1998) and associative approaches like the keyword method (Rough & Atkinson, 1975), but with a more visual and explicit nature. The guided format of GVVP was intended to emulate the demonstrably effective strategy of guided notes (Lazarus, 1991) which provide a uniform process and corrective feedback to support struggling learners (Hamilton et al, 2000).

An initial investigation involving GVVP suggested that students in the intermediate grade levels derived greater benefit than elementary or secondary students (Tolbert, 2013), though further research is needed. Generally, the strategy has been most appropriate for students in early adolescence, but GVVP may reasonably be considered for students slightly older or slightly younger than this.

#### *F. Peer Tutoring*

Different forms of peer support are considered productive, and even natural, in both foreign language instruction (Pinter, 2011; Wright, Cavanaugh, Sainato, & Heward, 1995) and special education (Okilwa & Shelby, 2010; Scruggs, Mastropieri, & Marshak, 2012). Because language learning necessarily relies on communication and interaction, peer tutoring is a logical fit for Spanish conversation, and can be empowering to students with LD. Previous studies have indicated that peer tutoring was reciprocally helpful to LD students and to their peers in general education without identified difficulties (Elbaum et al., 1999).

Peer tutoring can contribute to an environment of shared learning, in which the teacher leads by modeling and setting expectations, and students experience heightened engagement and participation (Byrd, 2003; Pinter, 2007). Pinter (2011) indicated that peer collaboration was conducive to providing appropriate support during the process of developing either a first or second language. When implemented in a Spanish class, Wright et al. (1995) determined that peer tutoring contributed to heightened success in language learning for all students, including those with LD.

Spanish peer tutoring as a strategy for students with LD is most appropriate for the secondary level. Given that LD students often experience anxiety or feel overwhelmed by the complexity of course material at this level (Levine, 1987; Simon, 2000), peer tutoring may be an opportunity to gain meaningful practice and create social relationships which more fully involve LD students in the classroom.

## V. CONCLUSION

Potentially the most reliable common elements in describing learning disabilities are the inherent complexity and potential for variation between individuals. Drawing on neurological research, educational research and practice have shed light on which practices and systems can best promote learning. For students faced with CNS dysfunction, education is necessarily more nuanced, as professionals may be more easily able to observe difficulties than to fully understand or explain them. Due to factors including phonological processing, executive function, or attention and

memory, the process of learning a non-English language has sometimes resulted in anxiety and failures for students with LD. However, there presently exists an assortment of information, techniques, and materials for designing and implementing multi-sensory instruction to promote Spanish learning for LD students. While individuals with LD are often profoundly aware of the difficulties they face, it is virtually unimaginable that they sincerely wish to settle for failure, exemption, or marginalization. It is vital that the larger educational system should be similarly unwilling to settle, instead using data and sound judgment to spark innovations and create opportunities. Further research continues to be needed on the participation of LD students in Spanish courses, as well as the use of multi-sensory techniques to teach non-European languages, or languages which do not incorporate an alphabetic system similar to English.

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# Literature Mediated English in the UCM Degree in Modern Languages: A Pilot Study

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**Abstract**—The Degree in Modern Languages recently implemented by the Complutense University of Madrid has been designed in the light of the European Higher Education criteria. In the case of English, the curriculum includes a B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) course of general English, with the consequent lack of motivation of many of the students in the classroom, who already got that level at high school. In this sense, it is our intention to carry about a pilot study intended to design, implement and test the use of literary texts and articles in the ESL classroom.

**Index Terms**—ESL, literature, curriculum, Higher Education

## I. INTRODUCTION

The European Curriculum standards for Foreign Language Teaching in Higher Education are being currently reformed, in the light of the Bologna Process, to achieve the new goal of forming active and bilingual learners able to study and work abroad, with a taste for different cultures and traditions—The official Bologna Process website (2007–2010). Though most of Spanish universities are struggling to meet the requirements of the Bologna plan in terms of language policy, the results are not satisfactory enough—English Proficiency Index (Spain EF EPI, 2012). The lack of a suitable syllabus and of proper teaching materials seems to be one of the most frequent complains among language teachers. For Dörnyei (1994), these elements of the language course represent important motivational components, therefore they should be “interesting, relevant expected and satisfactory for the L2” (p. 277). Thus, in the case of the new UCM Degree in Modern Languages under study, the curriculum includes a B2 course of general English, with the consequent decrease of motivation of many of the students in the classroom, who already got that level at high school.

The actual lack of positive results leads us to consider that the use of authentic materials—original literary texts included—in the language classroom could be one possible step towards the achievement of the Bologna demands in Spain. Multiple studies point to the need for authentic texts in ESL teaching (Swaffar, 1999; Arens and Swaffar, 2000; Dupuy, 2000). There is also a recent claim for a curriculum “in which language, culture, and literature are taught as a continuum” (Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World, 2007). More specifically, the benefits of literary texts for the ESL curriculum have been equally defended (Rice, 1991; Van, 2009).

These premises made, the present study is aimed at analyzing the use of literature as a motivational component. It also tries to evaluate the benefits of a language syllabus based on literature. Therefore, our intention is to carry about a pilot study intended to design, implement and test the use of literary texts and articles in the ESL classroom. To achieve this latter aim, the students’ opinions on the use of literature will be gathered and analyzed as a starting point for future implementation and research.

## II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Our interest in the motivational properties of literature in the ESL classrooms is a part of a long and vexed scholarly conversation, one in which experts have vacillated between incorporating and abolishing literature as a part of the academic curriculum.

Nowadays, though, research is still being conducted in this field to demonstrate the positive results of using literature in different ESL teaching areas. Thus, Elliott (1990) and De Blasé (2005) describe the successful experience of integrating language and drama activities with literature in a mutually supportive way. Hess (1999) and Hur (2005) depict the multidimensional advantages of literature as a means for developing ESL skills. Meanwhile, McVee et al. (2008) defends the use of poetry as texts with rich potential for multiple interpretations in the language classroom. Also, Bagherkazemi and Alemi (2010) portray the benefits of literary texts as an essential part of integrative language teaching.

When it comes to the actual incorporation of literature into the ESL curriculum, it is worth mentioning that the last century has seen a number of different attempts in this sense (Wellek and Warren, 1980; Carter and Long, 1991). Nevertheless, most scholars indicate that none of these approaches is complete enough to be put to practice

independently (Maley, 1989; Lima, 2005; Van, 2009). For this reason, a number of integrative models towards teaching English through literature—that include linguistic, cultural and personal elements—have been developed in the last decades (Timucin, 2001; Savvvidou, 2004; Divsar and Tahriri, 2009).

The above-mentioned approaches are systematically reconciled in the Tasmanian Integrative Model for literature teaching, developed by an Australian group of scholars (Tasmanian Curriculum: Rationale, 2012). As reviewed by Bobkina and Dominguez (2014), in the Tasmanian Model, literary texts are to be approached not only from a linguistic point of view, but also from a social, cultural, and a literary perspective:

i) The Cultural Heritage Perspective supports the view that literature embodies the history, tradition, wisdom and beliefs of a particular society.

ii) The Language Skills Perspective considers students to work with texts for reading, writing, listening and speaking skill acquisition.

iii) The Personal Growth Perspective defends the idea that language learning is a holistic, natural process in which meaning is constantly built by students.

iv) The Functional Perspective focuses on the analysis of the grammatical structures of language and the identification of the relation existing among, language form, register, and context.

v) The Critical Literacy Perspective supports the view that texts are social constructs reflecting the beliefs and values of their time and culture, with multiple meanings conditioned by the structure of the discourse, the emphases and the omissions (Tasmanian Curriculum: Rationale, 2012).

### III. THE USE OF LITERARY TEXTS IN THE ESL UNIVERSITY CLASSROOM: A PILOT STUDY IN THE UCM DEGREE IN MODERN LANGUAGES

#### A. Method

In order to identify Modern Languages students' views on the use of a syllabus based on literature components one single questionnaire has been designed. The intention is to assess students' opinions on the previous implementation of the language sessions focused on literature according to the paradigms of the Integrative Approach Model described in the section above (See the sample provided in Appendix 2). The usefulness of this model in terms of developing language skills, grammar and vocabulary concepts, personal growth, as well as cultural knowledge criteria, has been thus tested. Results will be quantitatively presented first to be later on analyzed qualitatively. Our expectations are that the conclusions and the pedagogical implications derived from the discussion of these results will serve as a starting point for future implementation and research.

#### B. Participants

Participants were 36 second year undergraduate students of the Degree in Modern Languages depending on the School of Humanities of the UCM and taking English as a core subject. The average age of the respondents was about 23 years old. Among them, an 82% had Spanish as their mother tongue while only an 18% were native speakers of other European languages such as Romanian, Russian, German and Italian.

#### C. Instruments

Students were asked to answer a questionnaire aimed at collecting their views on the use of literature as a part of the English language syllabus (Appendix 1). The questionnaire, divided into 5 sections, included 20 questions scored on a five-point Likert Scale—from 1= Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree. Following the guidelines of the Tasmanian Integrative Model (Tasmanian Curriculum: Rationale, 2012), the questions were grouped into five blocks, each reflecting a different point of view to the literary texts, namely, a linguistic, social, cultural, and a literary one. The first section was intended to gather data on students' opinion towards literature as an element fostering the development of language skills. The second section was expected to elicit students' views regarding the possibility of an improvement when it comes to the use of language. Meanwhile, the third and the fourth sections were meant to evaluate the students' satisfaction in terms of personal growth and cross-cultural knowledge acquisition. Finally, the fifth section included four statements aimed to provide students' overall evaluation of the English classes based on literature, as well as to get their opinion on the possibility of including literature components into the language syllabus. These included open questions like i) Give your overall evaluation of the English classes based on literature, ii) Do you find them useful in terms of language acquisition?, iii) Comment the advantages and disadvantages of using literature in the language classroom and iv) Would you like to have more literature components in your regular English classes?

#### D. Procedures

Six weeks were required for the implementation of the materials included in the teaching guides based on the use of authentic literary texts in English for the ESL classroom that had been previously developed for that purpose. Each session lasted 90 minutes and was based on a specific literary genre. In particular, the following literary texts were selected: Short Story *Scandal in Bohemia* by Conan Doyle; Poetry *The Raven* by Edgar Allan Poe, and Narrative *Pride and Prejudice* by Jane Austen. The work on each of the texts was designed according to the criteria of the Tasmanian Five-Perspective Approach; as previously mentioned in the theoretical background section of the present work, an

integrative model for teaching literature developed by an Australian group of scholars (Tasmanian Curriculum: Rationale, 2012). The model includes five different perspectives that are embedded into the teaching process: the Cultural perspective, the Language Skills Perspective, the Personal Growth Perspective, the Functional perspective and the Critical Literacy one.

To illustrate the five perspective model, a sample of a literature-based teaching guide has been included in Appendix 2. Though the model covers the five perspectives, in practice a unit of work might focus on two or three of the perspectives or include elements of the five of them. A process such as this is a useful tool for teachers in planning an appropriate, rich and balanced English program for their students.

Right after the implementation process took place, the questionnaire was administered and the data collected was analyzed both in a qualitative and a quantitative way. The obtained results are expected to constitute a point of departure for further implementation and research.

#### IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This section is divided into four main sub-sections following the organization pattern of the distribution of items in the questionnaire administered to the students: (i) language skills, (ii) use of language (iii) personal growth, iv) cultural heritage and v) students' overall evaluation.

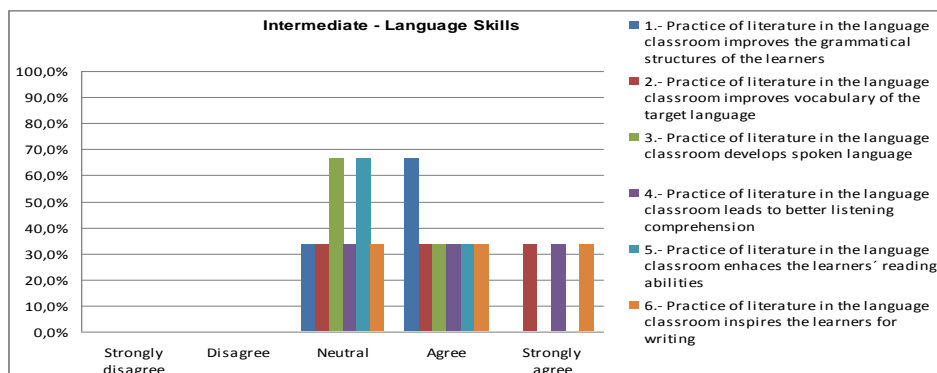
##### A. Language Skills

The language skill section of the questionnaire includes 6 questions which, as shown in Table 1 below, revealed the following results in total numbers: 55.6% of the participants under study agreed or strongly agreed with the idea posed in question number 1.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom improves the grammatical structures of the learners*, with a 38.9% of neutral responses. Questions 3.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom develops spoken language* and 4.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom leads to better listening comprehension* revealed equally weak results, with a 61.1% who agreed or strongly agreed versus a 11.1% who openly disagreed in the first case, and a 50% who agreed or strongly agreed facing another 50% of participants who self reported to remain neutral or to disagree with item number 4. Much more positive global results were obtained in questions 2.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom improves vocabulary of the target language*—88.9% agreed or strongly agreed while only one 11.1% remained neutral, 5.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances the learners' reading abilities* —83.2% agreed or strongly agreed with a 16.7% of neutral responses—and 6.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom inspires the learners for writing*—83.47% agreed or strongly agreed while only a 16.7% remained neutral.

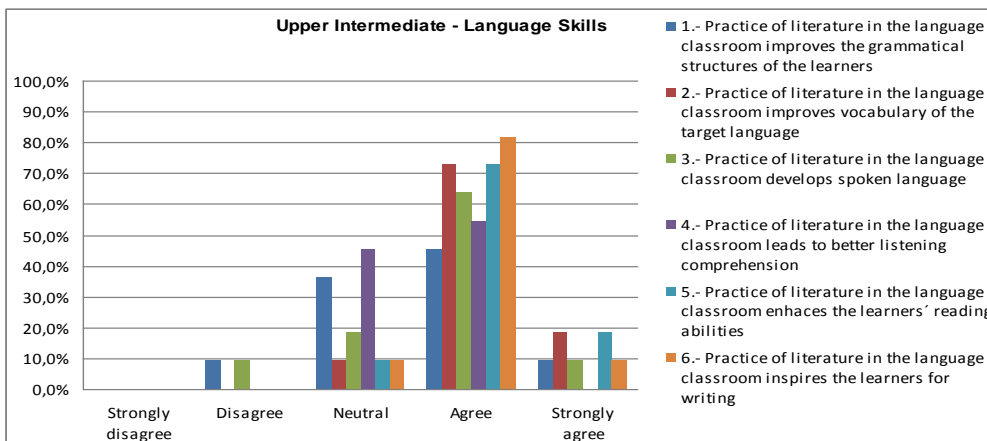
TABLE 1.  
OVERALL RESULTS FOR THE LANGUAGE SKILLS SECTION

Language Skills			
1.- Practice of literature in the language classroom improves the grammatical structures of the learners		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	14	38,9%
(4)	Agree	16	44,4%
(5)	Strongly agree	4	11,1%
Total		36	100,0%
2.- Practice of literature in the language classroom improves vocabulary of the target language		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	0	0,0%
(3)	Neutral	4	11,1%
(4)	Agree	22	61,1%
(5)	Strongly agree	10	27,8%
Total		36	100,0%
3.- Practice of literature in the language classroom develops spoken language		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	4	11,1%
(3)	Neutral	10	27,8%
(4)	Agree	18	50,0%
(5)	Strongly agree	4	11,1%
Total		36	100,0%
4.- Practice of literature in the language classroom leads to better listening comprehension		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	4	11,1%
(3)	Neutral	14	38,9%
(4)	Agree	14	38,9%
(5)	Strongly agree	4	11,1%
Total		36	100,0%
5.- Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances the learners' reading abilities		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	0	0,0%
(3)	Neutral	6	16,7%
(4)	Agree	20	55,6%
(5)	Strongly agree	10	27,8%
Total		36	100,0%
6.- Practice of literature in the language classroom inspires the learners for writing		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	0	0,0%
(3)	Neutral	6	16,7%
(4)	Agree	24	66,7%
(5)	Strongly agree	6	16,7%
Total		36	100,0%

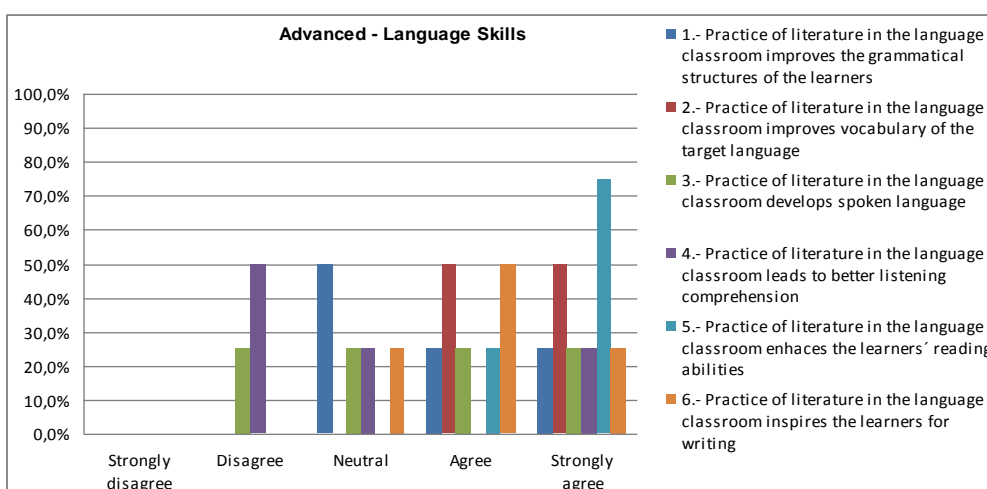
Partial results for this first section focused on Language Skills, according to the participants' levels of English, are shown in Graphs 1, 2 and 3 below:



Graph 1. Intermediate level students: analysis of results for the language skills section



Graph 2. Upper-Intermediate level students: analysis of results for the language skills section



Graph 3. Advanced level students: analysis of results for the language skills section

As shown in Graphs 1, 2 and 3 above, the highest percentages of positive answers—agree/completely agree—as far as the improvement of language skills concern is common among the students of upper-intermediate and advanced levels, with values surpassing 80% for most of the items. In particular, these students remarked the usefulness of a literature syllabus for the development of reading skills—over 90% of students, enhancing student’s writing abilities—90% and 70% respectively, as well as for the improvement of vocabulary—over 90% of the students.

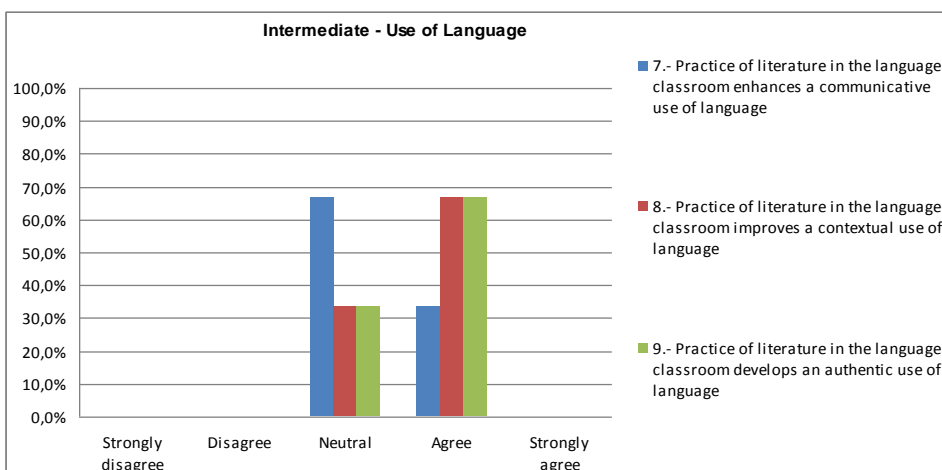
*B. Use of Language*

This second section of the questionnaire consists of three items: 7.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances a communicative use of language*, 8.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom improves a contextual use of language*, and 9.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom develops an authentic use of language*. Table 2 below shows the global results obtained, which are quite revealing in the sense that use of language does not seem to be as favoured by the practice of literature as the language skills happened to be in the preceding section. The three items got similar results though: 55.6% who agreed or strongly agreed in items 7 and 8, and 50% in item 9.

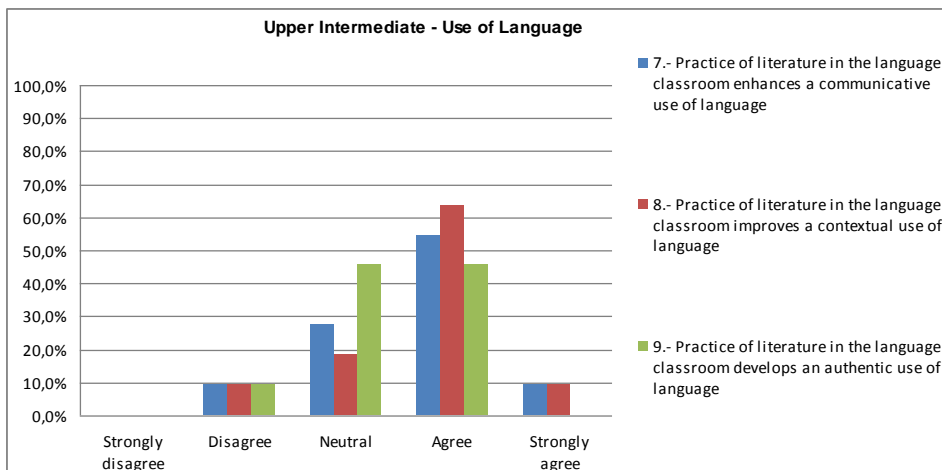
TABLE 2.  
OVERALL RESULTS FOR THE USE OF LANGUAGE SECTION

Use of Language			
7.- Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances a communicative use of language		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	14	38,9%
(4)	Agree	18	50,0%
(5)	Strongly agree	2	5,6%
Total		36	100,0%
8.- Practice of literature in the language classroom improves a contextual use of language		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	14	38,9%
(4)	Agree	18	50,0%
(5)	Strongly agree	2	5,6%
Total		36	100,0%
9.- Practice of literature in the language classroom develops an authentic use of language		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0	0,0%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	16	44,4%
(4)	Agree	16	44,4%
(5)	Strongly agree	2	5,6%
Total		36	100,0%

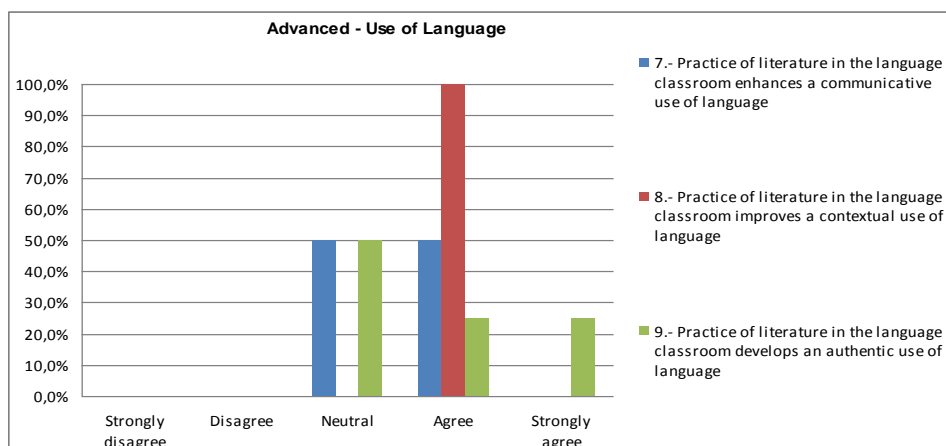
Partial results according to levels obtained for the Use of Language section are shown in Graphs 4, 5 and 6 below:



Graph 4. Intermediate level students: analysis of results for the Use of Language section



Graph 5. Upper-Intermediate level students: analysis of results for the Use of Language section



Graph 6. Advanced level students: analysis of results for the Use of Language section

Graphs 4, 5 and 6 above illustrate the fact that intermediate students appreciate literature as a means of improving contextual and authentic use of language—about 70% of students. Meanwhile, upper intermediate and advanced level students reported to stress its helpfulness in terms of a communicative—65% and 50% respectively—and a contextual use of the language—75% and 100% respectively.

### C. Personal Growth

The Personal Growth section includes five questions: 10.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom develops a better understanding of life*, 11.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom matures critical thinking*, 12.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom engages the learners' emotions*, 13.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom improves creative use of language*, and 14.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances imaginative abilities*. Total results obtained for each of these questions are shown in Table 3 below, where most of the participants reported to agree or to strongly agree with the idea that the practice of literature in the language classroom matures critical thinking—83.4%. A high proportion of the respondents—77.8%—similarly agreed or strongly agreed with the use of literature as a means to improve a creative use of language and to enhance imaginative abilities while a quite close 72.2% considered that this practice facilitates a better understanding of life. However, only 50% of the participants under study seemed to see the practice of literature as an adequate tool to engage the learners' emotions, with a 38.9% of neutral responses and a poor 11.1% who disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

TABLE 3.  
OVERALL RESULTS FOR THE PERSONAL GROWTH SECTION

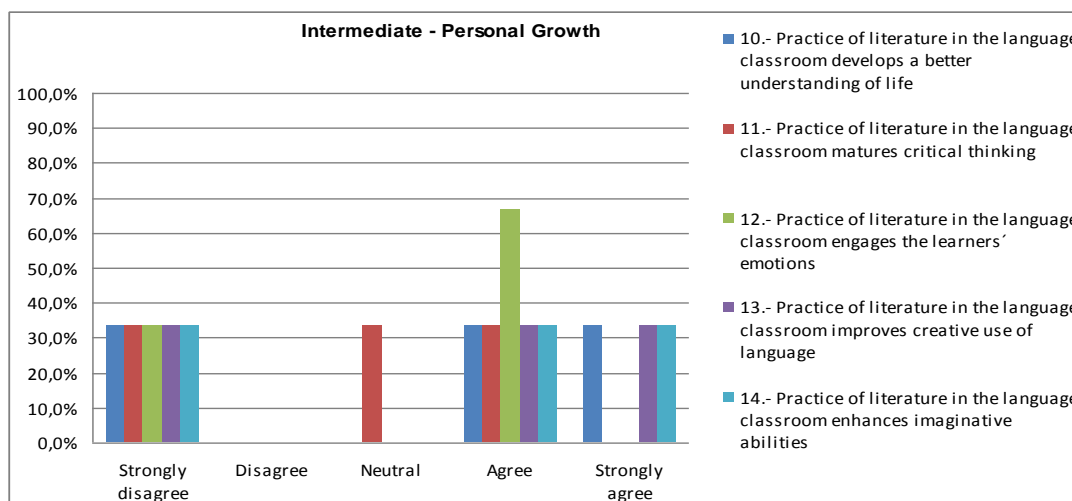
Personal Growth			
10.- Practice of literature in the language classroom develops a better understanding of life		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	2	5,6%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	6	16,7%
(4)	Agree	14	38,9%
(5)	Strongly agree	12	33,3%
Total		36	100,0%
11.- Practice of literature in the language classroom matures critical thinking		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	2	5,6%
(2)	Disagree	0	0,0%
(3)	Neutral	4	11,1%
(4)	Agree	20	55,6%
(5)	Strongly agree	10	27,8%
Total		36	100,0%
12.- Practice of literature in the language classroom engages the learners' emotions		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	2	5,6%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	14	38,9%
(4)	Agree	19	52,8%
(5)	Strongly agree	0	0,0%
Total		36	100%

13.- Practice of literature in the language classroom improves creative use of language		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	2	5,6%
(2)	Disagree	0	0,0%
(3)	Neutral	6	16,7%
(4)	Agree	22	61,1%
(5)	Strongly agree	6	16,7%
Total		36	100,0%

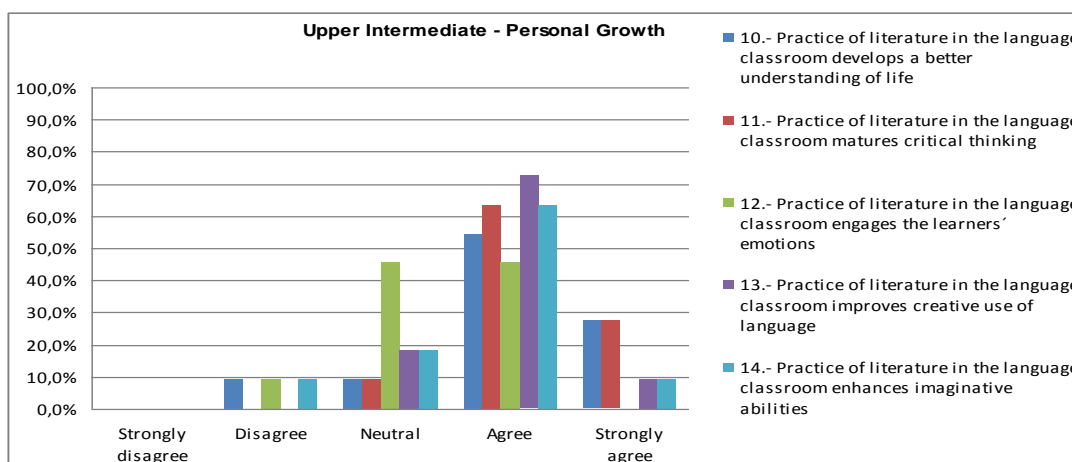
  

14.- Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances imaginative abilities		Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	2	5,6%
(2)	Disagree	2	5,6%
(3)	Neutral	4	11,1%
(4)	Agree	22	61,1%
(5)	Strongly agree	6	16,7%
Total		36	100,0%

Partial results according to levels obtained for the Use of Language section of the questionnaire are shown in Graphs 7, 8 and 9 below:

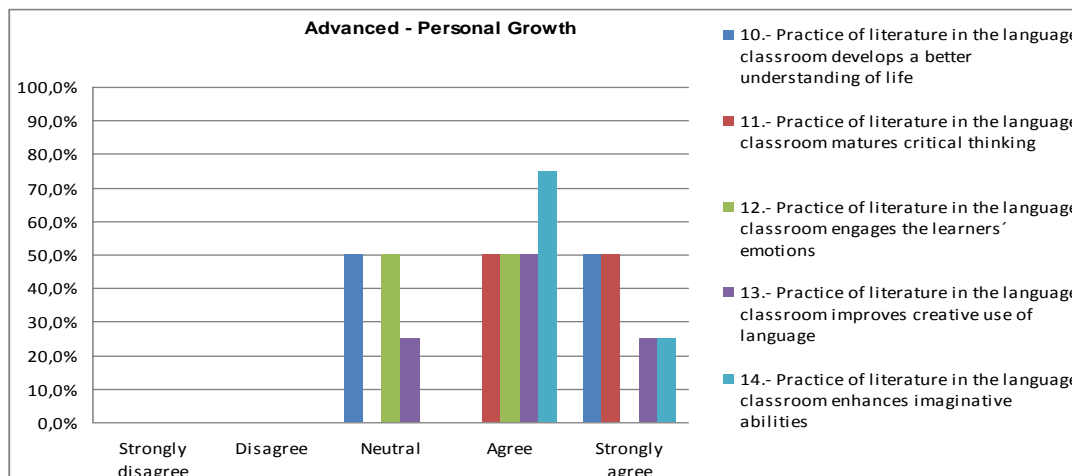


Graph 7. Intermediate level students: analysis of results for the Personal Growth section



Graph 8. Upper-intermediate level students: analysis of results for the Personal Growth section





Graph 9. Advanced level students: analysis of results for the Personal Growth section

As shown in Graphs 7, 8, and 9 above, there is an important difference between the students in the intermediate level and those in the upper-intermediate and advanced levels. The advanced level students identified literature as a valuable tool for developing critical thinking—100%, improving creative use of language—75%—and developing imaginative abilities—90%. Similar values were revealed by upper-intermediate students, who stressed the usefulness of a literature based syllabus when it comes to developing critical thinking—90%—and a better understanding of life—85%, as much as improving a creative use of language—85%. On the contrary, intermediate level students happened to be more reserved in their appreciations, with a 30% of them strongly disagreeing with the statements presented in this third section of the questionnaire.

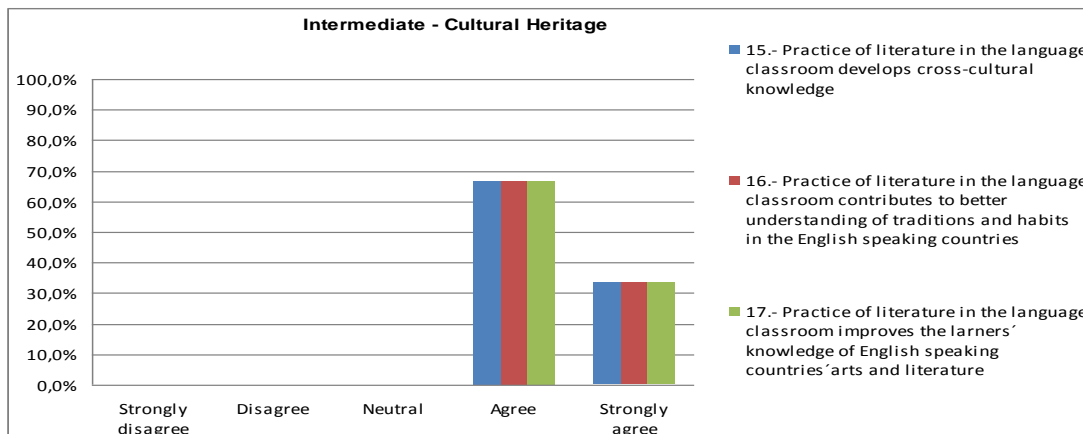
D. Cultural Heritage

Three questions were included in this Cultural Heritage section with the following total results obtained: 15.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom develops cross-cultural knowledge*, with a 83,3% of the respondents who agreed or strongly agreed and only a 16,7% who remain neutral; 16.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom contributes to better understanding of traditions and habits in the English speaking countries*, where a great majority of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed 94,4% with this idea despite a minor 5,6% of them who disagreed; and 17.- *Practice of literature in the language classroom improves the learners' knowledge of English speaking countries' arts and literature*, where results equalled those of item 16, the only difference being in the fact that the minor 5,6% corresponds to those who self-reported to strongly disagree.

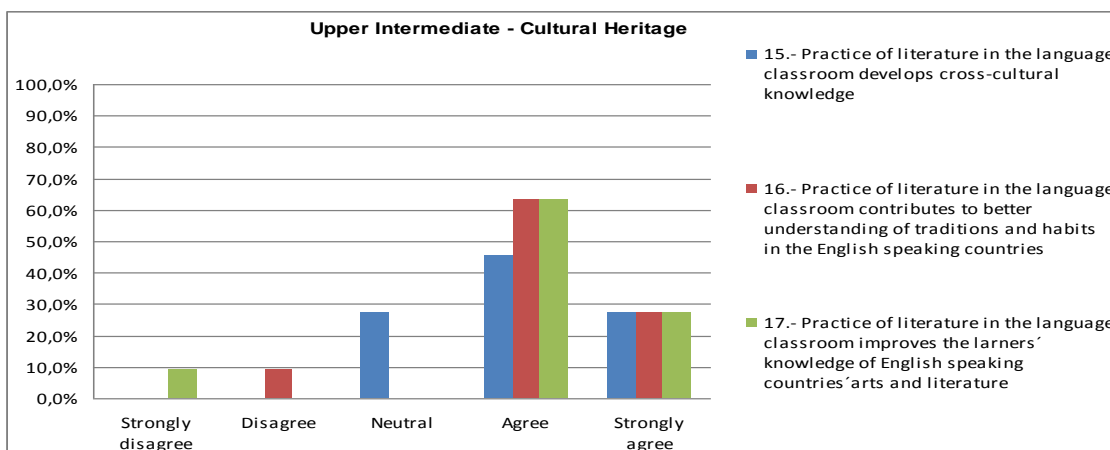
TABLE 4. OVERALL RESULTS FOR THE CULTURAL HERITAGE SECTION

Cultural Heritage		
15.- Practice of literature in the language classroom develops cross-cultural knowledge		
	Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0
(2)	Disagree	0
(3)	Neutral	6
(4)	Agree	16
(5)	Strongly agree	14
	Total	36
		100,0%
16.- Practice of literature in the language classroom contributes to better understanding of traditions and habits in the English speaking countries		
	Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	0
(2)	Disagree	2
(3)	Neutral	0
(4)	Agree	22
(5)	Strongly agree	12
	Total	36
		100,0%
17.- Practice of literature in the language classroom improves the learners' knowledge of English speaking countries' arts and literature		
	Frequency	Ratio
(1)	Strongly disagree	2
(2)	Disagree	0
(3)	Neutral	0
(4)	Agree	24
(5)	Strongly agree	10
	Total	36
		100,0%

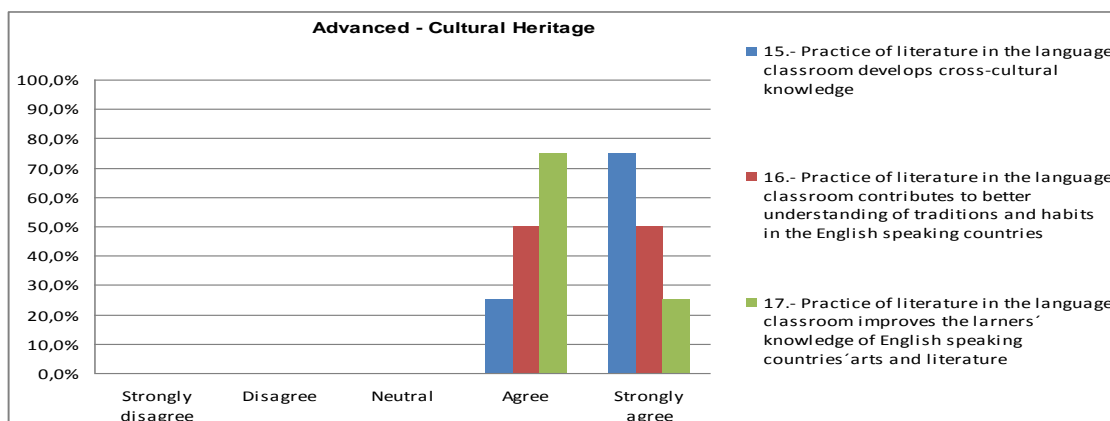
Partial results according to levels obtained for the Use of Cultural Heritage section are shown in Graphs 10, 11 and 12 below:



Graph 10. Intermediate level students: analysis of results for the Cultural Heritage section



Graph 11. Upper-intermediate level students: analysis of results for the Cultural Heritage section



Graph 12. Advanced level students: analysis of results for the Cultural Heritage section

Graphs 10, 11 and 12 above clearly show the homogeneity of opinions among the students of different levels concerning the value of literature in terms of cultural heritage. Most of them clearly approve literature as a means of developing cross-cultural knowledge and a better understanding of English culture and traditions.

*E. Students' Overall Evaluation*

The results derived from the questionnaire reveal that English classes based on literature are generally considered by students to be useful to achieve fluency at the highest levels and to learn new vocabulary and grammar structures as well as to get cultural background knowledge of the English speaking countries.

In terms of language acquisition, though, students tend to consider that these English mediated classes do mostly help to develop reception skills like reading and writing more than the productive listening or writing skills. In this sense, the

disadvantages of this literature based English teaching found by the students are mainly related to the focus being on reading with no time to develop the other, speaking and listening, skills. Possible problems regarding the adequacy of the level of the texts to the actual level of the students were also pointed. Advantages go through learning vocabulary in context and getting familiarized with structures that can be useful for future writing. Students reported that they would like to have more literature components in their language classes in the case literary texts always presented the adequate degree of difficulty. Some of them considered that these texts were to be used only for the reading part of the lesson while other skills should be equally developed.

#### V. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Success in language acquisition is often determined by students' interest and enthusiasm for the material used in the language classroom, their degree of persistence with the learning task, and their level of concentration and enjoyment (Crook and Schmidt, 1991). This type of students' personal involvement might come from the materials and lessons used in the classroom. With that purpose in mind, this study has been intended to show how beneficial literature-based teaching can be for ESL students. Even if results reveal that high-level English language students are the only ones who seem to be more positive towards the use of literary texts as a teaching tool, literature has been proved to be a highly useful tool for ESL students. Overall results have shown that literature as a language tool might be especially valuable for mastering a number of language skills, in particular, reading and writing comprehension, as well as developing a contextual and authentic use of language. Besides, it contributes positively to maturing students' critical thinking and enhancing their imaginative abilities, definitely leading to a better understanding of traditions, habits and culture of the English speaking countries. We hope that the research described in the article will facilitate teachers' effective use of literature to improve English instruction.

#### APPENDIX I

##### QUESTIONNAIRE

##### USE OF LITERATURE FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

1. Strongly disagree.
2. Disagree.
3. Neutral
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree.

Tick the appropriate digit.

N°	ITEM	1	2	3	4	5
1	Practice of literature in the language classroom provides a rich source of language learning.					
2	Practice of literature in the language classroom matures our thinking.					
3	Practice of literature in the language classroom develops communicative use of language.					
4	Practice of literature in the language classroom develops the contextual use of language.					
5	Practice of literature in the language classroom is a refined tool for language learning.					
6	Practice of literature in the language classroom improves the grammatical structures of the learners.					
7	Practice of literature in the language classroom inspires us for critical thinking.					
8	Practice of literature in the language classroom improves our language skills.					
9	Practice of literature in the language classroom improves vocabulary of the target language.					
10	Practice of literature as an informal discourse develops our spoken language.					
11	Practice of literature in the language classroom develops authentic use of language.					
12	Practice of literature in the language classroom develops cross cultural understanding of different cultures.					
13	Practice of literature in the language classroom develops better understanding of life.					
14	Practice of literature in the language classroom engages our emotions.					
15	Practice of literature in the language classroom enhances our imaginative abilities					
16	Literature being a source of entertainment develops language efficiently.					
17	When studying at school, I used to work with English poetry.					
18	When studying at school, I used to work with English narrative literature.					
19	My experience of working with literature was mainly positive.					
20	I would like to include literature into the English language curriculum.					

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# Functional Analysis of Marked and Unmarked Theme in Demonstrating a Critical Argument Written by Iraqi and Australian Postgraduate Students

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**Abstract**—Theme, as a point of departure plays a crucial role not merely in the organization of the academic messages but also in the functions of the clause, such as the notions of authorial voice and critical thinking. Halliday (2004) defined theme as an element that serves as the point of departure, identified by its position in the clause. This means the use of the main idea and/or author in the subject position stem of any clause is very important in presenting the elements of critical thinking and self-voice. This raises an important question of how postgraduate students as academic writers deal with the function of Marked and Unmarked themes as a point of departure in demonstrating a critical argument. This study, therefore, attempts to see how the functions of the Marked and Unmarked themes in demonstrating a critical argument are tackled by the academic assignment writers. Applying Halliday's (2004) model of thematic organization, this paper investigated a corpus of four academic assignments from four Masters Students (two Iraqi non-native and two Australian native writers of English). The results showed that Australians were more visible in displaying the elements of critical thinking and self-voice as a dual competence for their writing, while these elements were invisible in the Iraqi writers as they gave their loyalty to their textbooks and course materials. This findings will provide not only Iraqi postgraduate students with a better understanding of problems in order to help them improve their authorial voice and critical thinking in demonstrating a critical argument, but will also for Iraqi EFL instructors at the Iraqi universities on what exactly needs to be made explicit within the framing and language of the academic assignments.

**Index Terms**- theme, Iraqi non-native writers of English, Australian native writers of English, marked theme, unmarked theme, critical thinking and self-voice

## I. INTRODUCTION

Aspects of cohesion and coherence have been identified as a challenge for EFL and ESL students in writing an academic text (Alagozlu, 2007; Barnawi, 2011; Ebrahimi, 2012; Krisnawati, 2013; Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999; Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996). In particular, research on Arab postgraduate students has illustrated that the lack of text cohesion and coherence is often clearly visible in their academic writing, and this is due to the inappropriate method of writing teaching in their home countries (Ahmed, 2010; Al-Khasawneh, 2010; Rabab'ah, 2003). In the same line of argumentation, Al-Khasawneh (2010) analysed the cohesion in Arab student's writing and showed that the Arab students face problems in grammar and the organization of their ideas.

Several studies have argued in academic writing that the coherence of ideas, clarity and logic of relationships between sentences and among paragraphs is presented in terms of "thematic organization" (Berry, 1995; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 2004). This important aspect of functional grammar keeps the academic message well organized. Ebrahimi (2008) explored the functional analysis of thematization in English student's compositions in three groups, sophomore, junior, senior, and native speakers. The results show that no marked difference was found between the native speaker's writing and EFL writing, and native or non-native and more attention to the subject of the sentence.

Ebrahimi (2012) selected comprehension writings and analysed them in terms of Marked and Unmarked themes as points of departure. These texts were written by native and non-native writers of English and were analysed adopting a t-unit "as a clause complex which contains one main independent clause together with all the hypotactic clauses which are dependent on it" (Fries (1994, p.318)). The result showed some interesting points, firstly there were similarities rather than differences in these reading comprehension texts where both native and non-native writers presented small number of their point of departure to present marked theme. Native writers, for instance, applied marked theme as a point of departure twice of that applied by those non-native writers to bring some element into the point of departure position. In contrast, the texts of non-native writers were less argumentative; more difficult to comprehend and not as well organized in nature as those by native writers, because of the higher frequency of unmarked themes.

While these studies have illustrated the usefulness of theme and rheme as a requirement of academic writing to achieve text cohesion and coherence, very few studies have analysed the authorial voice and critical thinking that lie

within theme and rheme patterns. Lewthwaite (2010) studied the coherence of Emirates' students writing, and argued that the "flow of thinking and expression" in any academic writing "is usually established by writers using cohesive devices, multi-word expressions and by developing the ideas (themes) with restatement or logical extensions" (rhemes) (p. 1). Kamler and Thomson (2006), for instance, stated that making effective authorial judgment is associated with theme and rheme functions in forming strong and creative arguments. Thus, if postgraduate students fail to use the theme and rheme appropriately in constructing a voice of authority, their writing would be more descriptive and less argumentative. However, this is not the requirement of post-graduate study of Western Universities. Barnawi (2011) investigated the critical thinking and voice in EFL student academic arguments and found that claims were not supported with logical and related conclusions to form healthy academic arguments; rather they shared somebody else's viewpoint and ignored to put their own viewpoint into their academic writing. The study has justified this as a result of the absence of teaching these two elements explicitly within the EFL education system.

The aspect of critical thinking in forming academic argument has also been investigated by Western-oriented second language researchers and concluded of the need to integral part of both first (L1) and second language (L2) in writing (Park and Stapleton, 2002). Along the same line, Alagozlu, (2007), argued convincingly that there is a great significance between Eastern and Western education system in terms of the critical thinking and voice in forming academic argument where these aspects is deemed to be peculiar to the western culture. This view emphasises on the need to have the combination of both writing context to meet the requirement of the western writing. Therefore, to achieve effective, critical and coherent argument in academic writing, Iraqi postgraduate students need to meet these requirements of Western academic cultures to persuade their readers. This academic problem has instilled in me the desire to further investigate the obstacles to the making of such meaning in Iraqi students' academic assignments. Thus, this study will focus on the functional analysis of Marked and Unmarked theme as a point of departure in demonstrating a critical argument.

## II. METHOD

### *CORPUS*

The data for this paper were drawn from four written assignments written by four Masters Students (two Iraqi and two native Australian students), Faculty of Education at Monash University. The assignments were taken from a small data set of four essays collected as a part of the author's master's degree thesis. One segment of about 1500 words on the same topic has been chosen across these assignments for the basis of comparison. The authors of these four academic assignments are from two different academic discourse communities. This study, therefore, attempted to compare the similarities and the differences of the functional analysis of marked and unmarked themes as point of departure in demonstrating a critical argument in these academic assignments.

**Segments A1 and A 2** were written by Australian postgraduate students who are native writers of English;

**Segments Ir 1 and Ir 2** were written by Iraqi postgraduates who are non-native writers of English.

In this study, the Masters of Education (TESOL) the author of this paper has drawn his data specifically. The Master of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is designed for a wide range of professionals working in English language teaching and in international contexts. It aims to prepare postgraduate students as language teachers who wish to gain an accredited qualification and who seek to teaching in Australia. This course comprises eight units and upon the successful completion of each unit in this course, students are expected to understand and reflect critically on the core principles of language learning, develop sound pedagogy with strong theoretical foundations, which can be adapted and applied to particle international contexts. From this particular course, I have chosen the unit of Languages Society and Cultural Difference as a data for this study. The ration for selecting this unit was because it is a fundamental critical unit in the Master of Education (TESOL) at Monash University. This unit aims to develop capacity as a self-directed learner-researcher in the classes and on line activities as well to explore the ways that language, society, and cultural difference and how they are related to each other (Faculty of Education, 2013).

Postgraduate students are required to write a literature review and demonstrate a critical understanding of the complexities of Stuart Hall's argument about representation language and identity. As well, they are require to write 3,200 words equivalent in order to support the connection between language, identity and cultural by reference to at least one other reading as well as Stuart Hall (1979), based on four criteria (provides a well-focused and comprehensive summary of the reading, demonstrates a critical understanding of the complexities of Hall's argument, identifies a significant context and provides a rich description, provides an insightful and critical with strong links to Hall's theory, and provides a well-structured and clearly set out response with good presentation, appropriate writing strategies, careful documentation of sources (Faculty of Education, 2013).

## III. ANALYTICAL MODEL

In the investigation of the occurrence of Marked and Unmarked theme functions' relations, I utilised the Hallidaian (2004) model of thematic organization to categorize the academic assignments of the two groups into the following categorizations for Marked and Unmarked Ideational themes. The rationale for the selection of the Hallidaian model was that this model is the most plausible and was most recently updated. In this study, the Marked and Unmarked theme

were analysed at the level of clause rather than at the sentence level because the study aimed to identify similarities and differences in the way thematic structures across small segments of the academic assignments are employed by some Australian native and Iraqi non-native writers of English in this study.

**Unmarked theme** is “an element that occupies the point of departure position of the clause and conflates with the grammatical subject” (Halliday, 1994, p. 44).

Example 1: Hall stated that identity is changeable and not fixed.

**Marked theme** is “an element other than occupies the point of departure position of the clause but does not conflates with the grammatical subject” (Halliday, 1994, p. 44).

Example 2: In this light, identity is not fixed or static rather that it is changeable.

#### A. Selection of Participants

The participants consisted of two Iraqi postgraduate students studying at the Faculty of Education at Monash University. These participants were not have been educated in English-speaking or Western countries prior to their enrolment in the Australian Masters, and had completed their first assignment for the unit within the year 2012, and two Australian participants who, in contrast, were not educated in Iraq or similar countries prior to their enrolment in the Australian Masters, and also needed to have completed their first assignment within the same year.

#### B. Recruitment of Participants

After taking the permission of the course’s lecturer, I visited the class and distributed a flyer explaining the project. The explanatory statement was attached to the invitation, which specified that those interested should read it before indicating their interest to me by email. I explicitly stated that, while their participation would be valuable, they should not feel any obligation to participate. Those interested in participating contacted me via my provided email, expressing their agreement to participate in this current research. They provided me with their contact details and their consent form. They also provided me with their marked for the “Language, society and cultural differences” Assignment (1). Each participant provided one sample assignment of writing along with the assignment requirements to the researcher. These had been marked and returned.

#### C. Unite of Analysis

To analyse the data, t-unit was selected. T-unit is defined by Fries (1994, p. 318) “as a clause complex which contains one main independent clause together with all the hypotactic clauses which are dependent on it” (p. 318). Analysing theme at the level of t-unit rather than the individual clauses make it easier to focus on patterns of the thematic development in large amounts of text, and can also be justified on the grounds that the thematic structure of a dependent clause is often constrained by the independent clause Fries & Francis (1992).

#### D. Procedure

One segment of about 1500 words on the same topic from these four students has been chosen across these assignments for the basis of comparison. Each segment was broken down into a list of clauses that were then divided into their theme and rheme. The ideational themes were further categorized as marked and unmarked themes. The frequency of Marked and Unmarked theme in these academic segments were calculated, and the percentages were derived by comparing the number of their occurrences in each group of Iraqi and Australian postgraduate students’ English writing. Afterwards, Halliday’s model of thematic organization of Marked and Unmarked themes (1994; 2004) was applied to investigate the function of marked and unmarked theme as a point of departure in demonstrating a critical argument. Several researchers pointed out that there is always a danger of misinterpretation with text analysis (Ebrahimi, 2012; Jalilifar, 2009). Therefore, to minimize the threat of reliability in the analysis, one segment of each group were also analysed by an experienced researcher in applied linguistics and agreements made based on Hallidaian (2004) model of discourse analysis.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of the functional analysis of Marked and Unmarked themes is to identify the level of the argument that the students of different culture have produced through the element of critical thinking and self-voice as dual competences in forming their critical arguments. The results are presented in Table 1, which indicates that in terms of unmarked theme as appoint of departure, the Iraqi non-native writers of English used unmarked themes (90%) slightly more than the Australian native writers (84%), as well as, Australians used marked themes (16%) slightly more than the Iraqi non-native writers (10%).

TABLE 1.  
FREQUENCY OF MARKED AND UNMARKED THEMES IN THE STUDENTS’ WRITTEN SEGMENTS

Theme types	Iraqi non-native writer (%)		Australian native writer (%)	
	Student Ir1	Student Ir2	Student A 1	Student A 2
Unmarked Ideational theme (UM)	33+ 17	(90%)	84 + 79	(84%)
Marked Ideational theme (MT)	4+2	(10%)	5 + 21	(16%)
Total (in whole piece)	37	(100%)	32	(100%)

### A. Unmarked Point of Departure Relations in the Students' Written Segments

A most interesting finding is that the frequency of unmarked themes was greater in the Iraqi native students' written segments (90%) than in the Australian native writers' ones (84%), as Table 1 illustrates. In the segments analysed, for the Iraqi non-native writers, most unmarked themes as a point of departure are personal names, examples of which are provided in examples 1 and 2.

Example, 1 Student Ir 1

Unmarked theme	Rheme
Hall <UM> (personal name)	proposed the term of "Diaspora" to refer to any migrants people that share common ethnic identity such as the African Diaspora in Europe.
Hall (1997) <UM> (personal name)	argues that identity is varied, constructed, multiple, hybrid, dynamic and recreated continuously in one's everyday experiences.

Example, 2 Student Ir 2

Unmarked theme	Rheme
Hall (1997) <UM> (personal name)	states that identity is changeable and not fixed, as understood from Hall (1997) arguments...
Hall <UM> (personal name)	refers to the idea that "identity" is not as transparent or unproblematic as we think" (p.1).

As evident from the analysed segments, examples 1 and 2 display how (Student Ir 1 and Ir 2) stamp the elements of critical thinking and self-voice as dual writing competences through the unmarked theme as a point of departure. These writers develop their topic with a lack of these competences features, where, most of their ideas as a point of departure are descriptive; rather than being critical. In the case of Student Ir 1, he introduces the theme of the first clause "*Hall (1997) argues that cultural identity*", as an unmarked theme for the second and third clause, and the information presented in the rheme is often neglected. As well he starts to link his first sentences with the following as if he formed a list rather than bringing them together in a cohesive and relational way. More specifically, this writer presents his analytical argument like a list of descriptive information (rather than being argumentative) through placing another scholar's names (Hall) repeatedly in the theme stem, which makes his segment read descriptively and without his own authority and self-voice as a necessary for the academic success.

In similar manner, Student Ir 2, has provided a purely descriptive argument in which he merely showing loyalty to the course materials rather than critically questioning the validity of the ideas in those materials in his written segment, which is comparable with previous studies by Barnawi (2011) and Stapleton (2001), who convincingly argued that in EFL writing instruction, most EFL college students adhere strictly to their texts as materials such as course-books, and handouts, because "they have not been taught to think critically and independently in their first language" (p.190). This suggests several reasons: one is that these writers preferred to position the unmarked theme as a point of departure in the subject position in the clause to make sure that their sentences were grammatically and logically correct (Halliday, 1994, p. 33). Another possible reason for these results is that the experience of silencing in the Iraqi writer's voice can be explained by the mismatch between the Iraqi cultural norms of academic writing and the class one in Australian ones.

Another related interpretation is that the use of the main idea and/or author in the subject position stems as a starting point of argument from a belief that authority and scientific argument resides in the voice and ideas of others (Kamler & Thomson, 2006; Rusdinoo, 2009; Wang, 2007). The lack of further rheme development suggests that the student is unfamiliar with how to formulate an academic critical argument. These findings are in line with those (Rusdinoo, 2009; Wang, 2007), who argued that students' weaknesses in their academic argument were due to problems with thematic development in their written texts. Lack of thematic development made their text read "like a list" which is characteristic of descriptive and narrative texts rather than argumentative ones. These writers need to understand that in academic writing, they need to take into an account the intended reader's expectations as writing is linked to culture. These students need to understand that academic writing is not merely about conveying "content, copy thoughts, or borrowing ideas from reading texts, and presenting them as they are; rather than, it is about presetting the element of critical thinking and self-voice as a point of departure for their academic debate. This is because self-voice in the western context of writing is not an optional aspect; rather it's compulsory ones. They also need to bear in mind that using a variety of different opinions and backing them with some evidence from different resources will help them in presenting the elements of critical thinking and self-voice as dual writing competences.

Example, 3 Student Ir 1

Unmarked theme	Rheme
Hall (1997) argues that cultural identity<UM> Hall <UM>	is represented through producing and exchanging meanings. proposed the term of "Diaspora" to refer to any migrants people that share common ethnic identity such as the African Diaspora in Europe.
Hall <UM>	refers to this diaspora and mentions that all cultural practices and forms of representation are putting the issue of cultural identity in question of' Who is this emergent" (p. 392).



In contrast, in the case of the Australian native writers as shown in Example (4, below), Student A 1 expresses her judgment in the unmarked theme stem more effectively from a general point of view and links her first sentence with the theme of the next clause using internal textual devices, for instance, *and in this way*. Student A1 positions herself authoritatively towards other writers through the use of other citations from other sources such as conjunctions to indicate agreement/disagreement with the presented topic. In other words, the unmarked theme as point of departure clearly shows that the writer has a clear understanding that expression personal judgement is one of the demands in the objective academic writing. Further, the writer has quite a confident dialogic engagement and deals with greater authority with Hall's text. This suggests that the writer is familiar with the requirement that academic written discourse critically evaluate literature- she sees Hall's ideas as only one among many possibilities. This notion suggests that in Student A 1's writing, her confident setting out of her own ideas, were the results of instruction in her Australian education system that emphasized critical engagement. So, judging the ideas of other people served to augment her more greatly visible authorial analytical argument. These finding is consistent with those from previous research, which has shown that Eastern education differs from Western education with the respect to the role critical thinking in forming academic arguments where this aspect is deemed to be peculiar to the western culture (Alagozlu, 2007).

Example, 4 Student A 1

Unmarked theme	Rheme
It <UM>	is represented through producing and exchanging meanings.
Everyone <UM>	has a shared sense of history and ancestry, and in this way, is fixed within one essentialised vision (Hall, 1997, 51).
and in this way, <MT>	is fixed within one essentialised vision (Woodward, 1997, 51).
From this perspective, the culture of a group or society, <MT>	is unchanging and the practices they engage in reinforce this unity and sameness.

### B. Marked Point of Departure Relations in the Students' Written Segments

The result of the data in terms of the marked themes for the critical thinking and self-voice showed that the marked themes occur more frequently in the segments of the Australian native writers (5%) than in those of the Iraqi non-native writers (2%), as shown in Table 1. In the segments analysed, the Australian native writers used more marked themes as a point of departure in their written segments than the applied by these Iraqi non- native writers. The Australian writers had a high incidence of marked themes as a point of departure in conveying their argumentative text. In the argumentative texts segments, the Australian writers tend to take a stance by positioning themselves (sharing their own identity) to authorities and other writers in their texts. This usually happens when writers develops the rheme of one clause into the theme of the subsequence clause with high incidence of cross references links resulting in having the clear presentation of these dual competences in their argument.

In the case of Student A2 as shown in example 7, she uses `we` + `positioned/ourselves` voice served to either co-opt her reader into unfolding argument as well as to strengthen her claim by building a shared identity to a wide group. This type of writing results in presenting strong argument with visible self-voice to persuade or convince the reader of the writer's point of view. Student A1 also uses same strategy for presenting her argument like "*We + the people*" to express the function of self-voice or thoughts in her text without only accepting the idea of Hall's argument. These writers have been used these dual competence of critical thinking and self-voice as a point of departure through the marked themes for the purpose of to act locally and globally for the reader who read their texts. A possible justification for this is that since these westerners have early and continues exposure to English in their daily social interaction; this made them familiar on how to judge the idea of others by showing their authorial presence in their writing. These findings are compatible with the research of Barnawi (2011) who showed that "western student writers seem to judge the idea of others to show their authorial presence in their writing" (p. 193). This high incidence of marked themes in the Australian postgraduate students is exemplified by the writing of Student A1, who mostly employed the dual elements of critical thinking and self-voice as appoint of departure as a requirement for their academic success.

Exam Example, 6 Student A1

Marked theme	Rheme
And the practice <M-C-A>	they engage in reinforce this unity and sameness
From apolitical standpoint <M-C-A>	it is useful to develop a sense of a unified "we the people"

Exam Example, 7 Student A2

Marked theme	Rheme
In this way, <M-C-A>	we are positioned as well as position ourselves (Hall 1997, p 52).
Because of different histories traditions, behaviors and beliefs<MT>	language in its various forms is unique to the culture of its users.

While the elements of critical thinking and self-voice as a point of departure by marked themes were more common in the Australian writers, they were invisible in the Iraqi non-native writers. These Iraqi writers did not displaying their authorial presence as a point of departure as they simply accepting the idea of others. It seems that the elements of such critical thinking and self-voice are not emphasised explicitly within their education system. This suggests why these

writers in their arguments have suffered in expressing the original thought in the texts. In the case of Student Ir 1, he preferred to emphasise the grammatical subject in some clauses as a starting point for their written segments, but he did not demonstrate a critical understanding of the complexities of Hall's argument, rather demonstrating a descriptive ones. This writer did not take a stance in putting the element critical thinking and self-voice as a dual competence together with some supported evidence; rather he failed to defend them. In similar writing style, Student Ir 2, did not constructed the aspect of critical thinking as he only rely on copying on what he has read from the course's texts without filtering the argument with some basic evidence to defend his argument. Therefore, in most of their claims, they have shared somebody else's viewpoint rather than putting their viewpoint in the marked theme as a point of departure for their argument into their text. These findings are in line with the work of Barnawi (2011), which has shown that EFL writers were incapable in demonstrating the element of critical thinking and self-voice skills, as they merely presented the summaries of the worked reviewed based on their readings. This suggests that their expectations of the academic writing requirements at the Australian universities were not similar to those in their home country's assessment practices in Iraq. These findings are line with those of previous research (Ebrahimi & Ebrahimi, 2012). In written texts, non-native writers "were less argumentative in nature compared to those developed by native writers" in the use of *marked theme* pattern (p. 3), an example of which is provided from Student Ir 1 and Ir 2 in example 8 and 9.

Example, 8 Student Ir1	
Marked theme	Rheme
In this sense, identity <M-C-A>	is not fixed or static,
From apolitical standpoint <M-C-A>	it is useful to develop a sense of a unified "we the people"

Example, 9 Student Ir 2	
Marked theme	Rheme
Through daily activities<MT>	the way people deal with others and speak can distinguish them from others.

This suggest that while the unfamiliarity with the academic writing requirements was more visible as having an impact on the Iraqi non-native postgraduate writers of English, familiarity with academic genre was not seen as surprising for the Australian native writers of English. This suggests that the Iraqi postgraduate students (Ir 1 and Ir 2) had not been fully equipped and/or trained, nor did they have the combination of both standards of Western and Eastern academic writing requirements, which in turn caused their unfamiliarity with the specific genre as a global requirement for writing. This is consistent with previous research work (Kamel, 2000), who argued that the comprehension and production of academic function such as argumentation depends on training rather than merely on language proficiency. However, Iraqi students' social context and learning activities govern their prior experiences which in turn can cause poor academic writing skills in Western academic contexts. This shows the usefulness of explicit over implicit approaches in teaching academic writing.

In short, the analyses of the student's segments have shown differences between the Iraqi postgraduates and Australians as native writers of English. As we have seen, there were only differences rather similarities in capturing the marked/unmarked themes as a point of departure in demonstrating the elements of critical thinking and self-voice as a dual competence in the students' written segments. In the case of the Iraqi students, their critical thinking as a self-representation was invisible as they gave their loyalty to their textbooks and course materials. In contrast, the Australian native writers of English were more visible in displaying the elements of critical thinking and self-voice. As a result of the analysis, the segments that captured strong authoritative and critical voices are those ones which constructed the elements of critical thinking and self-representation which are the requirements of academic writing at many Australian universities, particularly (though not exclusively), at postgraduate level. In contrast, the segments that were more descriptive and developed less argument were those which provided less critical reflection and self-voice. This does not match the requirements of the academic writing style in the Education Faculty at Monash University.

## V. CONCLUSION

The data analysis indicated that there are differences rather than similarities in the functional use of Marked and Unmarked themes as appoint of departure in forming the critical arguments. The analysis of unmarked themes in both segments shows that the successful segments by the native writers introduce personal judgment in the theme position stems and link that judgment with the other sentences in a very effective and consistent way. On the other hand, the Iraqi postgraduate non-native writers tended to repeat the nominal subject as theme instead of using an internal textual theme to link the sentences in that segment to build up a sense of clarification of focus. These Iraqi non-native writers in their writing mostly focused on word and sentences level structures rather than the structures at the level of their whole written discourse.

The difference between these two groups indicates that segments developed by Iraqi postgraduate students were descriptive rather than argumentative. This shows that critical thinking has taken different forms in different cultures. The results of this study will benefit the Iraqi English language students in their context of teaching critical thinking elements in writing English in Iraq. This will help the Iraqi postgraduate students to be fully equipped with the standards of Western and Eastern academic writing requirements, and their unfamiliarity with the specific genre as a

global requirement for writing. The study showed that Iraqi postgraduates students seems to share similar thinking behavioural patterns as those mentioned in the previous academic researches of Alagozlu (2007), Barnawi (2011), and Moodie (2000). The study has pinpoint to identify the existence problem of lacking teaching the elements of critical thinking and self-voice in forming academic arguments in the Iraqi education system of writing. A further step of integral both elements of critical thinking and self-voice in the Iraqi academic writing would be beneficial for the students to form health academic argumentative without imposing one curriculum above the other.

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# Exploring English Academic Texts on Language Education and Pedagogy: Structural, Stylistic and Lexical Features

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**Abstract**—English academic texts on language education and pedagogy refer to texts that reflect features that pertain to educational discourse of language teaching and learning and to its functions in the system of academic and educational communications (Tuzlukova, Stashkova & Pushkina, 2006). These texts serve to construct a common platform for sharing knowledge and ideas in the global socio-cultural continuum. They also allow for presenting individual/local practice and experience of the pedagogical exploration of the world, educational communication, existing academic and language education discourse thus contributing to scientific value and social significance of the local educational communities. Indeed, English academic texts on language education and pedagogy reflect a complex and multifaceted system of the "common" language (Belchik, 1987) that is used globally in the field; nevertheless, their structural, stylistic and lexical constituents have individual/local features (Flottum, 2007). This paper discusses some structural, stylistic and lexical characteristics of the academic texts on language education. The discussion is supported by the examples from the corpus of academic texts on English language education and pedagogy in Oman that reveal both individual/local and internationally recognized common features of these characteristics.

**Index Terms**—academic texts, language education, pedagogy, Oman

## I. INTRODUCTION

Globalization and internationalization of education have necessitated search for methods and procedures aimed at effective information exchange and cooperation between local and global educational communities. These are not limited to certain governmental policies, institutional arrangements and strategies. They also include unique ways in which this new "reality" (Knight, 2003) is represented, organized, processed and manipulated.

In the context of globalization language can no longer be seen as an isolated phenomenon. It becomes one of "the most important components of communication activity" (Crystal, 1970, p.215), an instrument that facilitates overcoming its seemingly chaotic character, and achieving accuracy and logic in naming, stating and generalizing as well as "in the production, maintenance, and change of social relations of power" (Fairclough, 1989, p.1). Moreover, accumulating cognitive and socio-cultural information, language becomes a source of social knowledge that is characterized not only by the local features of linguistic expression, but also by common internationally recognized features based on a common human nature of thinking (Volodina, 1997, p.120). To exemplify, in the world of academia and education, English is used, on the one hand, to communicate multi-level synthesis of educational concepts, practice and experience that construct local culture-inclusive models of education and recreate their linguistic interpretations. On the other hand, it is utilized as the "language of world communication" (LWC) and "academic lingua franca" which "secure and confident use opens up many possibilities" (Curriculum, 2012). To accommodate these two functions, the English language becomes an instrument for a) analyzing individual local "educational pictures of the world" and their synthesis in historical space and time; b) searching for the common grounds of individual local educational cultures and solidifying their links within the framework of the modern "dialogue of cultures" (Ter-Minasova, 2000); c) identifying and better understanding problems of "the other" (Bakhtin, 1994) and "actively assessing" (Bakhtin, 1992) them. In this context, English academic texts on education present research interest as a linguistic, communicative and discourse phenomenon and as a reflection of links between individual local and global educational cultures.

## II. BACKGROUND

According to Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi (2010), writing pedagogical research has a pivotal importance for facilitating what Boyer (1990) describes as 'transmitting', 'extending' and 'transforming' knowledge about teaching and learning in general. (p. 42). And the situation with research on English language education and pedagogy in Oman is not an exception.

In spite of critical discussions and underestimation of the issues related to this area of research and research systems in Oman and its universities (Al-Issa, 2011), it has tremendously advanced in the recent decade with the goals of raising awareness about the potential for research in language pedagogy and education; promoting and sustaining its good quality and showing how research in English language education and pedagogy, keeping it current with developments in the field in order to raise the quality of teaching and learning in Oman; encouraging discussions among professionals interested in research in the different fields of English language teaching and learning; fostering communication and cooperation between language educators who are working in Oman's secondary and tertiary education institutions both in private and public sectors in the area of research and encouraging them to present and share their practice and experience. Acknowledging the importance of promoting research activity and creating a sustainable research culture, the Government of Oman and Oman's higher education institutions in Oman have provided insights into conducting and publishing research in language education and pedagogy by supporting research initiatives and publications, e.g. research projects targeting the educational sector from the public to higher education that were given assistance by The Oman's Research Council (see: <http://home.trc.gov.om/tabid/73/language/en-US/Default.aspx> for more information); publishing of *Forum*, regular professional journal of the Language Centre at Sultan Qaboos University, aimed at being a platform for exchanging professional knowledge of language practitioners and enhancing the effectiveness of language teaching practices; (see: <http://www.squ.edu.om/langcenter/tabid/15426/language/en-US/Default.aspx> for more information), etc.

Research on language education and pedagogy in Oman encompasses a wide range of theoretical and empirical topics and issues that aim to meet the existing global and local challenges in language learning and teaching (Al-Issa, 2011). Findings being reported in various locally and globally published journals, books, conference proceedings and web postings (see, for example, Al Issa, 2008; Al Mahrooqi & Tuzlukova, 2010; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; El-Okda, 2005, etc.) are available for Oman's and international public scrutiny (Nunan, 1999 cited in Al-Issa, 2010, p.59). Addressing the importance of publishing research findings by the educators in Oman, Al-Issa (2010) cites Boyer (1990), comparing publishing at local, regional and international levels with genuine representation of the 'scholarship of discovery' and 'scholarship of integration' (Boyer, 1990, p.18). According to Boyer (1990), the 'scholarship of discovery' or 'scholarly investigation' is '... at the very heart of academic life ... as it is about the search for knowledge for its own sake due to its absolute importance (p.18). Boyer (1990) also believes that the 'scholarship of integration' "puts isolated facts in perspective and helps to make connections across the disciplines" (p.19). Both types of scholarship are reflected in a global "common" language (Belchik, 1987) that represents complex and multifaceted system of language education and pedagogy, and in its individual/local features. For example, in the context of Oman it describes and presents individual/local practices and experiences of the pedagogical exploration of the world, educational communication, existing academic and education discourse thus contributing to scientific value and social significance of the local community of language educators and pedagogues in the country.

This paper discusses some structural, lexical and stylistic features of the academic texts on language education and pedagogy - the genre of academic prose that is one of the missing or unrepresentative (Lee, 2001) in relation to linguistic investigation. The discussion is supported by the examples from the academic texts on English language education and pedagogy in Oman. These texts "are associated with particular, distinctive patterns of language use" (Language and literacy, 2010), and refer to the concept of academic information resource that supports teaching, learning and research on language education and pedagogy in Oman and in the world, and to the concept of modeling of local and individual cognitive activity (Alfeeva, 2001). They are also related to the concept of the academic text by Bazerman (1988) who argued on the importance of "considering the social and intellectual activity which the text was part in" (p.4).

In respect of methodology, according to Humes (2000), "discourses can be analyzed at various levels, from their basic constituents, statements to accumulated discursive formations" (p.36). As observed by Dannaher, Schirato and Webb (2000) these formations are "associated with 'games of truth' working within fields" (p. 45). The examples were retrieved from a corpus consisting of academic texts on language education and pedagogy published in Oman from 2010 through 2014, and "assumed to be representative" (Francis, 1992, p.17) for research and illustration in relation to sampling, representativeness and finite size (McEnery & Wilson, 2005).

For optimizing research procedures the original academic texts were converted into a database structure to compile a corpus (McEnery & Wilson, 2005). Academic texts that made the corpus were stylistically uniform and were represented by the chapters from the books and articles on language education and pedagogy published in Oman. As a piloting study, the compiled corpus was limited to statistically valid size of 200.000 words (Alekseev, 1973), and comprised 40 book chapters and 12 articles that included titles, abstracts and references. Computer programs Word Tabulator (<http://www.rvb.ru/soft/index.html>) and TextAnalystv2.01 ([www.analyst.ru](http://www.analyst.ru)) were used for automatic indexing and tagging of the texts; automatic identification of the main topics (words and collocations) and frequencies and automatic reviewing of textual documents.

### III. STRUCTURAL AND STYLISTIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH ACADEMIC TEXTS

English academic texts on language education and pedagogy refer to the type of texts that pertain to educational discourse that exists in the system of academic and educational communication (Tuzlukova, Stashkova & Pushkina,

2006), allowing for communicating ideas and thoughts, and figuring out challenges and complex problems of language teaching and learning. Structural, stylistic and lexical constituents of this system serve to pedagogically explore the world and describe specific situations of teaching and learning. They also assist in communicating adequately and precisely academic and educational knowledge, information and ideas. These constituents involve both global and individual/local nuances, functions, features and forms of communication. This relates to Bakhtin's dialogism (1986) who observed that

"Any concrete utterance is a link in the chain of speech communication of a particular sphere. The very boundaries of the utterance are determined by a change of speech subjects. Utterances are not indifferent to one another, and are not self-sufficient; they are aware of and mutually reflect one another... Every utterance must be regarded as primarily a response to preceding utterances of the given sphere... Each utterance refutes affirms, supplements, and relies upon the others, presupposes them to be known, and somehow takes them into account... Therefore, each kind of utterance is filled with various kinds of responsive reactions to other utterances of the given sphere of speech communication" (p.51).

However, the constituents of the academic texts firstly and foremost, reflect a complex and multifaceted system of their "common" language (Belchik, 1987), which is the language of language education and pedagogy. They also feature modern academic discourse and existing system of implicit and explicit rules and regulations that govern the processes of reproducing and exchanging academic knowledge, and, as a consequence, aim at consolidating the global academic community. For example, academic texts on language education and pedagogy are similar to other texts of the same genre and style and consist of a certain number of structural and semantic components or "macro texts" (Boguslavskaya, 2004), namely title, abstract, introduction, conclusion and references. However, according to Humes (2000), "discourses are constantly developing in response to internal and external pressures coming from ideological, economic, political, professional and institutional forces" (p.47). He further observes that "this means that the language in which educational policies are expressed is subject to constant adjustment and refinement" (p.47). To exemplify, the title of the academic text on language education and pedagogy "frames" (Castello, Banales, Inesta & Vega, 2009) what is explained in it. It reflects the topic of research, provides the most useful and interesting information, and serves as the most informatory structural and semantic component of the academic text. To exemplify, "Developing reading skills with the use of discourse analysis", "Professional development for the second language writing teacher" [Forum, 2014]. The characteristics that distinguish the title are maximum shortness, showiness and potential (Castello et al., 2009). These characteristics help to better address the readership and inform them, communicate knowledge and ideas. Due to the communicative potential of the internet, in digital environments these characteristics are distinctive for improving the access of the academic texts to the readers, simulating meaning transfer and bridging communication gaps (Diderichsen, 2006).

Creating a title that is perfect both in its form and content is not easy. Some titles are often long, for example, "Western teachers' cultural and linguistic challenges in teaching English language in the classroom" [Forum, 2014]. Others contain various artistic images, semantic associations, metaphors, abbreviations and rethinking of the meanings of the words, for example, "Practical criticism for the EFL practitioner" [Forum, 2014], "Credit vs. Foundation English Programmes: Putting cart and horse together", "The rest of the iceberg".

The most typical titles of the academic texts on language education and pedagogy in Oman are: a) titles of general character, for example: "Test-Taking Strategies" [Forum, 2014]; b) titles that in detail describe the educational issues that are investigated by the author, e.g., "CALL: Enhancing An Integrated Skills Approach", "Some Challenges In The Assessment of Integrated Skills"; c) titles that reflect some features and nuances of the author's individual approach or point of view, e.g., "Feeding back to make a difference with the help of Vygotsky, Krashen, Chomsky and a few other more knowing others", "Teach me if you can: Omani Foundation students and the story of autonomy"; d) titles, which consist of components that include the details of the local context of language teaching and learning, e.g., "Laying solid foundations: developing national standards for Foundation Programs in Oman" Being an essential part of academic texts, titles mostly focus on the subject of the reported research, e.g. "Cultural Considerations for Non-Arab Teachers New to Oman", which is sometimes separated from its attributes, e.g. "Listening skills for effective academic communication". Some titles, however, include the subject and the object that is fitted from the keywords of the reported research, e.g. "Reflective portfolios in Omani Foundation Programmes: Tools for developing learner autonomy", "Learner autonomy support in EFL classroom: Students' perspective". One of the essential features of the titles of the examined academic texts is that many of them include the components that establish the relevance of the examined topic (global or previously examined in a different context of language education and pedagogy) to the local context, e.g. "General Foundation Programme at Dhofar university: A case study", "A reflective socio-cultural view of identity construction in the Omani ELT context", "Omani editorial cartoons in EFL context in Oman".

Quite interestingly, the titles of the examined academic texts mostly avoid using so-called "ornaments", e.g., "The research on...", "The role of...", "An Introduction to...", "A Review of...", "Effects of...", "Focus on...", "Approaches to...", etc. (as in Halliday, M. A. K. (1967). Notes on transitivity and theme in English. *Journal of Linguistics*, 3(2), 199-244). Most of the texts in the corpus precisely establish the topic and announce the problem, the gap or the issue and contain sets of keywords with highly informative and communicative content, e.g. "Impact of empirical rating scales on EFL writing assessment", "Building Students' Reflection Skills", and can be described as

exemplary, and are followed by well-worded either descriptive or informative abstracts (Castello et al., 2009) that extend these titles. For example:

“English for the Workplace in the Omani Socio-cultural Context”[Abstract: “One major objective of Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) is to continuously develop its human resources by offering training programs of different types to ensure staff retention, motivation and job satisfaction. Since instruction in the English language for non-academic staff has always been considered essential in SQU, the Language Centre has been involved in offering English courses to staff at different periods in the history of the university. The aim of this paper is to describe the process of program and course design for a 3-proficiency level course offered to staff in spring 2009. The chapter will elucidate the history of the course, describe how the needs analysis was conducted, and how the information gleaned from the analysis was utilized in the course. This is done with the hope that the systematic process followed in the course design will guide other institutions which plan to offer English courses for their staff”].

This abstract contains 150 words that describe and accurately detail the content of the academic text and the subject of the research, thus increasing the chances of the accurate and precise recognition of the topic and the main ideas of the text by the readers. The structure is very clear and states the purpose of the research, describes its main ideas and presents “new” knowledge in a clear way. This “new” knowledge can be viewed as a set of ideas about innovative approaches to language education and pedagogy in Oman. These ideas reflect both educational values and traditions that have been established in the local academic community of language educators, and individual social and cultural experience (Tuzlukova, 2001) of the authors of the text.

#### IV. LINGUISTIC PREREQUISITES OF ENGLISH ACADEMIC TEXTS

From the perspectives of the academic discourse, academic texts on language education and pedagogy reflect values that transcend national boundaries, such as the creation of new knowledge, precision, honoring fellow members of the academy and persuasion in a very wide sense (Flottum, Dahl & Kinn, 2006, p.220). Nevertheless, cultural identities in English academic texts on language teaching are language and discipline specific (Flottum, 2007). Functioning as media of educational knowledge transfer, they serve to clearly and adequately describe the local educational phenomena, processes and experiences, to better communicate with each other in global educational space and, as a consequence, to make it possible for the local educators and researchers to acquire deserved scientific merit and social significance. In this respect, language plays a pivotal role in communicating information and experiences, regulating, organizing and adapting them to global and local educational contexts (Tuzlukova, 2001).

Language as a system of communication (see: <http://www.ldoceonline.com/Linguistics-topic/language> for more information) has a complex structure of interacting and interrelated elements and subsystems that have quite complex internal organization (Shvedova, 1988, p.153). Research indicates that academic texts use a variety of stylistically colored lexical units, for example, expressions that qualify what is said, identify the degree of the author’s attitude (strength/weakness), involvement, decisions about stances on a particular subject or claims made (Castello et al., 2009), e.g. “The third step is carrying out the change plan and the fourth is looking back at the offering and evaluating it but *most importantly to use the evaluation results to further inform and refine* the professional development design and process”. “This is reflected in their limited world knowledge and *may be accounted for in part* by being an oral culture rather than a reading culture”. “However, *one conclusion that may be drawn* is that none of the current teaching materials covers the learning outcomes mostly or completely”.

Academic texts on language learning and pedagogy also utilize words and phrases with metaphoric meanings that refer to sets of “correspondences between two distinct domains” (Herrmann, 2013) and can be enjoyed by the readers who are not professionally involved in education, e.g. “Pros and cons of *integrating* culture in EFL/ESL”. “Higher education institutions are also expected to have appropriate internal quality controls for assessment processes such as moderation, double marking and a *transparent* appeals process for students”.

Terminology is another feature of the language of the academic texts on language education and pedagogy. Similar to technical vocabulary in other specialized texts, that typically covers around 5% of the running words in texts and are of high frequency in specialized texts and subject areas (Chung & Nation, 2003), terminology on language education and pedagogy occurs frequently in the academic texts on language education and pedagogy. Flowerdew (1993) argues that some words which are typically high frequency words or academic words can function as technical words in certain fields (cited in Chung & Nation, 2003).

Terminology on language education and pedagogy features diverse structure. To exemplify: most of the terms identified in the corpus can be divided into five groups: root words (e.g. unit, approach, method, principle, test, error, mark, grade, etc.); derivatives (e.g. eclectic, cognitivism, behaviourism, self-assessment, self-evaluation, tester, etc.); abbreviations (e.g. basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), English language teaching (ELT), etc.); compound terms (e.g. suggestopedia, test-taking, audiolingualism, etc.) and terminological collocations, (e.g. computer-assisted language learning, culture-based educational approach, autonomous learner, etc.). These groups can be supported by the following examples from the corpus: [“One comes across recurring *errors* of interference at grammatical level when Arab learners speak or write English”. “These criteria are given to students at the beginning of the course and their intended purpose is to facilitate students’ *self-assessment* during individual meetings with teachers”. “Such a view, thus, considers the use of *test-taking* strategies as a sign of tactics to



go around proficiency deficiencies or test-takers' lack of skills or knowledge that the test is supposed to measure". "LC students have a Student Resource Centre at their disposal, which consists of a library with a variety of supplementary language activities such as graded readers and phonics-based reading kits, listening materials and computer labs equipped with *computer-assisted language learning* (CALL) programs open for daily access."].

Most terminological collocations are substantive collocations that designate a noun or noun equivalent and have an adjective as a dependent component (e.g. Approach: creative; initial; combined; hybrid; gradual; more reflective; current; effective; mixed method; consistent; theoretical, etc.). For example: ["An introspective review of the current strategy for English assessment at a few higher education institutions is attempted from a critical viewpoint to unearth how far it is in tune with the latest *theoretical approaches* to language testing/assessment and how far it is relevant to ensure the proposed learning outcomes"]. Another noun can also function as the dependent component of the terminological collocations as in, for example, *course design, program design, syllabus design, needs analysis, performance objectives, background knowledge, study skills, word association, jigsaw activities, information transfer, language education, true-false statement, problem solving, role play, lesson planning, classroom monitoring* ["This has led to standardizing English *language education* along with subjects like mathematics, computing and general *study skills* at all levels in university education by evolving a General Foundation Program by all Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs)."].

In the academic texts on language education and pedagogy the terminology appears to be dependent on a multitude of linguistic (e.g. interaction with other language subsystems: academic words, low frequency words, new terms, etc.) and extra linguistic factors (e.g. need to be consistent with local and global educational values and standards; need to be familiar with fundamental educational ideas and new approaches and paradigms in language education, e.g. computer-assisted language learning; mobile learning, etc.; need to insure the terminological support for the processes of educational communication (Ahmad, 1996). These factors have impact on how the terminology functions and develops.

The list of the distinct characteristics of the terminology is not constant either (Arzikulov, 1980, p.14-15). However, the analysis of the corpus of the academic texts on language education and pedagogy reveals that one of the most important features of the terminology is that they represent their meanings in the system of the educational concepts (Akhmanova, 1966, p.467) that are "important for the message of the text" (Chung & Nation, 2003). According to Flowerdew (1992 cited in Chung & Nation, 2003), the writers deliberately provide contextual clues to help readers manage new terminology. These clues "attach" the terms to the domain on language education and pedagogy. They also insure communicating new ideas and approaches, and bring individual local educational cultures closer together. For example, academic texts on language education and pedagogy published by the scholars in Oman include a wide range of terms on didactics and teaching methodology. Using the classification by Kolesnikova and Dolgina (2001), the following groups of terms on didactics and teaching methodology are identified:

1) terms that refer to methods and approaches of English language teaching (*approach, direct method, the silent way, natural method, the oral approach, etc.*), e.g. ["During Phase III, a hybrid *approach* was developed, entailing an initial emphasis on BICS, followed by gradual introduction of ESP and with it, the skills necessary for CALP." "The integrated skills *approach* adopted by the LC assumes that "the various skills components in a language curriculum are closely intertwined and complement each one another" (Al-Mahrooqi, 2008, p. ii)].

2) terms that refer to the development of standards and programs (*curriculum, content, threshold level, negotiated syllabus, course design, etc.*), e.g. ["As a consequence, the initial Foundation curriculum placed considerable effort on BICS, specifically on improving the general reading and writing skills of students, as well as reformulating speaking skills to those of spoken interaction." "At the same time, 24 teachers (64%) did not feel that the FPEL grammar syllabus was adequate in terms of students' grammar needs (Item 10)."].

3) terms that refer to different types of speech activities (*guided reading, speaking, interactional speech, writing, study writing, etc.*), e.g. ["At present, the majority of activities which complement those in the classroom are mainly reading and writing centered, for example, an independent study project, a newspaper article project, or readers". "There is a strong emphasis on speaking skills among the other skills, particularly on engaging in conversation, participating in discussions and making presentations."].

4) terms that refer to the typology of exercises, activities and tasks (*exercise, technique, lead-in activities, tune-in activities, split dialogue, etc.*), e.g. ["The intent of such exercises is to make the learner produce the sounds through imitation and drill". "This website has a collection of English vocabulary word lists and very challenging online activities."].

5) terms that refer to different stages and components of the educational processes in English language and pedagogy (*classroom management, authentic materials, course book, seating arrangement, etc.*), e.g. ["According to Tomlinson (2008), the selection of a suitable course book becomes complicated because a number of factors like finding units of similar lengths, finding a format make timetabling, teacher allocation and class preparation easier". The teachers, who usually supplement the course they teach, use authentic materials, reading and/or listening texts, and explanations, and exercises."].

6) terms that refer to testing and assessment (*assessment, non-referenced test, criterion-referenced test, oral interview, test patterns, etc.*), e.g. ["The disparity in assessment patterns pose practical hurdles for those students who transfer from one institution to another, either in the middle/end of the course". "So measures may be taken to devise

and introduce an ideal framework and to outline it in OAS at the earliest as uniformity in testing strategies can unify and add productively to ELT practices in the country.”].

Each of these groups is not homogeneous in composition. For example, the terms on language education and pedagogy that refer to methods and approaches include several subgroups of terms (Kolesnikova & Dolgina, 2001). The terminology subgroups that were identified in our corpus include:

(a) “General concepts” (*approach, method, principle, etc.*), e.g. [“The principle inherent in the design and implementation of a language course is that language development involves active, purposeful, and realistic engagement of the learner with the language. Language is learned as it is used.”].

(b) “Language teaching approach(es)” (*behaviorism, cognitive approach, humanistic approach, learner-centered approach, top-down approach, product-oriented approach, integrated approach, process-oriented approach, eclecticism, etc.*), e.g. [“Though this controlled approach seems indispensable for students who are less eager to engage in independent learning, it should be viewed as a transitional temporary stage towards a more learner-centered approach”. “Thus, they may tend to practice teacher-centered approaches even though they still believe in the value of learner autonomy.”].

(c) “Language teaching methods” (*grammar-translation method, mim-mem method, structural-global method, mixed method, situational language teaching, audiovisual method, direct method, etc.*), e.g. [“One of the advantages of the mixed method is that using different approaches to focus on the same phenomenon allows the researcher to get superior evidence for the result”.].

(d) “Fringe/alternative methods” (*community language learning (CLL), counseling learning, suggestopedia, Lozanov method, the silent way, total physical response (TPR), etc.*), e.g. [“Students identified as needing English language support are taught in their subject-specific classes: the “push-in” or “team-teaching” method.”]. This subgroup also includes terms and terminological collocations on language education and pedagogy that support “learning in an environment that incorporates native language, culture and traditions” (Neally, 2008), e.g. *culture-based approach, culturally based teaching, etc.* The identified terminological collocations with the component “culture-based” have positive semantic prosody by associating with its strong connotation, “projecting their connotations and evaluating meaning on the surrounding context” (Boulten, Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jouvet, 2012, p.7). To exemplify: “Even though a culture-based approach is becoming more popular in language education, the perception of this approach, which exists both among the teaching community and the community of learners in the context of English language teaching and learning in Oman, is still not clear”.

(e) “New developments in language teaching” (*computer assisted language learning (CALL), consciousness-raising approach (CRA), data-driven learning (DDL), task-based learning (TBL), etc.*), e.g. [“Part 4 of the book addresses the area of independent and computer assisted language learning in Oman”. “Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is an effective method of instruction for teaching pronunciation, making pronunciation sound clearer and better articulated.”].

Terms and terminological collocations serve to explore the local educational cultures and identify “locally specific educational values, traditions, paradigms and approaches” (Tuzlukova, 2001). Al-Issa (2011) argues that ELT education systems in the GCC States have suffered from various weaknesses and problems pertinent, but not limited to the following areas: male student teachers’ reluctance to embrace ELT as a career; rift between school outcomes and the labour market; time allocated to ELT on the national curriculum; teaching Maths and Science through English; material and textbook selection and design; computer-assisted language learning; teachers professional development; assessment policy and practice; teacher training and education; classroom management issues; content-based instruction; extra curricula activities; teaching the four skills; independent learning; teaching vocabulary; task-based teaching; teachers’ workload; student motivation; teaching grammar; nationalizing ELT; teaching spelling; critical thinking; culture in ELT; private lessons; error analysis; lesson plan; homework; class size, etc. (pp.66-67). However, they most of these concepts are represented by terms and terminological collocations that describe the existing practice of English language teaching in Oman. For example: [“These issues led us to believe that the current portfolio practices in the FPEL do not sufficiently engage students with reflective and *critical thinking* tasks”. “The purpose of semi-structured interviews was to elicit from teachers and students alike their views on the current situation, to identify the gaps the way they see it and to voice their concerns with regard to *teaching grammar* in the FPEL”. “The development of national standards for general English foundation programs in Oman and the requirements needed to meet those standards have had a significant implication for the *professional development of teachers*.”]. One of the extensively researched areas is related to culture in English language teaching in Oman. This can be exemplified by the terminological collocation with “culture” component that are quite frequently used in English academic texts on language education and pedagogy: a) cultural awareness that refers to sensitivity to the impact of culturally induced behavior on language use and communication; b) cultural integration that refers to increasing integration of the different cultures found throughout the world; c) culturally appropriate materials that refer to materials that are sensitive to the concerned culture do not offend or embarrass people who belong to that culture; c) culture-based approach that refers to an educational approach that aims to instill new cultural values and to give the students a sense of involvement and ownership in an environment, which incorporates native language, culture and traditions (Al-Mahrooqi et Tuzlukova, 2010, p.349). For example: [“To accomplish these objectives, L2 learners need a teacher who could build up their cultural sensitivity and cultural

awareness of the foreign culture”. “The Arabic language as the heritage language of SQU students is the essence of their national and cultural identity, while English, as the most widely used world language, is also important in the educational philosophy in Oman in general and at the SQU in particular.”].

In addition to describing the processes of language teaching and learning, terms and terminological collocations on language education and pedagogy also serve to explain the conditions under which these processes can be successfully implemented. For example, one of the most important recent educational reforms in Oman aimed at ensuring quality higher education was the adoption of the General Foundation Program (GFP) that included English language component. Hence, for example, the terminological collocation “*The Foundation Program English Language*” and abbreviation “*FPEL*” that describe the existing socio-cultural context of language education and pedagogy in Oman and communicate it to local and global educational communities as in [“They commented that the current FPEL portfolio format seems too restricted and does not give students enough choice with regards to the content”. “One of the most significant findings of the survey was that teachers in the FPEL prioritize student needs and motivation over other factors like outcomes, materials or the pacing schedule when planning lessons and teaching.”].

## V. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed some structural, stylistic and lexical characteristics of the English academic texts on language education and pedagogy illustrated by the corpus of texts published in Oman. The discussion has emphasized that these characteristics reflect contemporary communications in the global educational space aimed at disseminating “different ways of seeing” (Humes, 2000, p.39); sharing experience, knowledge, ideas generated by the local educational communities and “appreciating and building on various elements of every text’s cultural potential” (Golubkins, 2002, p.5), and have both individual/local and internationally recognized common features. Further study of the English academic texts on language education and pedagogy could address issues which have not yet been clarified in local contexts of language learning and pedagogy, namely issues related to their extra-linguistic characteristics in terms of dialectic construction of academic discourse and knowledge production practices (Motta-Roth, 2009, p.333) and sharing these with the global community of educators and pedagogues.

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# Iranian EFL Students' Listening Comprehension Problems

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**Abstract**—English as a Foreign Language (EFL) listening skill is considered a problematic skill particularly in a foreign language context where practice opportunities are limited. This study aimed to explore the listening comprehension problems of a group of EFL learners. Survey method was followed to collect data from a group of Iranian tertiary level EFL learners (n = 100) using the Listening Comprehension Processing Problems Questionnaire. The results indicated that the learners experienced moderate to high levels of difficulty in all three categories of listening comprehension problems, namely perception, parsing, and utilization. The findings are expected to have useful implications for syllabus designers and teachers who intend to address the listening comprehension problems of EFL learners.

**Index Terms**—EFL language teaching and learning, listening skills, listening problems

## I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is one of the most difficult skills for foreign language learners due to the complexity of its process and different types of knowledge required for successful listening (Field, 2008b; Graham & Macaro, 2008). Moreover, as Graham (2006, p. 178) alluded "many learners see themselves as less successful in listening than in other language areas" like reading due to some uncontrollable facts like "the speed of delivery of texts" and "the speaker's accent" (Graham, 2006, pp. 174-175).

In Iran, English is commonly learned as a foreign language. Before they enter university, students learn English for six years during guidance school and high school. The primary focus of the English courses that these students experience is on language structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and translation skills. Listening is neglected in the syllabus. As a result, when these learners are suddenly exposed to audio material at university level, they face a lot of difficulties before they develop the essential listening skills. This necessitates research on the listening problems of these learners. The purpose of this paper is therefore diagnosing the listening problems of a group of tertiary level students in English Language and Literature departments of four universities in Khorasan Razavi Province, Iran.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is divided into two parts. The first section reviews the available literature on the way scholars in the area of language teaching classify L2 learners' listening problems. The second part is a review of a few studies that explored these learners' listening problems.

### A. Classification of L2 Learners' Listening Problems

Second or foreign language learners may encounter a wide variety of problems in listening comprehension. Different researchers have focused on various problems and shown a wide range of listening challenges for foreign or second language learners (Goh, 2000; Liu, 2002). Listening comprehension problems refer to all the difficulties that may occur during the three phases of perception, parsing, and utilization (Anderson, 1995; Goh, 2000, Vandergrift, 2003). Figure 1 presents the three phases in which listening problems can be categorized. As the figure shows, these phases are non-linear and inter-related. Due to the nature of listening, a listener may have to move focus from one phase to another in order to be able to decode the message.

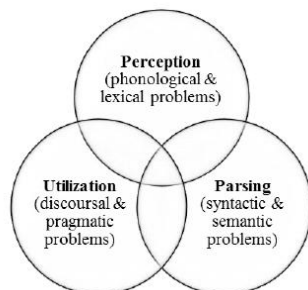


Figure 1. A Taxonomy of Listening Comprehension Problems (Adapted from Anderson, 1995; Goh, 2000, Vandergrift, 2003)

Perception problems are related to listeners' inability to distinguish the sounds and words in a stream of speech (Field, 2008b). Phonological and lexical problems are two different types of challenges that listeners face during the phase of perception. Phonological problems cover learners' difficulty in understanding intonation, stress, and different accents (Ur, 1984). Such problems are commonly related to listeners' low language proficiency (Goh, 1999). Specific features of informal conversation such as hesitations, interruption, recurrent pauses and overlaps, as well as constant changes in the rhythm of speech pose serious problems for EFL listeners (Goh, 1999). Problems such as high speech rate and unfamiliar prosody reportedly affect learners' comprehension of video texts (Cross, 2009a).

Goh (2000, p. 59) identified ten L2 listening problems five of which are related to the perception phase of listening: "Do not recognize words they knew; neglect the next part when thinking about meaning; could not chunk streams of speech; miss the beginning of texts; and concentrate too hard or unable to concentrate".

According to Goh (2000), about half the problems identified occurred in the initial phase of listening, or perception. In the related literature, cliticisation and resyllabification are also mentioned as two phonological problems that listeners should deal with (Cross, 2009b). Cliticisation happens when the pronunciation of an unstressed word is attached to that of a stressed word forming a single accentual unit, as in *tell them*, commonly pronounced as /tel'm/. Because of cliticization, "word boundaries can become blurred" due to the "tendency of the speaker to group syllables together into strong-weak (SW)" (Cross, 2009b, p. 46). For example the phrase "the side" may be misperceived as "decide". In resyllabification, "syllables that carry secondary stress in a word may be incorrectly processed as separate words; i.e., learners insert an imaginary word boundary prior to the syllable with this characteristic" (Cross, 2009b, p. 46). For example, "I scream" will sound like "ice-cream" if it is syllabified as "I s-cream". In the same vein, Field (2008a) mentions reduction, assimilation, elision, resyllabification, and cliticisation as systematic variations in connected speech that cause a number of potential impediments to L2 listeners' lexical segmentation.

As stated by Cross (2009b) the most important problems for second language listeners occurred in word recognition. The reason is that "cues in connected speech can often be inconsistent and unreliable for marking word boundaries and the range of conventions which the listener needs to know can be broad" (Rost, 2005 as cited in Cross, 2009b, p.34). Similarly, Field (2003, p. 329) suggests various problems in word recognition such as "reduction, assimilation, elision, resyllabification, and cliticisation".

In addition to phonological problems, L2 learners may face lexical problems in perception phase.

Vocabulary repertoire is found to be strongly correlated with listening, as it is the case in reading (Milton, Wade and Hopkins, 2010). It is claimed that readers and listeners should recognize 50% of the words in a text and use them unconsciously in order to understand it (Paran, 1996). Cross (2009b, p. 47) refers to deficient vocabulary knowledge as a textual listening problem in which known words are matched instead of the actual words that are mostly "idiomatic language, proper nouns, and low frequency words". Foreign or second language learners who are mostly exposed to formal language encounter difficulties during listening to "idioms, slang, and reduced forms" (Brown, 2001, p. 253). A person needed around six thousand to seven thousand vocabularies to understand ninety-eight percent of the authentic discourse (Nation, 2006). However, Bonk (2000) found that lexical knowledge has no effect on listening comprehension. As he stated "on some occasions examinees were nonetheless able to achieve good comprehension with a lexical knowledge of only 75% whereas others cannot achieve this level of comprehension even with 100% of lexical knowledge" (Bonk, 2000, p.24). Bonk attributes this to the "students' sophisticated use of coping strategies" (Bonk, 2000, p.27), but Stæhr (2008) questions the methodology that was limited to dictation and recall protocols as the only data collection methods used in Bonk's (2000) study to assess learners' word knowledge and to measure their listening comprehension, respectively.

Parsing is the next major phase in the cognitive processing in L2 listening comprehension. The problems that the learner may face during parsing are commonly syntactic and semantic. Syntactic problems may involve: (1) quickly forgetting what is heard, (2) failure in forming a mental representation from words heard, and (3) not understanding the subsequent parts of input because of earlier problems (Goh, 2000).

Semantic problems occur when learners are preoccupied with the meaning of certain words that may be redundant; and thus, they miss the other parts of the message because of the limited processing capacity in their short term memory and shallow processing (Goh, 1999).

Utilization is the final phase in the cognitive processing of L2 listening comprehension. The problems faced by L2 learners during this phase are typically pragmatic and discorsal in nature. "Pragmatic competence refers to the ability to communicate meaning in a socially appropriate manner and to interpret meaning—whether explicit or implicit—on the basis of context" (Thomas, 1995 as cited in Taguchi, 2008, p.424). "It entails the ability to control the complex interplay of language, language users, and the context of language use" (Kasper, 1992; Mey, 1993; Thomas, 1983, 1995 as cited in Taguchi, 2008, p. 424). An example of this ability is to know which linguistic means are used to communicate meaning indirectly through everyday interactions. "To become pragmatically competent, one needs to be linguistically competent and able to both assess contextual information and use linguistic resources appropriately according to context" (Taguchi, 2008, p. 425). Pragmatic problems will rise when listeners understand the meaning of words but fail to realize their intended meaning. Discorsal problems occur when the listener is unable to understand the flow of ideas in connected speech. For example, when learners fail to recognize the overall organization of the ideas in a text, they have discorsal problems. Gruba (1997) and Ockey (2007) maintain that focusing on rhetorical signaling cues can help listeners understand the discorsal features of the text they are listening to. For instance, a competent listener would recognize the cue, "Let me put it in another way!" as a clarification signal.

#### *B. Studies on L2 Learners' Listening Problems*

There are a few studies seeking to diagnose ESL/EFL learners' listening problems that are reviewed in this section. Goh (2000) conducted a study through diaries, semi-structured interviews, and recall protocols on the online listening problems of Chinese less skilled listeners of English as a second language based on Anderson's (1995) cognitive model of listening. The problems that she found included: recognizing words, chunking, missing the beginning of the text, and concentration (related to perception phase); quick forgetting of what was heard and hence the inability in forming a mental representation of the input (related to parsing); and understanding the words and not the intended message (related to utilization).

Another study was conducted by Hassan (2000) in an EFL context through a questionnaire to determine students' self-perceived listening problems. The identified problems were "missing parts of the text, not recognizing words, problems resulting from unclear pronunciation and rapid speech rate" (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 194).

Furthermore, Liu (2002) conducted a study through semi-structured interviews, questionnaire survey, partial transcription, and introspection to determine online processing problems in listening comprehension and the role of compensatory schema use in solving them. The problems that the participants had included: (i) unfamiliar vocabulary, (ii) sound segmentation and word recognition, and (iii) over-reliance on phonetic cues.

Speech rate is also considered a major problem for L2 learners (Goh, 1999; Flowerdew and Miller, 1992). In Goh's (1999) study, 78% of the participants and almost all of Flowerdew and Miller's participants in both interviews and diaries reported that their main problem was the fast English speech rate.

### III. OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is an attempt to examine the Iranian tertiary level EFL learners' listening comprehension problems in the three listening components: perception, parsing and utilization; to meet this objective the following research questions were addressed:

1. What level of perceptual processing listening comprehension problems do Iranian tertiary level EFL learners have?
2. What level of parsing listening comprehension problems do Iranian tertiary level EFL learners have?
3. What level of utilization listening comprehension problems do Iranian tertiary level EFL learners have?

### IV. METHOD

Quantitative method was followed to answer the research question. Survey method was used to collect the data.

#### *A. Participants*

The data were collected from Iranian tertiary level first-year EFL learners (n = 100). The respondents were selected randomly from three universities in Mashhad, Iran. The participants were 70% female with minimum and maximum ages of 19 to 23. Their major was English.

#### *B. Instrument*

The instrument that was used for collecting data was a questionnaire, called the Listening Comprehension Processing Problems Questionnaire (henceforth LCPQ). The detailed information about the validation and the developing process of LCPQ has been presented in Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and Zareian (2014). In a nutshell, the instrument was developed based on the related literature and theory (e.g., Anderson, 1995; Goh, 2000; and Liu, 2002). The questionnaire was then validated by a panel of experts (n = 7) and field-tested on a sample representing the main respondents of the present study. The final questionnaire had 23 items and a five-point Likert scale (1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, and 5= always). The first 10 items dealt with perception problems. To offer an example, one of the items concerned with concentration problems that may lead to the listener's missing the beginning of the text. Items 11 to 17 covered the parsing problems, such as the student's inability in dividing the long sentences into different

parts. Finally, items 18 to 23 elicited information on the respondents' utilization problems, like their failure to understand the intended message. An acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficient (0.80) was obtained for the internal reliability of the questionnaire.

### C. Data Collection Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to 100 learners to determine their listening comprehension problems. Before administering the questionnaires, the respondents carried out a listening activity so that they could base their responses to the questionnaire on a real listening task (Vandergrift et al., 2006). At the beginning, the significance of the study was presented to the students by one of the researchers. Moreover, the related questions to LCPQ raised by the students were answered by her. Then, the LCPQ were administered among the respondents to be accomplished. All these procedures took approximately 60 minutes and the response rate was 100%. (as cited in Nowrouzi et al, 2014).

### D. Data Analysis Procedure

Descriptive statistical methods like frequency, percentage, means, and standard deviations were followed for analyzing the data using SPSS (Version 16). In this study, the 33rd percentile was regarded as the cut-off point between 'low' and 'moderate' levels of listening problems. The 67th percentile was considered the cut-off between 'moderate' and 'high' levels. Therefore, a mean of 1.65 (upon 5) or below was considered a 'low' level of listening problems; a mean ranging between 1.66 and 3.35 was regarded as 'moderate'; and finally, a mean of 3.36 or higher was reported as a 'high' level of listening problems.

## V. RESULTS

The results are presented and discussed in the order of the research questions, which categorized listening comprehension problems into the three cognitive stages of perception, parsing, and utilization.

### A. Perception Problems

In this section, the results pertaining to perception problems (items 1 to 10) in LCPQ are presented (Table 1).

TABLE I.  
PERCEPTION PROBLEMS

Item	Mean	SD	Level*
1: Hearing Sounds but not Clear Words	3.68	.66	High
2: Fast Speech Rate	3.81	.64	High
3: Missing the Beginning of the Text	3.20	.96	Moderate
4: Knowing the Meaning of a Word When Seeing it	3.27	.86	Moderate
5: Slow in Recalling the Meaning of Familiar Words	2.79	.94	Moderate
6: Mistaking one Word for another	3.50	.78	High
7: Too Many Unfamiliar Words or Expressions	3.43	.83	High
8: Not Recognizing so many Sound and Words	3.22	.85	Moderate
9: Missing the Next Part of the Text while Thinking about the Meaning	3.63	.66	High
10: Difficulty in Concentration	3.08	.91	Moderate
Total	3.37	.80	High

\*Means values  $\leq 1.65$  (low), 1.66-3.35 (moderate); and  $\geq 3.36$  (high) levels of listening problems

As it can be seen, the Learners have reported experiencing moderate or high levels of listening problems in all areas of perception: concentration, sounds (fast speech rate that leads to missing the beginning of the text, knowing the meaning of a word when seeing it, and too many sounds) and in words (not hearing clear words, mistaking words for each other, too many unfamiliar words, missing the next parts while thinking about the earlier sections), and not remembering the meaning of familiar words.

### B. Parsing Problems

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations and levels of parsing problems experienced by the students.

TABLE II.  
PARSING PROBLEMS

Item	Mean	SD	Level*
11: Forgetting Words or Phrases Just Heard	3.12	.83	Moderate
12: Not Understanding the Meaning of Sentences	2.58	.91	Moderate
13: Difficulty in Dividing Long Sentences into Several Parts	3.47	.82	High
14: Difficulty in Guessing the Accurate Meaning of Words in Sentences	3.43	.76	High
15: Difficulty in Following Unfamiliar Topics	3.60	.81	High
16: Difficulty in Understanding a lot of New Information in a Short Time	3.24	.80	Moderate
17: Missing the Next Parts Because of Earlier Problems	3.27	.76	Moderate
Total	3.24	.81	Moderate

\*Means values  $\leq 1.65$  (low), 1.66-3.35 (moderate); and  $\geq 3.36$  (high) levels of listening problems



Based on the above table, the learners' reports implied moderate to high levels of difficulty regarding the parsing problems, including topic unfamiliarity, sentential level problems, and too much information to process except a lower level of problem in understanding the meaning of sentences.

### C. Utilization Problems

The six utilization problems (items 18-23) in the questionnaire are mostly related to the general message of the text, the main ideas in it with the related supporting details, the relationship among these ideas, and their order. The results related to utilization problems are displayed in Table 3.

TABLE III.  
UTILIZATION PROBLEMS

Item	Mean	SD	Level*
18: Understanding Words but not the Intended Message	2.97	.75	Moderate
19: Difficulty in Getting the Order of Ideas in a Text	3.05	.74	Moderate
20: Getting Confused about the Main Idea	2.82	.73	Moderate
21: Difficulty in Getting the Details	3.50	.71	High
22: Difficulty in Getting the relationships among Ideas	3.60	.72	High
23: Difficulty in Getting the Supporting Ideas	3.73	.73	High
Total	3.27	.73	Moderate

\*Means values  $\leq 1.65$  (low), 1.66-3.35 (moderate); and  $\geq 3.36$  (high) levels of listening problems

As displayed in this table, it can be seen that the learners have lower levels of problem in getting the main ideas, the intended message, and the order of ideas, but high levels in getting the details, the supporting ideas, and the relationships among them.

The questionnaire findings on problems, as summarized in Table 4, show that out of the 23 processing problems, the learners have moderate to high degrees of difficulty while listening to texts in English (Table 4).

TABLE IV.  
A SUMMARY OF EFL LEARNERS' LEVELS OF LISTENING PROCESSING PROBLEMS

Problem	Mean	Level*
Perception	3.37	High
Parsing	3.24	Moderate
Utilization	3.27	Moderate

\*Means values  $\leq 1.65$  (low), 1.66-3.35 (moderate); and  $\geq 3.36$  (high) levels of listening problems

## VI. DISCUSSION

The present results are almost similar to those of the previous studies. Goh's (2000) sample similarly were found to have listening problems of all three categories; i.e., perception, parsing, and utilization. Likewise, the participants in Hassan (2000) and Liu's (2002) studies exhibited difficulties in perception and parsing.

As one of the components of perception problems, high speech rate was reportedly perceived as the greatest problems by the learners in Goh (1999) as well as Flowerdew and Miller's (1992) studies. Likewise, based on the results of the present study, the item on 'fast speech rate' obtained the highest mean, indicating that what L2 learners fear most is native speakers' high speed of talking. This can be attributed to the fact that English is a stress-timed language and the presentation rate is too fast for those whose native language is syllable-timed (Griffith, 1991) namely for Chinese (Lin & Wang, 2006) and Iranians (Hall, 2007). With regard to this problem, Brown (2001, p. 254) posits "since English is a stress timed language, English speech can be a terror for some learners as mouthfuls of syllables come spilling out between stress points". According to him, intonation patterns are important for understanding "questions, statements, emphasis, sarcasm, endearment, insult, solicitation, praise, etc." (Brown, 2001, p. 254). Reduced forms such as "Djeetyet? for Did you eat yet?" also pose difficulty for foreign language learners (Brown, 2001, p. 253).

Another problem that was rated as a major difficulty by the majority of the participants in this study was the lexical problems, a subcategory of perception problems. 'Mistaking one word for another' is an example of such problems, which may be caused by homophonic forms such as reign/rain and lain/lane that should be resolved by reference to the context (Boersma & Cutler, 2008). Understanding the linguistic context in audio materials is what most foreign language learners find relatively difficult. Students' homophonic form problem is also called "scaling-up" problem (Bradlow, 2007 as cited in Boersma & Cutler, 2008, p. 23) in which "phoneme perception performance often mismatches with listening performance in real speech, in both directions: poor phonetic discrimination with good sentence-level performance, or good discrimination in phonetic-level tasks with poor performance on word recognition involving the same contrasts".

## VII. CONCLUSION

The data collected by the listening comprehension problems questionnaire reveal that Iranian tertiary level first-year EFL learners' listening problems can be categorized into three types in relation to the three phases of listening

comprehension: perception, parsing, and utilization. The most dominant problems were distraction and missing or misperceiving sounds and words related to perception, chunking difficulties and sentence forgetting concerned with parsing and confusion about the main idea pertaining to utilization.

This study has pedagogical implications. Based on the results, the participants in the present study suffered almost equally from all three categories of problems. This means that in L2 listening courses perception, parsing, and utilization problems should be emphasized equally. Due to the primary importance of perception and parsing problems, equally important areas of difficulty like pragmatic and discoursal problems can be neglected. Material developers, syllabus designers and L2 teachers should pay particular attention to learners' utilization problems since owing to their implicit nature it is likely that learners fail to recognize their own pragmatic and discourse problems. Further research is required to explore the strategies that L2 learners employ in dealing with their listening problems.

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# Influence of Differentiated Instruction Workshop on Taiwanese Elementary School English Teachers' Activity Design

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**Abstract**—This study discusses the influence of a differentiated instruction workshop on thirteen Taiwanese elementary school English teachers' activity designs in English lesson plans. Theoretical concepts, lesson demonstration, and hands-on activities on differentiating instruction were provided in the workshops. These English teachers demonstrated the competence and skills in differentiated instruction by designing choices for class activities or homework. However, these English teachers lacked the competence in designing activities for deeper learning objectives, designing diverse instructional strategies or activities, and using simple English to explain the choices.

**Index Terms**—activity design, choice, competence, differentiated instruction, level, workshop

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since 2001 and 2005 academic year, fifth and sixth graders and third through sixth graders in elementary schools in Taiwan have begun to learn English (Ministry of Education, 2001, 2005). The "two-peak phenomenon" or "bimodal distribution" in elementary school English education has been a serious problem in Taiwan. English teachers have to face learners with big English proficiency gaps between those who cannot identify twenty-six alphabet letters to those who can read novels and answer post-reading comprehension questions.

The majority of elementary school English teachers in Taiwan employ the classroom management strategy such as asking the high achievers to help the lower achievers in mixed-level English classes (Chan 2008; Chiu, 2008; Hsu, 2009; Liu, 2008). Differentiated instruction could be one of the instructional strategies to meet the needs of learners at different proficiency levels (Hall, 2009; Logan, 2011; Thousand, Villa, & Nevin, 2007). The English teacher in Chien's (2013) study differentiated her English instruction in terms of content, process, and product through choice boards and Question, Answer Relationship (QAR).

Support for teachers to meet learners with different needs must be provided through professional development (Frieberg, 2002; McNaughton, Hall, & Maccini, 2001). Professional development for elementary school English teachers should focus on differentiated instruction in Taiwan. This study discusses the influence of differentiated instruction workshops on thirteen Taiwanese elementary school English teachers' activity design in English lesson plans. Suggestions on effective design and delivery of professional development on differentiated instruction for elementary school English teachers' are provided.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review focuses on teachers' perception of differentiated instruction and professional development on differentiated instruction.

### A. Teachers' Perceptions of Differentiated Instruction

Meeting the needs of diverse students has been regarded as one of the challenges that most teachers face in the classroom, because teachers claim that they lack the knowledge and skills in adapting the curriculum material for learners' different learning styles and academic performance (Greenwood, Kamps, Terry, & Linebarger, 2007; Tobin & Tippett, 2013; Tomlinson, 2003). McGarvey, Marriot, Morgan, and Abbott (1997) discovered that fewer than half the teachers provided class activities to meet students' wide range of abilities. Tomlinson (1999) explained why teachers, particularly novice teachers, have challenges in designs and deliver differentiated instruction as follows:

Once in their own classrooms, the undertow for new teachers to "teach to the middle" is profound, both because of the complexity of teaching and because of peer pressure to conform to the "the way we do school here". The few novice teachers who had [master teachers who differentiated instruction] were far more likely to do this in their first teaching placement than their classmates (p. 115).

Teachers in Tomlinson's (1995) study felt reluctant to implement differentiated instruction because they considered differentiated instruction as just a top-down school policy and fad. They lacked competence in teaching with various

resources and confidence in overseeing multiple activities in class and helping students develop self-management. They had no common definitions of differentiated instruction and needed a model on differentiated instruction.

Teachers in Benjamin (2002) study felt reluctant to differentiate their instruction because of the following five top reasons: “just throwing the baby out with the bathwater,” “abandoning basic skills and trying to reinvent the wheel, but that things cannot be made any better than they already are,” “just another phase and the pendulum will swing the other way soon because the emphasis on testing will not last forever,” and “bringing a horse to water but that one cannot make him drink.”

Corley (2005) identifies three major concerns regarding ineffective implementation of differentiated instruction in the classrooms as follows:

The greatest challenge to implementing differentiated instruction relates to time: the planning time that teachers need to assess learners’ needs, interests, and readiness levels; to determine key concepts and organizing questions; and to design appropriate activities for each learner. The next issue relates to classroom management and the changing role of the teacher from dispenser of knowledge to facilitator of learning. The third issue concerns the need for teachers to acquire and use strategies that may be new to them (p. 15).

With regard to the instructional strategies related to differentiated instruction, the top strategies that 103 elementary and middle school teachers in the Midwest were knowledgeable were flexible grouping, independent projects/investigations, varied instructional materials, and varying questions (Rodrigue, 2012). By contrary, the top three strategies that teachers were least familiar with were independent study, provisions for student choices, and curriculum compacting. Moreover, while knowledge and experience and availability of materials were identified by the teachers as the key to facilitate the implementation of differentiated instruction within the classroom, availability of materials and amount of planning time needed were the main factors that hinder the use of differentiated instruction.

On the other hand, Kirkley (2005) first thought that applying differentiated instruction as tiring and overwhelming. After conducting an action research on implementing differentiated instruction on reading, Kirkley regarded differentiated instruction as a proactive approach to learning and classroom management. Sixty-four teachers in five primary schools in Scott and Spencer’s (2006) study had a positive attitude toward the adaptive or differentiated teaching practice. In Logan’s (2011) study, 94.3% of 141 surveyed teachers in southeast Georgia responded that they should take learners’ commonalities and differences into consideration when they differentiate their instruction. Process (88.6%) was regarded the top area that these teachers should differentiate their instruction, followed by products/assessments (87.2%) and content and materials (85.8%).

To sum up, when being asked to implement differentiated instruction, most teachers felt reluctant, because they claimed they lacked knowledge, skills, and resources in adapting materials to meet students’ diverse needs. They also doubted they could find the time to plan it. This study discusses the influence of differentiated instruction workshops on Taiwanese English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers’ activity design on differentiated instruction.

#### *B. Professional Development on Differentiated Instruction*

Compared to novice teachers, experienced teachers in Affholder’s (2003) study favored differentiated instruction, because they were familiar with the curriculum they taught and had received extensive training on differentiated instruction before implementing these instructional methods and strategies in the classroom. Teachers in Carolan and Guinn (2007) complained about a lack of professional development on differentiated instruction as one of the reasons for refusing to implement it. Therefore, professional development and training on differentiated instruction are essential for teachers (Blozowich, 2001; Corley, 2005; Haynes, 2011; Hobson, 2008; Holloway, 2000; McAdamis, 2001; Rodrigue, 2012; Subban, 2006). A variety of professional development programs or site-based collaborative learning activities (i.e. learning communities, coaching, mentoring, study groups, workshops, or consultation) are essential to create a shared culture of differentiated instruction (Cusumano & Mueller, 2007; McQuarrie & McBae’s, 2010; National Reading Technical Assistance Center, NRTAC, 2010). Teachers in McQuarrie and McBae’s (2010) study who effectively implemented differentiated instruction in Alberta, Canada concluded that enhanced student learning starts with purposeful and high-quality professional development on differentiated instruction.

To respond to a very culturally, linguistically, and academically diverse student body, professors from a local university provided professional development on differentiated instruction and co-teaching for elementary school teachers in Santamaria and Thousand’s (2004) study in California. Through the collaboration and co-teaching, these teachers applied differentiated instruction to their classroom practice through clarifying key concepts, providing students with choices, engaging students in various learning tasks.

The professional development in Scott and Spencer’s (2006) study included three segments: characteristics of differentiated instruction, strategies for differentiated instruction, and group work on specific strategies for differentiated instruction. The professional development arouse teachers’ positive attitude toward the adaptive or differentiated teaching practice.

Hines (2012), a middle school practitioner, designed and provided a workshop for 72 pre-service middle school teachers in Arkansas. The content of the workshop included the following elements: (1) an explanation of the need for the teachers to develop differentiated instructional teaching skills, (2) techniques on evaluating students’ learning styles, preferences, and abilities, (3) designing tiered lessons for different groups of students with the opportunity to complete different learning activities, (4) creating learning groups in accordance to students’ learning styles, preferences, and

abilities, (5) strategies for evaluating the assessments' alignment with lesson objectives, and (6) observing mentor teachers' implementation of each method of differentiated instruction. Hines (2012) concluded that African-American teachers were concerned the least about differentiated instruction. Hines also suggests that continuous in-service support for developing differentiated instruction teaching skills should be given in order to meet the needs of African-American students.

Tomlinson (1999) made five suggestions for teacher-education programs and school districts for differentiated instruction: (1) have clear expectations for the novice teachers' growth in student-centered and responsive instruction, (2) provide teachers with clear models for differentiated curriculum and instruction, (3) provide teachers with mentoring and help teachers reflect on their learners' needs, (4) make sure that teachers are comfortable in implementing differentiated instruction and strategies and (5) provide novice teachers with partnerships with teachers who employ differentiated instruction (p. 115).

Effective workshops or professional development can help teachers become equipped with the competence and skills to implement differentiated instruction. The above-mentioned studies discuss the designs and delivery of professional development for general education teachers in elementary and middle schools. This study specifically focuses on the knowledge base and skill of differentiated instruction workshops for EFL teachers.

### III. METHOD

This study employs case study and this study analyzes a workshop and English teachers' activity design in natural settings. In this study, the case is a workshop and the unit of analysis is document designed and created in this workshop.

This paper discusses the following two issues: (1) What knowledge base and skills in differentiated instruction were delivered and missed in this workshop? and (2) What knowledge and skills did the English teacher demonstrate and lack when they designed lesson plans and did microteaching?

#### A. *Setting and Participants*

The six additional credits for elementary school English teachers include two courses, "Teaching English Listening and Speaking" and "Teaching English Reading and Writing." The study was conducted during an intensive teacher training Teaching English Listening and Speaking in a consecutive nine-day period, with six hours each day during the summer of 2013.

The participants were thirteen elementary school English teachers in a city in northern Taiwan and they simultaneously enrolled in the Teaching English Listening and Speaking. These English teachers fell into three age groups, below 30 (6 teachers), 40-50 (5 teachers), and over 50 years old (2 teachers). Only one teacher had a master's degree in TESOL and the rest of them had their bachelor's degree in education. With regard to years of English-teaching experience, the minimum and maximum teaching years were 3 and 10, with an average of 4.4 years. With regard to their English teachers' qualification, only one teacher was an English major and the rest of the teachers had taken an elementary school English teacher 20-credit course.

#### B. *Data Collection*

The major data in this study included: (1) PowerPoint slides on differentiated instruction, (2) forty-minute lesson plans, (3) ten-minute microteaching on the lesson plan, and (4) teachers' reflections.

The instructor uploaded the PowerPoint slides and teaching materials on Edmodo. The thirteen participants were invited to join this class space and they were able to upload their assignments to Edmodo and download all the class materials. The thirteen English teachers' ten-minute microteaching was videotaped and transcribed.

On the last day, they were asked to reflect on their own practice on differentiated instruction and answer the following questions: (1) What challenges did you face when you designed and demonstrated this differentiated instruction lesson? (2) How would you revise your lesson to meet students' diverse needs and proficiency levels? and (3) What new insights have you learned about differentiated instruction from the design and delivery of this lesson plan?

#### C. *Data Analysis*

After all the data were collected, typed, and transcribed, the data were analyzed and coded in the following three stages. First, the data were marked with codes (e.g., QAR, choices etc.). Secondly, based on these codes, the data were sorted and labeled with tentative categories (e.g., theories, activities,). Finally, the data were grouped into different themes that were related to the research questions, as in Figure 1. The researcher shared the findings with these thirteen English teachers for member checking and a colleague who is in the field of language teacher education for the validity.

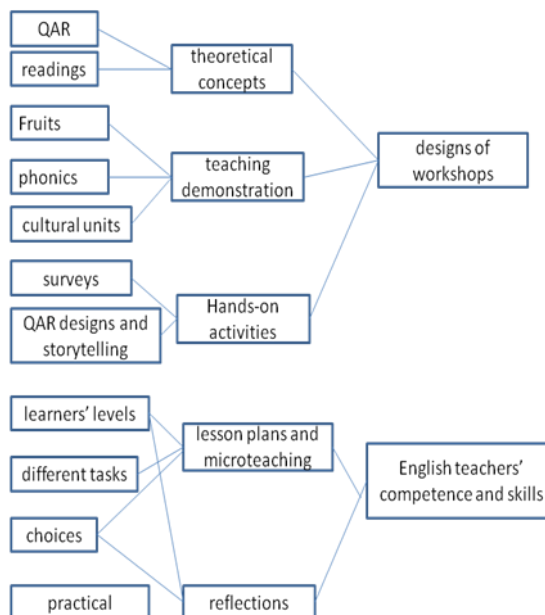


Figure 1. Coding and Data Analysis

IV. RESULTS

The analysis focused on the contents of the differentiated instruction presented in the intensive workshop and thirteen English teachers' lesson plans, microteaching and their reflection on differentiated instruction.

A. Contents of Differentiated Instruction in the Workshop

The contents of differentiated instruction in the workshop included theoretical concepts, teaching demonstration, and hands-on activities.

Theoretical concepts on differentiated instruction and Taffy E. Raphael's (1986) Question, Answer Relationship (QAR) were introduced as in Figure 2 and 3.

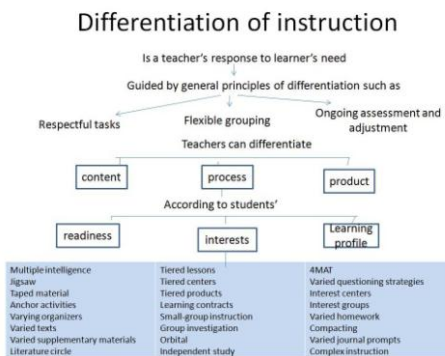


Figure 2. Differentiated Instruction

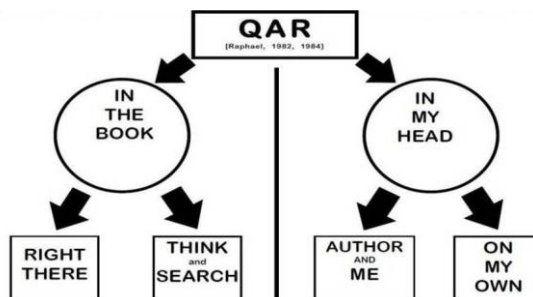


Figure 3. Taffy E. Raphael's (1986) Question, Answer Relationship (QAR)

Moreover, the thirteen participants acquired theoretical concepts on differentiated instructions and QAR through jigsaw readings of the following articles and book summaries, as in Table I.

TABLE I.  
ARTICLES ON DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION AND QAR

Topics	Readings
Differentiated instruction	Blaz, D. (2006). <i>Differentiated instruction: A guide for foreign language teachers</i> . Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education. Chapman, C. & King, R. (2005). <i>Differentiated assessment strategies: One tool doesn't fit it all</i> . Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press. Chapman, C. & King, R. (2008). <i>Differentiated instructional management: Work smarter, not harder</i> . Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press. Gregory, G. H. (2007). <i>Differentiated instructional strategies: One size doesn't fit it all</i> . Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press. Heacox, D. (2002). <i>Differentiating instruction in the regular classroom: How to reach and teach all learners, grades 3-12</i> . Minneapolis, MN : Free Spirit Publication. Kaplan, P., Rogers, V., Webster, R. (2008). <i>Differentiated instruction made easy</i> . San Francisco, CA: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. Kryza, K., Duncan, A., & Stephens, S. J. (2010). <i>Differentiation for real classrooms</i> . Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Tomlinson, C. (1999). <i>Differentiated classroom</i> . Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Turville, J. (2008). <i>Differentiation by student learning preferences: Strategies and lesson plans</i> . Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
QAR	1. Kinniburgh, L. H., & Shaw, E. L. (2009). Using question-answer relationships to build: Reading comprehension in science. <i>Science Activities</i> , 45(4), 19-28 2. Lawrence, K. M. (2002). Red light, green light, 1-2-3: Tasks to prepare for standardized tests. <i>Reading Teacher</i> , 55(6), 525-528. 3. Mesmer, H. A., & Hutchins, E. J. (2002). Using QARs with charts and graphs. <i>Reading Teacher</i> , 56(1), 21-27. 4. Raphael, T. (1986). Teaching question answer relationships, revisited. <i>Reading Teacher</i> , 39(6), 516-522. 5. Raphael, T. E., & Au, K. H. (2005). QAR: Enhancing comprehension and test taking across grades and content areas. <i>Reading Teacher</i> , 59(3), 206-221.

The teacher trainer of this workshop also gave teaching demonstrations on the integration of differentiated instruction in vocabulary instruction on fruits, phonics and riddle books, sports day, Halloween, culture issues (pottery). Table II is the example of Halloween instruction.

TABLE II.  
INTEGRATION OF DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION ON HALLOWEEN

	Objectives	Activities
Whole class instruction	Compare and contrast between Halloween and Ghost Festival	Venn Diagram
Beginners	Name customs on Halloween and Ghost Festival	Listen and Choose "H" or "G" i.e. jack-on-lantern → H
intermediate	Name customs on Halloween and Ghost Festival	Listen and Choose "H" or "G" i.e. We have jack-on-lantern. →H
advanced	Use complete sentences to compare and contrast between Halloween and Ghost Festival	A short paragraph (1) We ___ on Halloween but we ___ on Ghost Festival. (2) We ___ both on Halloween and Ghost Festival.

The teacher trainer also shared the integration of QAR into three picture books David Goes to School, Click Clack Moo Cows That Type, and The Carrot Seed. Table III is an example of David Goes to School.

TABLE III.  
QAR QUESTIONS ON DAVID GOES TO SCHOOL U

Right There 1. Who is the boy? 2. Where is he? 3. What does the teacher ask the boy to do?	Think and Search 1. Is the boy good or bad? Why? 2. What did the boy do in the class?
Author and Me 1. Do you think David Shannon was like that boy in the story? Why or why not? 2. Do you think David's teacher likes David or not?	On my Own 1. Do you like the story? 2. Do you like the boy?

The teacher trainer demonstrated different topics to the thirteen participants in the training center, but not among real elementary school students. One English teacher in this study responded, "It is good to see the teacher trainer's demonstration. However, it would be better if the teacher trainer could demonstrate the lesson among elementary school students." Another teacher said, "It's summer vacation, so the teacher trainer cannot demonstrate the lesson among elementary school students. But perhaps the teacher trainer could show us a video of the real differentiated instruction."

The field-based evidence of implementation of differentiated instruction should be included in professional development or workshops held by language teacher education programs or school districts (Nazzal, 2011; Whipple, 2012). Nazzal (2011) claims, "Teacher education programs should include 'real world' examples of how to implement



differentiation. Examples include how to develop a learning/interest center when there is little room in the classroom” (p. 24). Moreover, mentors or expert teachers can be invited to model differentiation in real language classrooms.

Different hands-on activities were designed to help the thirteen English teachers learn differentiated instruction and QAR. Before the concepts of differentiated instruction were introduced, they were asked to write down their answers to the following question “What comes to your mind when you hear differentiated instruction?” Nine teachers wrote, “I’ve heard about it, but I am not sure” or “I don’t know what differentiated instruction is.” One teacher wrote, “Teach differently? I guess.” Another two teachers wrote, “Differentiated instruction means teaching differently based on learners’ needs.” Therefore, the majority of English teachers did not have a clear idea about differentiated instruction, not to mention the instructional strategies.

English teachers were asked to answer a self-evaluation form adopted from Chapman and King (2005), as in Figure 4, and shared one or two things they always did in their class. Eighty percent of the teachers said that they always treat students with respect and give them specific praise.

Teacher Assessment of the Classroom Environment				
Categories	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Students are...	given time to think			
	encouraged to take risks			
	becoming self-directed learners			
	comfortable when asking and answering questions			
	learning from mistakes and accomplishments			
	aware that learning is acquired by building prior experiences and background knowledge			
	given opportunities to learn from others and to work alone			
	helped to see mistakes as learning experiences			
	treated with respect			
	given specific praise			
	honored for their efforts, strengths, and talents			
	valued as members of the learning community			
The physical arrangement of the classroom	promote learning			
	permits flexible grouping for assessment			
	is customized to meet the learners' assessment needs			
	is conducive to productive experiences			
	is inviting and comfortable			
	accommodates personal needs			
honors diversity				

Source: Chapman, C & King, R. (2005). Differentiated assessment strategies: One tool doesn't fit it all. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Figure 4. Self-Evaluation

In order to put what English teachers learned about differentiated instruction and QAR into practice, three tasks were designed. For the first task, English teachers had to read differentiated instructions on choices provided by different scholars. They shared their ideas in the following ways: (1) Write 1-3 sentences to summarize the idea. (2) Complete the simile “Choices are like \_\_\_\_\_.” (3) Drawing a picture to show what choices are. (4) Act out what choices are or mean. (5) Compose a song on choice and differentiated instruction and sing it out loud. For the second task, English teachers had to brainstorm ways that they would like to implement choice boards into their classroom.

In groups of three they first chose one picture book and read the picture book. They worked as a team and wrote down QAR questions. When they finished writing the questions, they told the story to the whole class and asked the rest of the teachers for questions.

*B. Lesson Plans and Microteaching*

Four of the thirteen English teachers did not clearly describe the integration of differentiated instruction into their lesson plan. Two assigned the homework in three choices, as in Examples 1 and 2.

Example 1: Choice 1 “Read the story and revise the ending.” Choice 2 “Work in pairs. Read the story aloud.” Choice 3 “Work in pairs. Practice the sentence patterns.”

Example 2: Level 1 “Read and write new words four times in the exercise book.” Level 2 “Read and write sentence patterns. They are filled in with new words in the exercise book.” Level 3 “Describe 5 partners’ feelings in the exercise book.”

The English teacher in Example 1 designed three levels of homework for reviewing the story I Want My Hat Back. Choice 1 was the most challenging one and learners with better English proficiency were required to revise the ending of the story. Choices 2 and 3 were for intermediate and lower proficiency levels respectively. On the other hand, the teacher in Example 2 designed three different assignments after teaching vocabulary words on emotions and feelings. Beginners did a mechanical task, “Level 1: Write new words four times in the exercise book.” Levels 2 and 3 were for intermediate and higher proficiency levels respectively, and learners who choose Levels 2 and 3 had more autonomy over their learning and performance.

After telling the story I Want My Hat Back, the teacher adopted QAR and designed four types of questions, as in Table IV. However, “Do you like the bear? Why?” should be categorized under “On My Own,” rather than “Author and Me.” The question under “On My Own” was not well-designed. “What did you lose and then got back later? Tell us about your experience” can be revised into “Have you lost anything before? What is it? Did you get it back?”

TABLE IV.  
QAR QUESTIONS ON I WANT MY HAT BACK

<p>Right There</p> <p>1. Who lost hat?</p> <p>2. Who stole the hat?</p> <p>3. What does the hat look like?</p>	<p>Think and Search</p> <p>1. How many animals are there in the story? Say their names.</p> <p>2. How did the animals feel when they were asked by the bear?</p>
<p>Author and Me</p> <p>1. Why did the rabbit give so many answers to the bear's question about his missing hat?</p> <p>2. Do you like the bear? Why?</p> <p>3. Which animal characters do you like the most? Why?</p>	<p>On my Own</p> <p>What did you lose and then you get it back later? Tell us about your experience.</p>

Seven teachers designed in-class activities for learners based on the topics as in Table V. While #1 and #3 focus on numbers, #5 and #7 focus on weather. The topic for #2 is Christmas, #4 action, and 6 animals. Level 1 was for beginners and learners did drill or repeated the same activity practiced in the class, such as "Sing the song One Little Two Little Indians". Levels 2 and 3 were for intermediate and advanced learners, so learners could have more autonomy or control over their presentations, such as composing a sentence, adopting and revising a song, or writing to Santa.

TABLE V.  
IN-CLASS ACTIVITY DESIGNS ON DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION

#	Differentiated Instruction
1	Level 1: Sing the song One Little Two Little Indians Level 2: I see one dot (make sentences) Level 3: 1+1=2 (make sentences)
2	Level 1: Listen & Color Level 2: Match the sentences Level 3: Write a letter to Santa
3	Low: Write the numbers 6-12 Intermediate: Memorize 6-12 High: Use numbers 6-12 to make sentences
4	Level 1: Students listen and do the actions Level 2: Students sing along and do the actions Level 3: Students adapt lyrics. Then they sing along and do actions.
5	Level1: say it out and point out Level2: share information the fill out the form Level3: weather report
6	Level 1: Read all the animal words Level 2: Read aloud the small book Level 3: Practice the sentence patterns and role play
7	Level 1: Say & Take the picture card Level 2: Matching Game: Match word and picture cards Level 3: Small book on weather and emotions

Seven English teachers in this study provided their pupils with choices as a way of differentiating instruction in the language. According to Pettig (1995):

Choice is a highly motivated feature implicit in differentiated designs. Choice validates a student's opinion and promote self-efficiency. Consequently, in at least one of the key aspects of each lesson-content, activity, or product - we try to give the student a choice (pp. 16-17).

However, some of the choices these English teachers designed were limited to basic skills such as "Say it out loud and point to the word," "Read all the animal words," or "Say the word and take the picture card." Pettig (1995) suggests that teachers should use broader and deeper domain concepts. He gives the following example. Instead of "The students will be able to name the members of the community," he recommends another objective "The students will demonstrate an understanding of why community members have different roles" (p. 17). By doing so, differentiated activities can access the students' real-life experience.

### C. Teachers' Reflection

The English teachers faced two big challenges when integrating differentiated instruction into lesson plans and activity designs. First, it was difficult for teachers to take learners' different levels into consideration and design appropriate activities for three levels, as in Examples 3 and 4. Second, they had difficulty in using simple English to explain to their students how to carry out the tasks for different levels of learners, as in Example 5.

Example 3: It's difficult to take learners' different levels into consideration when I design class activities.

Example 4: At first, I didn't know how to put three levels into my lesson plan. It's hard to imagine what differentiated instruction looks like. It would be better if I could teach my lesson, not to fellow English teachers, but to the elementary school EFL learners.

Example 5: I do not know how to use classroom English to explain different types of tasks. Students will get confused about different tasks.

These concerns about differentiated instruction is in accord with Corley's (2005) claim that "The greatest challenge to implement differentiated instruction...[is to] design appropriate activities for each levels..." (p.15). Instead of giving microteaching in the college campus, delivering a lesson to elementary school learners is highly recommended (Bequary, 2012). Teachers in Bequary's (2012) study claimed that implementing a social curriculum helped them understand their students as learners and their knowledge of their students enhanced the ability to use differentiated instruction.

When asked "How will you revise your lesson plan?" most teachers responded, "I will design various activities to meet different learners' needs." One teacher particularly pointed out as follows:

Activities for beginners must be interesting and include competition, so they are willing to give it a try. Activities for intermediate learners can be activities that I usually do in the class. Activities for advanced learners can be designed for them to use the language in daily life, such as watching a weather report and making a weather report chart, interviewing family and friends, etc.

In addition to design activities for three levels alone, Gibson (2013) suggests the idea of cubing. Cubing is a technique that helps learners to look at the concept from six different perspectives or levels of knowledge (Chapman & King, 2005, 2008; Gibson, 2013). Based on the text "President Kennedy's and President Johnson's response to North Vietnam's and China's growing influence in the nation of South Vietnam," Gibson (2013) designed six sides of the activities for learners as in Table VI:

TABLE VI  
CUBING (GINBSON, 2013, P 5)

Cubing	Tasks	Answers
#1	Describe the response	Buildup of U.S. troops in Vietnam
#2	Compare the response	To French buildup of troops fifteen years earlier
#3	Associate the response	To other presents' attempts to limit power of other nations in other regions
#4	Analyze the response	Discuss the reasoning of President Kennedy and Johnson
#5	Apply alternatives	Suggest how other presidents choose to limit the influence at other times
#6	Arrange the response	Debate the wisdom of Kennedy's and Johnson's response

The thirteen participants had two important insights into differentiated instruction. First, most of them had not paid attention to the problems regarding their class with mixed-level students before. They often neglected learners with higher English proficiency level, as in Example 6. Second, they thought integration of differentiated instruction into elementary school English instruction would be practical, because the instructor demonstrated several lessons and they designed and did microteaching by themselves, as in Example 7.

Example 6: I spent extra time in providing remedial education to those who fell behind. I learned that even high-level students need Krashen  $i+1$ .

Example 7: Differentiated instruction should not just be a slogan. Every kid should achieve in class. Teachers should customize the lesson, so every student is able to learn.

Participants in this study thought that integration of differentiated instruction in English classes is practical, because instruction can be designed to cater to students' different needs. Pettig (2000) also supports this statement as follows:

Fortunately, differentiated instruction is a reasonable alternative to making do. It is not a trendy quick fix, a new set of blackline masters, or a ready-to-go kit. Differentiated instruction represents a proactive approach to improving classroom learning for all students. (p. 14)

The teacher trainer's modeling on differentiated instruction made the participants feel that differentiated instruction is possible. Therefore, effective modeling of teaching skills and differentiated instruction should be integrated into professional development, so teachers can gain the practical experience needed to implement differentiated instruction and diversify the instructional strategies in their classrooms (Hines, 2012).

## V. DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Two major issues are discussed below in terms of the knowledge base of professional development of differentiated instruction and English teachers' competence in differentiated instruction.

### A. Knowledge Base of Professional Development

In this workshop, theoretical concepts of differentiated instruction and QAR were introduced through jigsaw reading and figures. Moreover, the teacher trainer demonstrated the differentiated lessons on different topics. Hands-on activities were provided for the thirteen English teachers to put what they had learned about differentiated instruction into practice. However, this workshop lacked the provision of teaching demonstrations on differentiated instruction to elementary school students. The workshop did not introduce all types of instructional strategies (i.e. compacting, flexible grouping), but focused only on one instructional strategy, "choice."

Richards (2011) proposed ten core dimensions for competence in language teacher education comprising developing appropriate linguistic competence, acquiring relevant content knowledge, developing a repertoire of teaching skills, acquiring contextual knowledge, developing a sense of identity as a language teacher, developing learner-focused

teaching, acquiring specialized cognitive skills, learning how to theorize from practice, developing a community of practice, and becoming a language teaching teacher professional.

Content knowledge of the subject matters, pedagogical skills, theories about second language acquisition should be included in professional development for language teachers, so they can be equipped with pedagogical content knowledge (Eun, 2006; Wilson & Berne, 1999). Therefore, training or professional development should focus on all aspects and domains of differentiation, including instructional management and how to differentiate content, process, products, and assessments.

Teachers as practitioners want to apply what they have learned to their classroom practice immediately. Therefore, the materials designed and delivered in teachers' professional development must be practical, but not too theoretical (Olivia & Pawlas, 2001). Moreover, teachers can learn new knowledge through observing other teachers' teaching demonstration and practicing the instructional strategies in protected environment (Joyce, Wei, & Wei, 2000). Collaboration and dialogue among teachers are strongly encouraged in teachers' professional development.

### B. English Teachers' Competence in Differentiated Instruction

Nine English teachers in this study demonstrated their competence in differentiated instruction through designing homework or class activities on three levels as choices for their learners in their lesson plans and microteaching. However, the choices these English teachers designed were limited to a drill such as "Low: Write the numbers 6-12," "Intermediate: Memorize 6-12," or "High: Use the numbers 6-12 to compose sentences." English teachers should design activities with deeper learning objectives. Moreover, these teachers did not demonstrate their competence in differentiating the lesson in product, nor in content and process. These English teachers also had difficulties in devising various activities to meet the learners' diverse needs and using simple English to explain the choices.

English teachers' sound knowledge base of English instruction is crucial to effective differentiated instruction in English classrooms, because such sound knowledge base provides English teachers with a roadmap to the key concepts, organizing principles, and fundamental skills. English teachers can adopt Rock, Gregg, Ellis, and Gable's (2008) framework for differentiated instruction entitled REACH (reflect on will and skill, evaluate the curriculum, analyze the learners, craft research-based lessons, hone in on the data) and put it into classroom practice. First, English teachers have to evaluate their knowledge base, teaching preferences, and skills in elementary school English instruction. Second, English teachers should evaluate the curriculum by reviewing national, city or country, district, or school-level standards and identify and select critical content to teach. Third, analyze the group and individual students to determine readiness, interests, preferences, strengths, and needs. Fourth, design a lesson plan with supporting learning activities. Adjust the lesson to offer differing levels of difficulty and match students to it. Finally, evaluate learners' interests, thinking styles, and readiness by diagnostic assessments, evaluate learners' understanding of the instruction through formative assessments, and finally, measure learners' performance against a predetermined standard through summative assessments.

Blozowich (2001) and McAdamis (2001) suggest that teachers who implement differentiated instruction require continuous and consistent professional development. Based on the findings of this study and the theoretical foundation of professional development, the framework for professional development for language teachers on differentiated instruction is constructed as Figure 5.

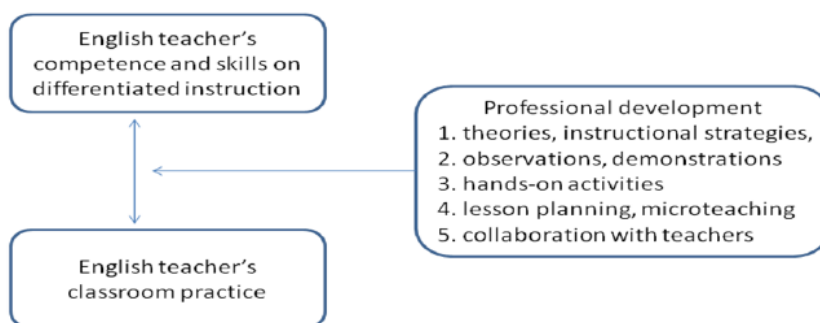


Figure 5. Influence of Professional Development on English Teachers' Classroom Practice on Differentiated Instruction

English teachers have their own competence and skills in differentiated instruction. According to Strickland (2009), high-quality professional development leads teachers to gain and refine knowledge of both content and pedagogy. Therefore, the content of the professional development should include theories and instructional strategies on differentiated instruction. Moreover, high-quality professional development reflects best practices in teaching and learning (Strickland, 2009), so English teachers should be provided with opportunities to observe English teachers' classroom practice or demonstration on differentiated instruction among elementary school students (Nazzal, 2011; Whipple, 2012). They also should have hands-on experience in putting the theories they have learned about differentiated instruction into practice through lesson planning or microteaching.

Next, after the workshop, they should collaborate with other teachers and continue to gain professional learning in differentiated instruction, because Strickland (2009) claims that high-quality professional development should help

teachers work together and feel part of a community of learners. Through peer coaching, action research, study groups, or workshops, they can have intensive dialogue and consultation about how techniques are implemented in the classroom to meet learners' needs (Blozowich & McAdamis, 2001; Cusumano & Mueller, 2007). Finally, the professional development influences the teacher's classroom practice in terms of both teacher effectiveness and student learning (Strickland, 2009).

English teachers can differentiate their instruction in terms of content, process, and product, so English teachers can vary the materials, pacing, flexible grouping, and activities to address learners' different needs (Tomlinson, Brighton, Hertberg, Callahan, Moon, Brimjoin, Conover, & Reynolds, 2003). Rather than using the same materials and giving the same assignments to all learners, English teachers in differentiated English classrooms should match materials to the specific instructional needs of the groups. When setting the level of instruction to intermediate or advanced learners, rather than low-achieving learners, many students felt frustrated (Ben, Ari, & Shafir, 1988). Tomlinson et al (2003) claim, "Classrooms in which time is used as a flexible resource would likely better serve the full range of learners" (p. 133). It is important to group students in a variety of ways in the English classrooms because of variability in students' English proficiency levels, interests, intelligence, or learning styles (Thousand et al, 2007; Tomlinson, 1999; Tomlinson et al, 2003).

## VI. CONCLUSION

This study discusses the influence of differentiated instruction workshop on thirteen Taiwanese elementary school English teachers' activity design in English activities. It has the following two findings. First of all, theoretical concepts, lesson demonstration, and hands-on activities on differentiating instruction were provided in the workshops. A demonstration among elementary school students and introduction of different types of instruction strategies were neglected in this workshop. Second, these English teachers demonstrated their competence in differentiated instruction by designing choices for class activities or homework. However, these English teachers lacked the competence in designing activities for deeper learning objectives, designing diverse instructional strategies or activities, and using simple English to explain the choices.

In order to effectively influence differentiated instruction workshop on elementary school English teachers' implementation of differentiated instruction in the classroom, four suggestions are recommended, including the provision of different differentiated instructional strategies, inviting expert or mentor teachers' demonstration of differentiated instruction in real classroom settings, establishing a teachers' learning community or support group on differentiated instruction, and adopting Rock et al's (2008) REACH model.

Differentiated instruction has been accepted as an important pedagogical skill for teachers to meet the needs of diverse learners (Nazzal, 2011; Tomlinson & Kalbfleisch, 1998). The case study approach allows for a detailed description of the influence of a differentiated instruction workshop on thirteen Taiwanese elementary school EFL teachers, particularly on designing classroom activities at three levels. It gives practitioners and elementary school English teachers valuable insight drawn from what the thirteen English teachers did to meet the diverse needs of their students. Moreover, the findings of this study also provide language teacher education programs and school districts with a framework for the design and delivery of effective professional development on differentiated instruction.

This limitation of this case study is the small number of participants. Although the results of the thirteen participants may not be able to be generalized to all English teacher population, the results can be used to explain the influence of a differentiated instruction workshop on elementary school English teachers' perspectives and their activity design.

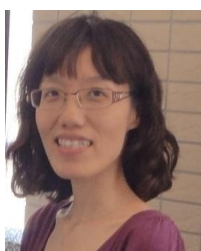
This study focused only on the influence of a differentiated instruction workshop on thirteen elementary school EFL teachers' activity design and microteaching. These thirteen participants gave microteaching on the lessons in the training center instead of teaching their lesson to elementary school students in a real classroom setting. A further study could focus on the effectiveness of these teachers' integration of differentiated instruction into their English classrooms, and elementary school learners' responses and attitude toward such differentiated instruction. Also, the thirteen English teachers could post their questions or concerns regarding differentiated instruction on Edmodo. A further study could discuss these English teachers' professional learning of the differentiated instruction through the follow-up support on Edmodo.

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# Role of Simulations in the Thai Graduate Business English Program: Can They Engage and Elicit Learners' Realistic Use of Specific Language?

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**Abstract**—This research paper aims at exploring the views of Thai adult learners enrolling in the one-year Graduate Diploma Program in English for Business and Management (EBM), Thammasat University, on the use of business simulations in terms of their realistic nature, level of engagement, and usefulness. In addition to the learners' views, outcomes of four different simulated meeting tasks conducted by a group of four learners were analyzed to explore how realistic patterns of interaction used in those simulations were. The hypothesis of this study is that if the learners find the simulated tasks engaging and representative of the real-world contexts, they are likely to focus on using specific and work-related language to fulfill the task purposes. In-depth interviews with a total of eight EBM students and audio-recordings of simulated meetings were the main data collection methods of this qualitative study. Discussion of the findings led to the conclusion that simulations strived to elicit the use of language which was similar to the authentic generic patterns found in the real world' business meetings. It further pointed out that the participants believed simulations were likely to assist them in improving their use of specific language to achieve their real-world business operations.

**Index Terms**—simulations, business discourse, genre analysis, language learning, second language acquisition, learners' interactions

## I. INTRODUCTION

This research paper attempts to explore the way simulated business-meeting tasks shape the use of language of eight adult learners who were undertaking the Graduate Diploma Program in English for Business and Management (EBM) at the Department of English, Thammasat University, Thailand, while they were working on the assigned simulations. The one-year EBM program at Thammasat was designed for professional people and recent graduates who needed to strengthen their English communicative skills in order to communicate fluently and effectively in a global business environment.

The majority of EBM students are full-time employees who urgently need advanced English skills to advance to a higher position. Their expectations for proficiency are high, and some have expressed concern that their communicative skills had not improved as much as expected despite completing EBM speech communication courses with native-English speaking teachers. They particularly pointed to a lack in opportunities to practice using the target language specifically related to real-life situations. According to the students, the most relevant scenarios that actually took place in the classroom, and came closest to simulation, were those in which the teacher asked the class to work on role plays where they were provided information they could use to achieve the tasks. As simulated tasks are believed to encourage learners to interact with others in lifelike situations and to elicit their use of the target language in a natural way, this study, thus, aims at exploring the role of simulation in making the target language use more relevant and motivating for participants.

Studies central to second language acquisition have considered communicative tasks as learning opportunities for learners to receive comprehensible input as well as modified output, meaning that they are encouraged to negotiate meaning while working upon tasks, leading to achievement of an outcome (Ellis, 2003; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Richards, 2001; Skehan, 1998). Tasks with a focus on meaning, particularly real-world tasks, are designed to respond to the findings of a needs analysis, which of course tends to be important, relevant and useful to learners in the real world. The learners' second language acquisition process is believed to stimulate while working upon good unfocused tasks carefully designed to combine the three major conditions—(1) the negotiation of meaning, (2) task demands and (3) the discourse mode called dialogic task (Richards, 2001). This means a good task needs to be interactive requiring learners to negotiate and exchange meaning with clear instructions.

Given all these significant elements of unfocused tasks, we can see that simulations contain components necessary to accomplish real-work related situations wherein learners are required to use imagination, critical thinking, appropriate target language skills, and group dynamics skills to solve lifelike problems, interacting in groups of three to four members. What makes simulation different from role play or any other tasks is that learners can retain their



individuality and exercise their creativity in achieving task outcomes. Unlike role plays, learners are normally assigned to perform according to what is instructed on a worksheet. In most cases, they are required to engage in an exchange of information activity which does not encourage them to tap into language skills in the same way that they would in a real life situation. Numerous applied linguists have emphasized the importance and influence of simulations in language development. For example, Tomlinson & Masuhara (2003) state that learners are encouraged to work collaboratively to solve lifelike problems while working on simulations and they will tend to put all their energy and efforts in working out a problem and achieve a task outcome.

To prove whether or not simulations can engage learners in negotiating meaning and concentrating efforts into producing realistic use of language to achieve the task outcome as a way to assist EBM learners to improve their business communication, I applied the analysis of genres of business meetings to determine the authenticity of the participants' patterns of interaction. Thus, the goals of this study are: (a) to investigate how realistic the participants' patterns of interaction used in the simulated tasks are, and (b) to identify what the participants' perception towards the simulated tasks were and whether the simulations could engage them in solving lifelike problems and expressing themselves in the way they expect to perform in real-life situations.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Simulations in ESP

Since learners of ESP courses possess an urgent need to improve their professional English, opportunities to practice English in lifelike situations in the classroom context are compulsory. Simulations appear to be most reliable in providing practice opportunities for enhancing 'flexibility' in their use of professional English, particularly when interacting with others in an unpredictable spoken discourse (Burns and Moore, 2008, p. 324). Due to the fact that learners are not provided with any script, simulations contain the nature of unpredictability, which is similar to real-life interactions. In addition to the nature of unpredictability, Burns and Moore (2008) also highlight the authenticity of simulated interactions by saying learners must "deal with potentially face-threatening consequences when breakdowns occur in real-time simulated interaction, through strategies such as clarification, recasting and so on to make authentic demands on spoken communication" (p. 324). Learners, thus, need to rely on not only their professional background, their creativity but also their potential to respond to any kind of unpredictability during their interactions with others, adding up the level of authenticity to simulations.

In addition to the unpredictable nature of simulations, they of course convey 'reality of function' (Jones, 1984), in which the teacher and the learner are aware that simulations are part of the language course and that all must behave as though simulations were real to them. To do so, they must make decisions, express their own views and tackle problems in the way they would do in the authentic world, despite the fact that their decisions will not be susceptible to the outside world. Through the simulations' reality of function, learners perceive the reality on the inside and thus are entitled with power and responsibility to achieve the outcomes and solve a problem. Levine, Eppelsheimer, Kuzay, Moti and Wilby (2004) point out that a simulation-based language program can offer the learners with opportunities to integrate their language skills with critically analyzing concepts and other knowledge areas including intercultural communicative competence, communicative strategies, learning strategies and skills in technology.

### B. Genres of Business Meetings

In order to justify the extent to which simulated business meetings, produced by eight adult learners in the EBM program, contain the nature of authentic patterns of interactions as appearing in real-life business meetings, it is necessary to investigate the genres of business meetings as well as move analysis and apply those interactional patterns to re-analyse the participants' own simulated business meeting transcriptions. Starting with its definition, a genre is a classification of communicative events where the members of such communicative event share sets of communicative purposes. These purposes influence the structures of discourse and choice of content and style (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2013; Handford, 2010, 2007). In this regard, Bargiela-Chiappini (2013) further explained that "within the field of business discourse, researchers have used genre analysis to identify and meaningfully classify systems of *recurrent practices* as they are manifested in texts between and within companies, and to characterize and describe potentially new genres, such as fax and email" (p. 218).

Basically, we can say that genres are shaped according to their purposes. As seen in the case of business meetings, we can recognize them intuitively because they have specific purposes and are different from other types of institutional discourse. A genre is also staged as it contains some stages for the members to follow in order to achieve the goal. Finally, a genre is social as of course we participate in genres to interact with other people.

In this study, I adapted Handford (2007) and McCarthy (2000)'s generic structure of business meetings to analyse the participants' simulated transcriptions. Handford analysed CANBEC, a corpus of audio recordings of authentic business meetings. Those recordings were made in a variety of companies in UK, Germany and Japan. The meetings included internal and external meetings involving a wide range of topics and purposes. Eventually Handford came up with six stages of generic model of business meetings including "Meeting Preparation", "Pre-Meeting", "Meeting Coheres", "Discussion of the agenda", "Closing of meetings" and "Post Meeting" with transition moves, in addition to his analysis of lexicogrammatical items and most frequent clusters produced in those meetings. This generic model also

includes meeting preparation and post meeting stages which are not necessary although they do feed into and flow from the meeting itself.

As for McCarthy (2000), he distinguishes four types of talk in business meetings. The distinction is relevant to business communication in general and business meetings in particular. They are (1) phatic exchanges (greetings and partings) (2) Transactional talk (requests, enquiries, instructions) (3) Transactional-plus-relational talk (non-obligatory task evaluation and comments) and (4) Relational talk (small talk, anecdotes, wider topics of mutual interest). Below is the framework adapted from Handford and McCarthy I employed to analyze the interactional patterns the participants produced while striving to achieve the simulations.

#### **The four-staged Framework of Business Meeting Genre Analysis**

##### **Stage 1 Pre-meeting**

This is the phase when the participants discuss the topic or some aspects related to the meeting just before the meeting actually starts, or interact with each other through small talk, also referred to by McCarthy (2000) as 'phatic exchanges'. Pre-meeting is one type of social activity; therefore, to establish relationship among the members is common and necessary.

##### **Stage 2 Meeting coheres**

At this stage, the Chair normally hands out the agenda and opens the meeting by addressing the issues to be discussed and solved in the meeting. At varying points a switch to interacting with each other through small talk or relational talk, anecdotes or wider topics of mutual interest is permitted. This stage is very important as it is the phase when the participants will understand specific goals of the meeting. Sometimes, items are addressed very explicitly to make things clear for the participants, while at other times items can be implicit, especially if the participants share the same institutional context working for the same department or are about to talk about issues they already know.

##### **Stage 3: Discussion of the agenda/topic**

This stage contains several phases which may be called 'clusters of activity'. They can actually be recognized in overall structural organization. However, the patterns of clusters of activity may vary depending on the contextual factors such as relationship of speakers, role of Chair, meeting purpose and topic. The cyclical patterning can occur as well as varying in terms of the level of clarity. Four related phases, each of which builds on the previous one are (1) non-task sounding, (2) task-related exchange of information, (3) persuasion, (4) concessions and agreement. These phases can also include requests, enquiries, instructions, interruptions, incompleteness, summaries, reaching a decision, blocking a decision, evaluating, commenting and so on.

##### **Stage 4: Closing of meeting**

This stage can be very indirect and may tend to occur quite quickly in regular meetings. It can also include 'phatic exchanges' like partings here at the closing stage as well.

This four-staged framework along with the use of the focus-group interview were administered to draw out the answers to the following research questions:

- How realistic are the participants' patterns of interaction (four stages of a generic structure of business meetings) as used in the simulated tasks?
- What are the participants' perception of simulations, and can simulations engage them in solving a lifelike problem and expressing themselves in the same way they tend to in personal real-life situations?

### **III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES**

This present study employed qualitative research methods integrating business meeting genre analysis as well as in-depth focus group interviews conducted with all the participants to gain insight into their perceptions of the simulated business meeting tasks. Details of the participants are as follows:

#### *A. Participants*

A total number of 8 volunteers, aged between 26 and 41, undertaking the Graduate Diploma Program in English for Business and Management Class of Academic Year 2012 served as the self-selected samples and they volunteered themselves as meeting participants working upon 2 different simulated tasks each. All the participants received their MA in Business from a university in Thailand and had just completed their 1<sup>st</sup> year in the EBM program. Seven out of eight were working full time in private companies which assigned them to use English at work on daily routine tasks. Of this group, one was a housewife who was tending to her own rental business in a downtown area, communicating with overseas customers most of the time. The participants were divided into two groups, each of which was asked to prepare and work on two different simulations, and also requested to select group members who they were familiar with on their own, as close relationship was proven to be one of the factors helping all group members create contingency necessary to achieve successful group work (Tomlinson, 2008).

#### *B. Simulated Tasks*

The four different simulations were chosen and adapted from Thompson (2007) as they mimicked authentic business situations. However, due to its lack of cultural connection to the Thai social context, I localized part of the situations to increase the level of familiarity, authenticity and motivation of the participants.

**Simulation no.1**

• Your company Harnn & Thann Thailand is having a board meeting to discuss the launching of a new bar of soap. You all are a board committee member having a debate about what the name and advertising for the bar of soap should be. You can freely decide the product name, price, packaging, etc. One of you is a marketing director who is chairing the board meeting. And the rest of you are marketing managers.

**Simulation no.2**

• You are a member of the customer care management team at the subsidiary of a British insurance company in Bangkok, Thailand. You are meeting with three other managers to discuss possible changes in the way you offer customer care. The company has a call center with 65 agents, 25 of which spend their time making calls to potential customers. The other 40 agents answer calls from potential and existing customers.

The company has been looking at web-based customer care for several years. Some people are saying that call centre agents should no longer answer calls from customers. Instead, they think there should be a customer care website where new customers can find answers to their questions. Student A's job is to chair the meeting. The rest of the students share your own ideas with other members and try to decide together what to do at the end.

**Simulation no.3**

• You are a member of the public relations team at a pet food manufacturer. Your leading brand of dog food is Friskee. Unfortunately, you have just heard that Friskee contains small quantities of Z44T. This is a chemical which is not dangerous for animals to eat. However, it can cause sickness in humans if taken in quantities. Food safety guidelines do not provide clear rules about Z44T and there is no legal reason why you should withdraw the product from shops. This is strictly a potential public relations problem. You are going to have a meeting with other members of the PR team to decide what to do. One of you can chair the meeting.

**Simulation no.4**

• Your General Product Company in Thailand is under threat from other local competitors. You have to reduce overhead by 20%. Your present costs are divided as follows: Salaries: 40% R & D: 5% Marketing: 10% Travel: 5% Administration: 10% Facilities: 5% Rent: 10% Sundries: 5% Communications: 10% Hold a meeting and decide how you can make the necessary budgetary changes. One person can chair the meeting and at the end try to come up with the solutions together.

*C. Procedures*

The participants were thoroughly informed of the instructions of how to carry on the selected simulated business meeting tasks and were given one week for the preparation. This is because in the real world, it is necessary for members to research appropriate information in preparation to provide information necessary to support discussion. On the day of their simulation video recording, participants could spend as much time as they found appropriate to achieve their meeting purposes, exactly similar to the real world meeting in their lives. They were also told, before hand, that they would be video recorded so some participants felt like they needed to dress up like they were used to doing in their real world company meetings. At the end of the simulations, they were interviewed as a group to investigate their perceptions at depth towards the simulations. The interview questions particularly focused on the authenticity of the selected simulated tasks, their perceptions towards the reality of the tasks' functions and problems they experienced while conducting the simulations, and their comments and suggestions to develop new business meeting simulations in the future.

*D. Data Analysis*

The simulations were both video and audio recorded, after which they were transcribed using a transcription system by Jefferson (1985, 1996), which has been universally employed in the field of Conversational analysis (CA). This same system has also been very influential on approaches to transcription more broadly (Gumperz & Berenz, 1993; Ochs, 1979). Furthermore, it is regarded as having become "a near-globalized set of instructions for transcription" (Slembrouck, 2007, p. 823). According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998), a CA transcript "embodies in its format and in the phenomena it marks out the analytic concerns" that drive the work of conversation analysts (p. 76). Transcript notation encompasses two types of concerns; the dynamics of turn-taking and the characteristics of speech delivery (p. 76). Jefferson notation encompasses symbols to represent aspects of each. For example, brackets represent the beginning and ending points of overlapping speech. However, as this research does not aim at focusing on intonation, and participants' feelings, some original symbols were removed to make the transcription convention more appropriate (Krzyzanowski, 2008).

TABLE 1:  
TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTION IN SIMULATED BUSINESS MEETING TASKS

Symbol	Name	Use
[ text ]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
( text )	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
((laughs))	Double Parentheses and a word <i>laughs</i>	Non-verbal behavior

The data received from the transcription was analyzed through the use of the 4-staged framework of business genre analysis as reviewed in the literature review section to find out whether or not the language through the simulations contained elements of authentic business meetings. The focus-group interviews were transcribed without the use of transcription convention because the content of the interviews was the focal point of this data collection.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

##### A. Level of Authenticity of Language Used in Simulations

The findings received from the video-recording transcriptions were analyzed to investigate whether the participants employed the similar generic patterns of interaction as the four-staged Framework of Business Meeting Genre Analysis adapted from Handford (2007) and McCarthy (2000) in the simulated tasks. All four stages of the analysis are discussed below:

##### Stage 1: Pre-meeting

Only one simulation was found to contain the generic pattern of Stage 1: Pre-meeting and that simulation is Simulation no. 3. Here is the excerpt of Simulation no 3.

Excerpt no.4.1

C1: Good afternoon everybody (.) Welcome to PR team meeting.

P1, P2, P3: [Good afternoon].

C1: How are you, guys?

P1: Not too bad. Welcome back from the long holiday.

P2, P3: [Oh, OK].

C1: Umm (.) Today what we are going to talk about in a meeting is quite important as you know now we are facing a problem of losing our major customers. But we don't know exactly what it is, like the cause of the problem. So we are going to discuss about it.

P1: Right.

This is obviously "small talk". Speakers greeted each other and one participant made a reference to their long holiday. Meeting agenda has not yet been raised by the chair and participants are allowed to conduct brief informal conversation exchanges that contribute to creating a good relationship prior to meeting formalities. As characterized in the 4-stage framework for business meetings, this kind of generic pattern does not contain any specific business lexis as its purpose and goal is to strengthen the relationship. The other three simulations also convey this element, but in a more abrupt manner. The participants tend to use a more straightforward way of identifying the goals of the meeting, much more than employing this kind of 'phatic communication', as we can see in the following excerpt of Simulation no. 1.

Excerpt no.4.2

C1: Good afternoon everyone. That we invite you to join the meeting today because umm (.) after we have the competition of our product name on the soap of our company. From the marketing that we discussed on last meeting we meet to ur have the final result about product name, right? And the advertising campaign. Then we would like to brainstorming about this today. I would like to know your idea about this due to after we have the competition, we have three names to debate today also. The first name is Jas Bath. The second name is Jas Bar. The third name is Natural Bar.

P1: Could you repeat again?

##### Stage 2: Meeting coheres

Excerpt no.4.3 (Simulation no.3) include the generic pattern of Stage 2: Meeting coheres. In this excerpt, the chair opens the meeting in a very explicit way (From the phrase "*what we are going to talk about in a meeting is...*", "*So we are going to discuss it*"). The participants are made to understand their roles and responsibilities in helping to solve the problem from the very start of the meeting. The Chair goes on to elaborate on the problems of the products which contain Z44T, a chemical substance. She, however, is not quite sure whether it is dangerous to people or animals, while in fact, in the simulation worksheet the Z44T is indeed not harmful to animals but could cause sickness if people consumed in large amounts. So when the chair opens the meeting, she did not provide all the information to the participants at the onset and proceeds to ask for participants' opinions on the problem and how to solve it. The chair's generic patterns of language convey the key concepts of the topic she needed to bring up in the meeting. The specific

lexical choices that are frequently used are “problems”, “important”, “the problem”, “a problem” because she perceives the chemical substance as the urgent issue every participant needed to tackle.

Excerpt no.4.3

C1: Umm. Today what we are going to talk about in a meeting is quite important (#2) as you know now we are facing a problem of losing our major customers. But we don't know exactly what it is, (.) like the cause of the problem. So we are going to discuss about it.

P1: Right.

C1: And also let me introduce ah (#2) let me talk about the problem a little bit. As far as I know, ah (#2) now we are having a problem about our product called Friskee, which (#2) is (#2) now it's revealed from the research that it contains a small quantity of Z44T which I'm not sure what kind of chemical substance it is but it's quite umm (.) important that we have to find out what it is. So if it's harmful to people or animals, so that we can find out the way to handle the problem.

P1: Right.

C1: So ah (#2) today we are going to talk about the problem and find solutions to the problem. So I'd like to hear from you guys first. What do you think? What's your opinion about the problem?

P1: So maybe you can start first, yeah?

P3: Z44T is a chemical which is not dangerous for animals that (#2) ah (#2) but it cause sickness with humans if they eat a lot of it so (.) I think we should communicate to the customers about Z44T no dangerous for animals because we use in a small quantity.

P1: Right.

P3: And then we have a brochure and attach it to our product when we deliver to the store. And educate the customers to know about Z44T is not dangerous.

In Excerpt no 4.4 (Simulation no.4), the chair formally opens the meeting and includes an element of “relational talk” (“Welcome back from last week meeting. It's been a long time no see”) with the participants; however, the issues are not addressed in an explicit manner. All the participants know is that there is a threat from competitors and she does not provide much detail about the weak points of the company. However, she does make it clear that they needed to cut off the overhead costs to survive and asks for opinions from the competitors. The chair's meeting cohere generic patterns include “I have to say is quite important because...”, “it's quite a big issue that I'd like to bring up in the meeting”.

Excerpt no.4.4

C1: OK (.) Welcome back from last week meeting. It's been a long time no see. Today I believe that the things I'm going to (#2) that I have to say is quite important because now our company has been threatening from the rising competitors.

P1: OK

C1: So it's quite a big issue that I'd like to bring up in the meeting first. Umm, (#2) it's about the cost and our profit of this year. It's because as right now we need to be able to be more competitive to compete with the competitors (.) so maybe some overhead costs have to be reduced. So I'd like to hear you guys first.

P1, P2: [OK]

Excerpt no.4.5 (Simulation no.2) shows another example of the stage 2 pattern but this one contains unique characteristics because it is not produced in a dialogue but in a monologue in the sense that the chair did not allow the participants to interfere her talk by discussing the issues non-stop. She attempted to raise the issue of reducing the number of customer care service agents, even if the company wanted to increase sales revenue and continued by giving her own solutions, persuading the participants to follow her ideas at the same time at this stage.

Excerpt 4.5

C1: Good afternoon everyone. Thank you for your time today. The reason I asked you guys ah (.) to meet up today because I want to talk about the possibility for changing the way we offer our customer care service to our customers (#2). I call this meeting because I see one problem and that I'm quite concerned about. Ur (.) we actually at the moment we have 65 customer care agents but only 25 of them are (#2) you know umm assigned to making call to find new customers to potential customers and 40 of them are dedicated to answering calls from our existing customers. So basically we can say that only 25 of them are responsible for finding new customers while you know 40 of them are actually trying to do the after- sale support.....

In brief, all the simulated meeting tasks convey the 2<sup>nd</sup> stage of the four-staged framework of business meetings in which the chair discusses the historical background of the issues and identifies the goals and expected outcomes of the meeting. What seems to be problematic is that the chair in each meeting does not offer the background issues completely and in Simulation no. 2, the chair does not give the participants any room to interrupt.

### Stage 3: Discussion of the agenda/topic

In Excerpt 4.6 (Simulation no.1), the chair proposes names for the spa soap, their new product and asks for the participants' opinions. P1 is the first participant who expresses her opinions. She disagrees with the first two names but prefers the name “natural bar” and then provides reasons to support her ideas. Then P3 agrees with the P1 and at the same, P1 who agrees with the name “natural bar” expresses a negative opinion for the name “jas baht” and attempts to ask for other participants' ideas as the way to persuade others to reach a decision. P1 also interrupts others in an attempt

to persuade others that “natural bar” is the best name. All participants do not merely say “Yes, I agree with you”, but instead attempt to provide reasons to support their ideas. Suddenly, P1 thinks of something. Just before they are about to make a decision, she interrupts and expresses her concern that they may not be allowed to use the name “natural bar” due to the Thai business law. Hence, the discussion changes from jumping to a conclusion to discussing the possibility of using the product name. C1 then proposes that they may either use the name “nature bar” and consult the legal team. Every participant agrees with this proposal and shifts their discussion on to the advertising campaign.

The discourse reflects a series of activities related to negotiation—proposing ideas, interrupting, rejecting others’ views, supporting others’ ideas, and changing one’s own opinions, while attempting to propose each individual ideas. The fact that they eagerly and actively engaged in interrupting, shifting topics, proposing new ideas ensured that this simulation contained an important element of business meetings, authenticity.

Excerpt no. 4.6

C1: Uh ah (.) The first one is Jas Bath. (#2) B-a-t-h. The second is Jas Bar and the third is Natural Bar. Jas is come from our ingredient on the soap that’s ur jasmine rice.

P2: To me I actually I don’t really think that the word ‘Jas’ will make the customers know that ‘jas’ actually stands for jasmine. So I personally prefer the name natural bar because at the whole (#2) how we market how we market the big picture of our product we tell you know we send the message that our product is actually made of natural ingredients. So I think that the natural bar will emphasize the whole theme or the whole product range of our company and again (.) I said Jas (.) J-a-s doesn’t really tell at you know? the first instance that Jas actually comes from jasmine. So I personally prefer Natural Bar.

P3: OK. I agree. Because I think the natural bar is the name to deliver to the customers directly and the customer will know about the our product.

C1: Ok the same as me due to I think in my opinion (.) Jas is look like a negative meaning and difficult to develop the advertising campaign due to our brand needs to easy to link with the advertising campaign and easy understanding for our customers also yes and how about Khun Ying?

P1: I agree with Dear and Aor because ur (#2) I don’t like Jas (.) Jas bath is just like we just finish a bath and what happens is that I think it not make sense but for the word natural. Natural is mean ur (.) you can see the tree or something that it feel good for you.

P2: I think it will help differentiate our self from other brands that um (#2) is um are sold in the supermarket. It will say that we’re different from Palm Olive. We’re different from Dove. Because we are not the same. So I think we should go for the natural—

P1: Uh uh sorry (.) I would like to concern something that we should check for the word natural. We can use it or not because it may be a reserved word we cannot.

C1: We cannot use the “natural” word?

P3: Yes. Directly. But I know that the government do not to allow to use the word “natural” for the other product.

P1: Yeah Who will response for checking this?

In Excerpt no. 4.7 (Simulation no.2), meeting participants were talking about how to replace customer service man power by using social networks. They planned to create FAQ in the form of an interactive chat. However, the chair, C1, did not agree and argued politely against it. She was concerned that the chat might make customer response time slow and provided the reasons to support her claims. Then P2 agreed and proposed to use email so that the staff would not have to answer questions simultaneously. Other participants simultaneously agreed with this proposal since they believed they could actually use one staff to be responsible for correspondence. Therefore, this is an agreement on an outcome. They did not achieve their group’s solution by adopting a linear and simple pattern of negotiation; on the contrary, they put on all of their effort in resorting to a cluster of activities to reach the group’s outcome.

Excerpt no. 4.7

P3: May I er (.) conclude the features on the website? So we will have the features of download documents and we have FAQ and the last one that (#2) Khun Aor recommend us is the online support.

P1: I think it looks like a chat.

P2: Interactive chat.

P3: Ah OK

C1: Excuse me but I do not mean to go against you guys (.) but I have a feeling that the interactive chat will take more time. You know? Because when you chat, some people type slowly. Some people type fast. If we have to ask allocate some of our agent to answer this chat. Then I’m not so sure whether that this will increase productivity or that will increase work proficiency. I’m afraid that it will reduce the overall proficiency of the customer care team. I mean (.) but that is my only concern. I’m happy if you want to try.

P2: But I think if this is your concern, I think can change to the (.) not interactive online but can change to send the email require to directly to the agent. And then the agent receive the require and reply to the customers and that will be so quickly more than telephone call?

C1: Yeah. I think I prefer that idea because ur (.) email will give us time. But if we open the interactive channel. If they say hello, they would expect instant reply from the agent and that will affect the time that the agent will have stay on the chat. I don’t really like that idea.

P1: I think that maybe we create (.) that it looks like leave a message on the web and that message will be linked to customer care and after that we can have one staff dedicate for the correspondence something like that and will call back to the customer later. I think this can be implement without budget, (.) I think that.

C1: Ok because one thing I'd like to make it clear to you guys. The objective is to hope (.) hopefully will increase the sales volume to the company (.) but at the same time won't reduce the level of service quality or won't reduce the team performance or the teamwork efficiency. So whichever solution that you suggest or have in mind maybe try to come up with the pros and cons. I'm not so sure if you think you can do the feasibility report and present your own ideas both positive and negative side of the changes.

In summary, Stage 3: Discussion of the agenda/topic appeared in all the simulated meeting tasks. All participants employed critical thinking skills to solve issues the chair brought up in the meeting, just like they would have done in the real world through a cluster of functions. Table 2 displays the list of functions and generic structures the participants employed to accomplish the meeting goals.

TABLE 2:  
LIST OF FUNCTIONS AND GENERIC STRUCTURES THE PARTICIPANTS USED IN THE SIMULATIONS

Functions	Generic structures
Agreeing	"Right", "This is excellent. Perfect!", "OK. Good", "That's a good thing", "Like Khun Ti said, maybe we can reduce rent a little bit"
Disagreeing	"I quite agree with you but I think...", "No. I don't think so", "But I don't agree with...", "To me, I don't really think that ...", "Excuse me but I do not mean to go against you guys, but..."
Checking information	"I've heard the rumor that Facebook will charge you money if you're using Facebook for commercial purpose. Is that true?"
Interrupting	"Could you repeat again?", "Excuse me", "OH, Sorry, I would like to concern something that..."
Proposing ideas	"I would like to suggest that....", "I think that...."
Summarizing/paraphrasing	"So let me put it this way", "so let me clarify our points here"
Controlling the meeting	"Is there anything that you want to add?", "OK you guys have any further concern?", "Alright! I think we'd better leave this to Khun Dutch's hands", "May I just add more, please?",
Adding more information	"So maybe you can start first, yeah?", "So what do you say, Khun Dutch?"
Calling on a speaker	"...but that is my only concern. I'm happy if you want to try"
Compromising	"It's gonna cost a lot. Do you think that our existing products can still make profits? Can still be profitable?", "You know?", "We'd better consider the other way, maybe probably better", "And I think they will understand. But reducing salary is not a good thing", "Natural is a long word. If we connect to bath, that will be four words, right?"
Persuading	

#### Stage 4: Closing of Meeting

It is clear that the final phase of authentic business meetings appeared in all four simulations through the use of a variety of strategies including the chair showing his or her appreciation to the participants, summarizing the solutions, briefing everyone on their responsibilities for the next meeting, and arranging the next appointment. These signaled to the participants that the meeting was coming to a close. Although they did not finish the simulated meetings out of context, they still believed that they were in the midst of a real meeting which required the completion of a final task, summing up the meeting discussion. Excerpts no. 4.8 (Simulation no.1) can be considered as a good example.

Excerpt no. 4.8

P2: When should we ur (.) aim to have the information required? Can (.) shall we do it?

P1: Shall we have a meeting on next Friday? Because before that I'm busy all week. I'll send you information to you by next Wednesday.

P3: I think I'll finish to discuss with Finance manager I think tomorrow I can send the details to you. And I let me check with the agency in the next week.

P2: And see if they can send you the plan by next Thursday (.) so we can consider and discuss and then talk about their plan and review their plan in the next meeting.

C1: I think after Khun Aor ur contact with production or any agency can send the invitation to us to join the meeting when they come to present their job. OK Thank you very much today.

P1,2,3: [Thank you].

#### B. Summary of Focus-group Interviews

The transcription of the 30-minute focus-group interviews revealed that participants found that simulation was engaging and real since it closely reflected real-work experiences and they could be themselves while working on those tasks. It also showed that simulated tasks were perceived as challenging since they could only rely on meeting content and they did not know what other participants would say. As a result, they had to pay close attention to what other participants were saying and responded accordingly. Another critical point received from the focus-group interview is that problem-solving based simulated tasks could stimulate critical thinking skills and encourage the use of target language knowledge to achieve the goals of the meetings.

The participants also discovered that simulated tasks must proceed the learning of specific content knowledge to enable them to immediately apply and practice what they had learnt. In relation to the difficulties perceived, participants were not sure if the words they used were correct or not and needed feedback from the teacher. To gain sufficient feedback, they suggested that the activity be presented formally in class by each individual group because if groups merely practiced simultaneously on their own, the teacher would not be able to comment on each individual group.

Participants also expressed difficulty thinking up transitional words or phrases that would help link their ideas with other previous comments and assist them in making interruptions. They also admitted to a lack of confidence on when they could interrupt. Below are the excerpts from the focus-group interview:

R: Overall how did you feel about this simulated task we did today?

*The topics are related to our real-work situations so it's good. If the topics are not related, we wouldn't be able to do it well and it's not fun. Like I'm the it manager, and here I have to be an it manager, I think it's better*

*We can visualize and respond in the way that we will do in our real life. If it's too far from our life, we can't think of what to say or the teacher needs to give feedback and we need to do group by group so we can listen to what others do and teacher should give feedback to all the groups*

R: Was it authentic to you?

*It's near my real-work situation as I'm working for the Pharmacy and I have to deal with similar problems and use the same thinking process.*

*Yes I Think it's just like the real meeting in my real life it's just like this. We need a scenario that's close to real life. And it encourage us to use language.*

*We all need to pay attention, and we actually can't prepare a script because we have to listen to other people which is good.*

R: Do you think that simulations promoted any problem-solving ability?

*Problem-solving tasks help us engaged in to the lesson. We have to propose good ideas and see what other people feel towards our ideas.*

*To be ourselves is much better than to be someone else and do according to what the worksheet says. We love to think and share our genuine ideas.*

R: Did you experience any problems while conducting this simulated task?

*Can't think of transitional words to link ideas to what other people said. But it's challenging. It's two way not just what we propose our ideas but we have to respond to other people ideas at the same time.*

*It's fun that I have a chance to lead the meeting. It's fun but it's difficult when we have to interrupt, I can't think of word.*

## V. CONCLUSION

In an attempt to answer three research questions—(1) how realistic are the participants' patterns of interaction (four stages of a generic structure of business meetings) used in the simulated tasks? and (2) what are the participants' perception of simulations and can these simulations engage them in solving lifelike problems by expressing themselves in the way they would tend to do so in real-life situations?, this present study sheds light into a deeper understanding of how Thai adult learners felt about and performed simulated business meeting tasks. Firstly, due to the authentic nature of simulated business meeting tasks, participants reported feeling engaged in the simulations, and being motivated to produce patterns of language they thought they would use in the real world. They did not, by any means, take the simulations for granted and seriously put effort into creating a very subtle language patterns in negotiating with other participants to accomplish the task goals in a spontaneous manner. Every participant played their individual role either as the chair or meeting participants, targeting the specific goals of their assigned tasks.

Their pattern of language use contains similar characteristics to those of the four-staged business meeting genre in which they opened their meeting with 'phatic type of communication' by greeting each other and by attempting to create small talk to establish rapport. They then moved onto the phase where the Chair addressed the meeting agenda in an explicit manner prior to inviting other participants to share individual viewpoints. After which, they arrived at the point where every participant contributed their ideas to the whole group by engaging in a series of different activities including: proposing new ideas, rejecting others' ideas, interrupting others, changing their mind, asking questions, clarifying others' viewpoints, checking understanding, and so on. This was a very significant part of the simulated business meeting tasks because the more they got involved in group discussion, the more likely they could reach a sophisticated solution towards the end of their meeting. In addition, their involvement revealed that they had a high degree of motivation in completing simulations and that they were not just trying to 'get it done'. Instead, it was about 'doing their best'. The final phase of the four generic patterns of business meetings also exists in all the four simulations. Participants employed signaling words to hint that the meeting was approaching its end by showing their appreciation towards other members' opinions, setting their next meeting, assigning individual responsibilities, and making use of 'parting' expressions.

All these have led me to conclude that the use of simulations in the EFL or ELF classroom context can bring great benefits to learners by motivating them to employ the use of target language skills in the way they would do in their



professional life. Offering them opportunities to engage in simulations would further encourage and elicit their use of language in a natural and creative way, by challenging them to use language to solve specific types of problems.

To maximize the benefits of the use of simulations in the EFL and ELF classroom context, the teacher should involve the learners in the process of designing the situations. Since many learners, such as those in the EBM program use English at work and experience real-life problems, they can contribute by sharing situations that make simulation activities relevant. Personalized topics and situations tend to enhance their motivation and engagement. Furthermore, ensuring that students have sufficient input to produce their own output is another key factor the teacher needs to take into consideration. Thus, getting the learners to work upon simulations towards the end of each unit or when they feel confident would be more enriching for them.

In response to their specific language difficulties, the teacher should scaffold the generic structure of the business meetings emphasizing the importance of sequence, pace, face, politeness, power, role and status of the participants which can determine the appropriate use of language in the business meetings. The explicit form of feedback on learners' performance is also needed to raise their awareness on actions they are not conscious of while conducting simulations.

Future research in this area may explore more in-depth other specific groups of learners' language difficulties while they are working on simulations in order to provide the appropriate type of guidance in devising a suitable series of lessons and teaching materials that best promotes students' use of the target language.

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# The Effects of Implicit and Explicit Focus on Form on Oral Accuracy of EFL Learners

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**Abstract**—The current study was an attempt to reexamine the effectiveness of two kinds of form-focused instruction on oral accuracy of EFL learners. Participants of the current study were 41 male students in two experimental groups and a control group. During twelve sessions of treatment, to the first experimental group (class A), the target forms were taught implicitly through input enhancement (Implicit teaching). In the second class (class B), the grammatical structures were taught in explicit manner through metalinguistic explanation. However, to the control group (class C) no focus on form instruction was applied. A pre-test and a post-test were designed in interview model to test the oral accuracy of the learners both before and after treatment. In order to analyze the obtained scores from pre-test and post-test, paired sample T-Test was used to study the scores within each group, while one-way ANOVA was employed to study the mean variance between groups. The results showed that although both methods were beneficent, post-test scores of the students to whom the forms were taught explicitly were significantly higher than students to whom the forms were taught implicitly.

**Index Terms**—form-focused instruction, oral accuracy, implicit teaching, input enhancement, explicit teaching, metalinguistic explanation

## I. INTRODUCTION

Among the major issues raised by classroom SLA research is the controversial question of whether and how to include grammar in second language classrooms (Doughty and Williams, 1998). The question is reexamined in the role of focus on form in second language learning and teaching. The term *form* has often been used to refer to grammar and structural rules, but this is not the case. As Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, (2001) argue, focus on form can be aimed to phonology, vocabulary, discourse, grammar, or even spelling. There have seen a debate in foreign language (FL) teaching concerning the relative merits of focusing on formS (accuracy) as opposed to focusing on meaning (fluency). The proponents of audiolingualism argue that grammar is the main focus in FL teaching and immediate error correction is necessary and errors should be avoided at all costs (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). On the other hand, the theorists of natural approach such as Krashen and Terrell (1998) persist that explicit grammar teaching and error correction should be regarded as marginal components in the FL instruction. They maintain that overemphasizing on grammatical forms will interfere with the communicative purposes. Teachers who focus only on forms and accuracy may sacrifice learners' fluency. However, if teachers only put emphasis on meaning and no attention is paid to accuracy, then learners will not be accurate enough in using language in real context. Some drawbacks of these two theoretical approaches: The proponents of form-based and grammar-based instruction maintain that foreign language should be taught on the basis of pieces of grammatical parts, and learners have to put each part together by deductive learning; then they try to apply the rules to oral production (Nishimura, 2000). However, Krashen and Terrell (1998), and Fotos (1998) state that teaching grammatical rules usually fails to develop the ability of learners to communicate effectively. The other teaching strategy, meaning-based approach, is based on the way in which almost all children can naturally learn their first language successfully, and the proponents of this theory insist that even adults should be able to master their second/foreign language if they follow the natural principles of first language learning (Long & Robinson, 1998). According to Fotos (1998), purely communicative instruction alone is equally inadequate as long as grammatical instruction is neglected. Considering these two theoretical extremes, both theories have their own merits and deficiencies. It is now the crucial issue for FL teachers to develop effective teaching strategies to balance and combine both form and meaning. To do so, Long (1991), proposed Focus on Form (FonF) as medium to *focus on formS* and pure communicative approaches. He suggested that one way to encourage accuracy is through the concept of focus on form that target student's accuracy and focus on form "overtly draws students" attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose over-riding focus is on meaning or communication. Such attention, according to Schmidt (1990), is necessary for acquisition to take place. Accordingly, focus on form can be considered as a useful means which facilitates the process of communication development and increases the accuracy during real interaction. In another definition, focus on form is defined as "an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features - by the

teacher and/or one or more students - triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (Long & Robinson, 1998, p.23).

Furthermore focus on form is graded into explicit and implicit categories, which was the central scope of this study. Input enhancement, as an implicit focus on form, can be implemented through drawing learners' attention to the target grammatical item through typological methods such as underlining and italicizing. However, it has been argued that learners may fail to notice the target form which is present in the input. In addition, Swain and Lapkin (1995), in discussing the positive role of output, questioned whether input, though clearly essential, is sufficient to enable learners to notice the mismatch between their interlanguage and the target language. Advocating the positive role of output, Swain (1998) discussed the role of output in terms of metatalk or metalinguistic explanation, which may serve as deepening learner's awareness of forms and rules and make links between form, meaning, and function. On the basis of this discussion on more explicit teaching of target language forms, explicit focus on form emerged.

In addition to these theoretical views about focus on form instruction, many empirical studies have been conducted by several researchers to find out the effectiveness of the implicit and/or explicit focus on form. In a key article, Park (2005) claimed that effectiveness of focus on form instruction depends on two factors. The first one is Learner Readiness and the Target Form. It is important to note that learner readiness speaks to the learner's internally-created saliency whereas the target form speaks more to externally created saliency. The second factor is target form and the focus on form method. Once again, attentional capacity speaks to learner internal factors whereas the focus on form method speaks to external factors. Hence, it is evident that factors that correspond to internal saliency and external saliency necessarily go hand-in-hand. In other words, the target form should echo the learner's built-in syllabus (thereby generating internally-created saliency), and the FonF method should echo the learner's attentional constraints (thereby enhancing externally-created saliency) in order to culminate in successful focus on form. In this regard, and based on the results of this study, it may be speculated that achieving successful focus on form is largely dependent upon: 1- a sound understanding and respect for the learner's built-in syllabus, 2- gauging the learners' developmental readiness with regard to their learner-generated syllabus, and selecting a linguistic feature which is developmentally appropriate for a given group, and 3- employing an appropriate means to increase the perceptual salience of the target form.

What can be inferred from this study is that first, the strategy of eliciting required information from a written text or oral productions should be learnt; and then the tasks of this kind should be involved in syllabus designing process. Next, according to the type of target form and learners' attentional capacity, we should choose whether to present the target form implicitly or explicitly. If we decide to teach it implicitly, we must utilize an appropriate technique to increase the saliency of the target form.

Several experimental researches also have been conducted to compare the effectiveness of these two kinds of instruction. Ellis, Loewen, and Erelam (2006) have shown that the learners learn forms better when explicit form-focused instruction is utilized. In their study, based on the findings, they have stated that delayed explicit focus on form through metalinguistic feedback and meta-talk seems to be more effective than implicit focus on form through input enhancement and recast in L2 learning. In line with their study, Dabaghi (2008), found explicit attention to form through feedback and meta-talk to be more effective than implicit focus on form by the means of recast and implicit attention to form in terms of grammatical accuracy. Furthermore, Nguyen, Pham, and Pham (2012) claimed that although both methods (implicit and explicit Form-focused instruction) are effective in L2 learning, explicit one seems to be more effective on all measures.

However, Afshari and Oroujlou (2012) found implicit instruction to be more conducive to learners' overall accuracy in all aspects and to their oral accuracy in particular. Moreover, they found that though both focus on form techniques develop students' linguistic accuracy, implicit technique through the combination of clarification request plus recast turned out to be more effective than explicit post-task technique. Moreover, Siyyari (2005) have done a research about effectiveness of implicit focus on form in communicative tasks. In his research, he has reported implicit focus on form to be more effective than explicit one. He has stated that: 'Since one of the responsibilities of materials developers is to provide and sequence the content of teaching materials, especially the tasks, designing communicative tasks to provide opportunities for focus on form in one of the recommended ways, especially implicitly, seems very much advisable' (Siyyari, 2005).

Since little work have been done to determine the relative effects of implicit and explicit focus on form on oral accuracy of EFL learners, especially in Iranian context of situation, this research was conducted to show whether and to what extent these two categories of form-focused instruction affect the oral accuracy among Iranian EFL learners. So, the research question of this research is as follows:

RQ) whether and to what extent implicit and explicit focus on form instruction affect the oral accuracy of Iranian EFL learners?

## II. METHODOLOGY

### A. Participants

The participants of the current study were 41 low-intermediate EFL learners in a foreign language institute in Tabriz, Iran. They were divided into three different classes. Their ages were ranging from 14 to 22, and their first language was Azeri Turkish. 15students participated in class A (N=15), where the forms were taught implicitly; 14 students

participated in class B (N=14), in which explicit instruction was employed; and in class C as a control group, 12 students participated. Furthermore, according to the results obtained through proficiency test, all three groups found to be approximately at same level of proficiency.

#### *B. Instruments*

To accomplish the objectives of the study, a pre-test and a post-test was designed in interview format. Additionally, for the treatment stage, some tasks of different types (decision making, problem solving, jigsaw, dictogloss, and etc.), were designed or taken from some English language teaching books in order to introduce and practice the targeted form. Furthermore, a test of English proficiency was administered to the learners in two experimental groups before beginning the treatment to minimize the effects of differential proficiency levels on the results.

#### *C. Design*

This study included two independent variables (implicit and explicit focus on form), and a dependent variable (grammar knowledge enhancement of the students). This research was conducted in true experimental mode with use of two different kinds of treatment for two experimental groups, while another group was taken as control group. For the first group (class A), implicit focus on form was used, while for the second group (class B), explicit focus on form was utilized. In class C, which was considered as the control group for the study, no attempt was made to focus on form.

#### *D. Procedure*

The study was conducted in three English as Foreign Language (EFL) classes, where the classes took place three times a week and the researcher himself was the teacher of all three classes. Few days before starting the treatment, a proficiency test was given to the students to ensure that they were approximately at same level of English language proficiency. The results revealed that the classes were more or less at the same proficiency level. Afterwards, a pre-test of grammar was taken by the student. Next, twelve sessions (four weeks) of treatment was done in all three classes. In class A, the grammatical structures were taught implicitly through input enhancement by use of some techniques such as underlining, bolding, and abundance without any explicit explanation of forms; while in class B, the same structures were explained and mentioned explicitly by the teacher after doing the task or through metalinguistic explanation. It should be mentioned that the explanation of the structures in explicit instruction was given after doing the tasks. That is to say, while doing the task, learners' attention was drawn to form completely incidental and without any explicit mentioning. In class C as a control group, no attempt was made to focus on form neither in implicit, nor in explicit manner. After 12 sessions of treatment, a post-test was given to the students to assess the oral accuracy of the learners.

#### *E. Tasks*

For the aim of present study, it was important to design or find the tasks in such a way that the task itself would in natural way encourage the use of the target structure, but not forces it in any obligatory manner, therefore, minimizing task essentialness (for further information, see Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993). Different kinds of tasks were given to the learners during the treatment sessions (decision making, problem solving, jigsaw, dictogloss, and etc.). Some tasks were designed by the researcher, while some others were taken from some English language teaching books such as *Second Language Teaching & Learning* (Nunan, 1990); *Task-Based Language Teaching and Learning* (Ellis, 2003). Some examples of the utilized tasks are as follows:

In a jigsaw task, for first session of the treatment, a reading comprehension text which was divided into two halves was given to the learners and after reading it, they were asked to work with their partner who had read the other half of the story. The title of the story was 'Living in Zoo' which was about observing the acts of a tiger at a cage for two days. Learners were trying to negotiate meaning with each other and find out what the tiger have done during the first and second day. The purpose of the task was practicing simple past tense. In the fifth session, a decision making task was given to the learners through which some information was given to the students about educational, social, and cultural background of 5 persons. Subsequently, the learners were required to discuss on the given information in pairs and choose one of the guys as their English teacher and support their ideas. The purpose of this task was to focus on past perfect tense. For example, one the student produced these sentences in a teacher-student interaction:

Teacher: What is your idea Armin? Which person do you choose as your English teacher?

Student: I choose Mr. Johson.

Teacher: Can you tell us why?

Student: Because he has been in England for 23 years and he can speak English very well. He has received his certificates from famous universities and he has taught English for a long time.

Teacher: Hum, good idea.

Furthermore, some dictogloss tasks were presented to focus on aimed structures. For tenth session, a text was orally presented to the learners by teacher and then they were supposed to reproduce the text in written form and convey the overall meaning as accurate as possible. The text was about a person who has 100,000 Dollars and wants to buy a house. The form which was focused in this task was 'can' structure and that we should employ bare form of verb after using 'can'. However, these are just samples of the employed tasks and other tasks also were used in both experimental groups. During each session, one task was presented to students which aimed at the new target form.

### III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In order to analyze the gained scores from pre-test and post-test, SPSS software (version 19) was utilized. Moreover, the scores were ranging from 0 to 20. Firstly, the observed scores were analyzed through paired sample T-Test to identify if there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores within each group; the results are shown in Table.1 below:

TABLE1.  
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS (THE MEAN DIFFERENCE IS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.05 LEVEL).

Students of each class	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Class A post-test - pre-test	1.7	1.97	.51	.61	2.79	3.36	14	.005
Class B post-test - pre-test	4.11	2.35	.63	2.75	5.46	6.55	13	.000
Class C post-test - pre-test	.21	.58	.17	-.16	.58	1.24	11	.241

Paired sample T-Test was conducted to evaluate the impact of implicit and explicit instruction on students' score on a pre-test and post-test of oral accuracy through interview. The results showed that there is statistically significant increase in both implicit and the explicit instruction scores from pre-test to post-test since  $p$  factor ( $sig$ ) in both experimental groups found to be less than .05. However, in class C, which was considered as control group, no significant difference was found between pre-test and post-test scores. Furthermore, one-way ANOVA method was utilized to study mean variance between groups in terms of pre-test and post-test scores. That is to say, results obtained through ANOVA, helps to find out if there is any significant difference between groups according to pre-test and post-test scores. The results are shown in Table.2 below:

TABLE2.  
MEAN VARIANCE RESULTS BETWEEN GROUPS (THE MEAN DIFFERENCE IS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.05 LEVEL).

DEPENDENT VARIABLE	(I) CLASSES OF THE STUDENTS	(J) CLASSES OF THE STUDENTS	MEAN DIFFERENCE (I-J)	STD. ERROR	SIG.	95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL	
						LOWER BOUND	UPPER BOUND
PRE-TEST SCORES	CLASS A	CLASS B	.74	.88	.682	-1.41	2.88
	CLASS A	CLASS C	.08	.92	.995	-2.15	2.32
	CLASS B	CLASS C	-.65	.93	.763	-2.93	1.62
POST-TEST SCORES	CLASS A	CLASS B	-1.67	.61	.025	-3.16	-.18
	CLASS A	CLASS C	1.58	.64	.046	.027	3.12
	CLASS B	CLASS C	3.24	.65	.000	1.67	4.82

According to the findings shown in Table.2, no significant difference was found between pre-test scores of the three classes since  $p$  factor ( $sig$ ) between groups found to be more than 0.05 ( $p > .05$ ) in terms of all three comparisons. In addition to the findings of proficiency test, this finding also supports the approximate equality of proficiency level of the groups in terms of oral accuracy.

However, in terms of post-test scores, a significant difference was found between scores of the three classes. Scores of class A, compared to class C, showed significant difference since  $p$  ( $sig$ ) found to be .027, which is less than .05 ( $p < .05$ ). Similarly, in the case of class B, significant difference found in comparison with the control group, class C, whereas  $p$  factor ( $sig$ ) between these two classes found to be .000 which is again less than .05 ( $p < .05$ ). These findings show that both approaches (implicit and explicit) are effective, because of the fact that students who had received focus on form instruction, whether in implicit or explicit manner, did better on the post-test of oral accuracy than students who had not received focus on form instruction at all. Additionally, and maybe as the most important finding of this research, in terms of the two experimental groups (class A, and class B), when compared with each other, significant difference was found whereas  $p$  ( $sig$ ) found to be .006, which is less than .05 ( $p < .05$ ); and due to the fact that mean score of class B, where the grammatical structures were taught explicitly, was significantly higher than mean score obtained in class A, in which the grammatical structures were taught implicitly (mean difference=1.67), explicit instruction seemed to be more effective and suggestible.

### IV. DISCUSSION

The results revealed that although both methods of form teaching were effective, there is a significant difference between post-test scores of the experimental groups and students who received explicit form-focused instruction seemed to get higher scores than those who received implicit form-focused instruction. Therefore, explicit focus on form seems to be more effective than implicit one in terms of developing oral accuracy. The findings of this study is in line with those of Ellis, Loewen, and Erelam (2006), who has reported the delayed explicit focus on form and feedback to be more effective compared to implicit instruction. Similarly, Dabaghi (2008), based on his findings, has indicated that explicit focus on form is better than implicit one in terms of grammatical accuracy. Moreover, the outcomes of the study is consistent with results gained from the research conducted by Nguyen, Pham, and Pham (2012), who have found that explicit focus on form instruction is more profitable than implicit focus on form in all aspects.

However, the results of present research is in contrast with those of Afshari and Oroujlou (2012), in that they have claimed that implicit instruction is more useful to develop learners' accuracy in all dimensions. Additionally, there is opposition between the findings of the current study and those of Siyyari (2005), who has also found implicit focus on form to be more effective.

#### V. CONCLUSION

In sum, this research was a contrastive study which aimed to find out whether and to what extent two different approaches of focus on form (implicit and explicit) affect EFL learners' oral accuracy among Iranian EFL learners. The results of the study showed that both focus on form categories were effective in enhancing oral accuracy of EFL learners; however, explicit focus on form seemed to be more profitable than the implicit one. For further studies, it is recommended to investigate the effect of other categories of form-focused instruction on different skills or subskills of learners. Moreover, studies can be conducted to reexamine the probable effects of implicit and explicit focus on form on different learners in different proficiency levels, ages, areas, and cultural and educational background.

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# Dynamic Development of Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in Multilingual Learners' L1, L2 and L3 Writing

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**Abstract**—From a dynamic systems theory perspective, this study investigated the development of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) in five undergraduate multilingual learners' L1 (Chinese), L2 (English) and L3 (French) writing throughout an academic year. Via detailed analysis of the quantitative data, this study aims to longitudinally depict the dynamic and interactive development of CAF in multilingual learners' writing. Results show that the developmental patterns of CAF in multilingual learners' (especially each individual learner's) L1, L2 and L3 writing were characterized by non-linearity, recurrent and elusive increase and backsliding, emergent and constant changes, chaotic iteration, etc. Results also demonstrate that CAF components were integratively and interactively correlated with each other in multilingual learners' writing over time. The findings hold some implications for theories and methodologies of multilingual acquisition/development studies.

**Index Terms**—dynamic systems theory, complexity, accuracy, fluency, multilingual development

## I. INTRODUCTION

Within the theoretical framework of dynamic systems theory (DST), this study is implemented to observe the development of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) in five multilingual learners' L1, L2 and L3 writing throughout a 10-month period. Via in-depth analysis of the quantitative data, this study seeks to portray the dynamic and interactive developmental patterns of CAF in multilingual learners' writing over time. In what follows we present a literature overview of the relevant studies concerning DST and its application to language acquisition/development so as to theoretically and methodologically conceptualize our present research.

### A. *The DST Approach to First and Second Language Acquisition (SLA)*

DST, which grows directly from mathematics and physics, originally serves to analyze and model the nonlinear development and change of complex systems (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2013; Thelen & Smith, 2006). Simply speaking, DST is not a specific theory, but rather a very general approach to depicting and explaining change (van Geert, 2008). With the gradual and extensive acknowledgement of the cardinal principles within DST, scientists have increasingly introduced this theory to the study of human cognition and behavior development in the last two decades. For instance, Thelen and Smith (1994) and van Geert (1994), drawing upon the notion of development as a self-organizing system, were among the first to apply DST to developmental psychology. A great many groundbreaking positions are proposed by these psychologists, a crucial one being that, the "acquisition of mental life is continuous with all biological growth of form and function" (Thelen & Smith, 1994, p. XIII.) This is also applicable to language development, "which is not seen as something special in the cognitive system, but as a part of the larger system that develops in a similar fashion" (de Bot, 2008, p. 169). In other words, language development can be deemed as one aspect of general human development (de Bot, 2008).

The pioneering studies concerning DST carried out by developmental psychologists have inspired researchers of applied linguistics, which engenders a number of relevant books and articles on language and language learning from a DST perspective (see e.g., de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 1997, 2011, 2012; Verspoor, de Bot, & Lowie, 2011). As demonstrated by these publications, language embodies all the characteristics of dynamic systems, which include, e.g., sensitive dependence on initial conditions, self-adaption and self-organization, complete interconnectedness, nonlinearity and chaos in development, dependence on internal (cognitive) and external (social) resources, emergent properties (for detailed elaboration on characteristics of DST, see Larsen-Freeman, 1997, 2013; de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011). Then it follows naturally that many of the phenomena of interest to language acquisition, and language development in particular, can be regarded as dynamic systems as well (Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Spoelman & Verspoor, 2010), and this is true for both L1 and L2 development (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Here we may present two examples so as to account for the dynamics of language acquisition.



First, given the assumption that language acquisition is a dynamic and nonlinear process, there would be waxing and waning of patterns (i.e., much unpredictable variability) emerging from language development instead of discrete stages in which learners' performance is invariant (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Second, the inherent feature of dependence on internal and external recourses indicates that language is both a cognitive and a social phenomenon and that cognitive processing and social situation of language use can not be treated separately. This holistic notion of language properties elucidates that such factors as memory capacity, motivation, learners' identity, environment in which learning takes place may simultaneously and interactively exert profound effects on language acquisition (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2006). All in all, the conceptualizations of language and language acquisition from a DST perspective diverge fundamentally from the mainstream or traditional theories working with static or linear presuppositions (e.g., information processing approach) that have dominated cognitive sciences and applied linguistics in the past several decades (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007), and such an innovative theoretical and methodological framework may provide refreshing insights into our understanding and studying of language acquisition.

### B. *The DST Approach to Third Language Acquisition (TLA) or Multilingualism*

*From SLA to TLA or multilingualism.* In recent years, studies dedicated to TLA or multilingualism have rapidly thrived (see e.g., Aronin & Hufeisen, 2009; Cenoz & Jessner, 2000; Cenoz, 2013a; De Angelis, 2007; Herdina & Jessner, 2002), given that the population learning more than two languages is expanding sharply, and that important discrepancies between SLA and TLA have increasingly been recognized and uncovered by inquirers (see Cenoz, 2013a, 2013b; De Angelis, 2007). Admittedly, TLA shares many of the common grounds with SLA (e.g., they are both processes of acquiring a non-native language), but there are also significant distinctions between them, which have very often been ignored by SLA research (Cenoz, 2013a). The primary difference lies in the fact that third or additional language learners already have two or over two languages in their prior linguistic repertoire, which can influence the language learning processes in various ways (Cenoz, 2013a; De Angelis, 2007). Hence, it is obvious that learners of third or additional languages may take advantage of more linguistic resources (L1, L2 and other prior languages acquired) during the production and acquisition processes which SLA learners or bilinguals definitely do not have at their disposal (Cenoz, 2013a, 2013b; De Angelis, 2007). In reality, diverse elements such as learners' age and motivation, order of acquisition, instructional methods may all constitute distinguishing factors that may differentiate SLA from TLA (Cenoz, 2013a). Hufeisen (2004) accordingly proposed a position that salient qualitative differences could be discerned between SLA and TLA rather than between TLA and acquisition of more than three languages, i.e., acquisition of L4, L5, L6...Lx. All these facts raised above may therefore justify why TLA or multilingualism can elicit increasing attention in language acquisition studies, and TLA and multilingualism can be a promising and unique research terrain in applied linguistics.

*Multilingualism from the perspective of DST.* As manifested in the foregoing illustrations, language development is a complex and dynamic process. Concurrently with an increase in the quantity of languages involved in multilingual development, "the dynamics, that is, the changes and complexity of language learning, become even more evident" (Jessner, 2008, p. 270). From such a dynamic perspective, multilingual acquisition (especially multilingual development), a far more complicated process than SLA, is assumed to encompass several noticeable properties, e.g., constant and complex change over time, nonlinearity and reversibility in development, and interdependence of language systems (see Herdina & Jessner, 2002; Jessner, 2008). As stated in Jessner (2008), multilingual development undergoes constant and complex change in that all languages of multilinguals dynamically and continuously evolve and vary among and within individuals, and that even if certain parts of the multilingual system are to some degree fossilized, they may still more or less affect rest of the multilingual systems; in addition, nonlinearity and reversibility in the developmental processes points to the fact that the acquisition of an additional language (e.g., L3) can counteract L1 or L2 maintenance or growth, leading to more frequent occurrence of language attrition or loss in multilinguals as compared with bilinguals; last but not the least, interdependence of language systems signifies that all individual language systems within a multilingual system, intimately and intricately interconnected, need to be taken as a unified whole rather than as isolated and autonomous systems.

Over the last two years, there emerges a new noteworthy approach in multilingual research, namely *focus on multilingualism* (see, e.g., Cenoz, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2011), of which the essential norms are entirely deviant from the monolingual models that permeate the field of SLA research but seem inadequate in exploring multilingualism. Actually the basic frames of *focus on multilingualism* are perfectly in line with DST. Through employing a holistic view of multilingualism, this approach aims to observe the intense connectivity and complex dynamic interplay of all the languages within a multilingual's repertoire, and the way in which these languages support or compete with each other during the developmental processes. Such a notion definitely corresponds to the major properties of multilingual systems as assumed by DST. In this sense, while DST is expected to lay a solid theoretical foundation for ongoing and upcoming multilingual studies, *focus on multilingualism* may be considered as methodological specialization and actualization of DST.

### C. *Rationale for the Present Study*

Although the field of applied linguistics has witnessed an increasing number of language acquisition research within the DST framework, most of these investigations exclusively concentrated on native speakers' L1 or second language

learners' L2 development. Little has been done to observe multilinguals' L3 acquisition/development, and studies that holistically take into account learners' L1, L2 and L3 development are much scarcer (see Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2013). In light of the qualitative differences between SLA and TLA as well as the complex and dynamic nature of multilingual systems as presupposed by DST, the present study is intended to inquire into multilinguals' L1, L2 and L3 writings simultaneously via analysis of some developmental metrics, i.e., CAF, which may sketch a relatively complete picture of whether and how learners' multiple languages dynamically and interactively develop as represented in their writing.

Moreover, while some position papers have hypothetically proposed the dynamic model of multilingualism (e.g., Model of Multilingualism raised by Herdinan & Jessner 2002; Jessner, 2008) and certain approach to studying multilingualism (e.g., *focus on multilingualism* as mentioned above) which both theoretically conceptualize multilingual acquisition and methodologically blaze a novel trail for multilingual research, formal empirical studies that investigate the dynamism of multilingual acquisition/development are still scant. In other words, there is palpable imbalance between ample theories and deficient empirical evidence in the study of dynamic multilingual acquisition/development. Therefore, the present exploratory study is performed to fill this empirical gap in multilingual research.

In addition to the aforementioned points, the current research attaches utmost significance to multilingual learners' individual discrepancies, which is different from many foregoing studies of second/third language development (and studies of second/third language writing development in particular) that base their conclusions on mean analysis of group data (e.g., Biber & Gray, 2011; Sasaki, 2004, 2007). One might doubt that findings of individual details could not be generalized. However, the issue of *generalization* itself is somewhat problematic. For one thing, generalization in traditional statistics refers to the applicability of findings on the sample level to the population that the sample is assumed to represent, but drawing a representative sample from a population is very difficult and hardly any research in applied linguistics would rightly claim to be generalizable beyond the sample it is based on (Verspoor, de Bot & Lowie, 2011). For another, generalizations about learning, i.e., results yielded from mean analysis of group learners, may tremendously disguise individual variations, and are "elusive and not likely to hold regardless of individual differences" (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 594). In fact, "individual developmental paths, each with all its variation, maybe quite different from one another, even though in a GRAND SWEEP view these developmental paths are quite similar." (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007, p. 14). Individual variability is, in essence, not *error* or *noise* in second language development, and it can help reveal intriguing developmental mechanisms (Verspoor, Lowie, & van Dijk, 2008). Selinker (1972, p. 213) has already asserted that "a theory of second language learning that does not provide a central place for individual differences among learners cannot be considered acceptable". Therefore, aside from group averages, laying particular stress on individual's developmental aspects corresponds not only to the necessity of describing and explaining the development and use of multiple languages in individuals (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011), but also to the call for more studies of individual multilingual acquisition than group studies within the theoretical parameters of DST (see Jessner, 2008).

Last but not the least, this study, adopting CAF as the instruments to longitudinally measure multilingual development in writing, is aligned with the advocacy of integrating CAF studies with more dynamic descriptions as suggested by Norris and Ortega (2009). Irrespective of a few controversies over their roles in language acquisition, the three indices have long figured as important criteria to assess learners' written or oral productions or even as effective indicators of learners' L1 or L2/foreign languages proficiency underlying their performance (see Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Li, 2006). In recent years, Norris and Ortega (2009) argued that CAF, inconstant and unpredictable over time, was multifaceted, and its dynamics can be best understood integratively and across the full developmental trajectory (Spoelman & Verspoor, 2010). Likewise, Larsen-Freeman (2006) contended that capturing the ongoing emergence of CAF was one of the challenges facing SLA researchers. In the meantime, some perpetual puzzles pertinent to CAF, e.g., the interaction and interdependence of CAF components within learners' single language development (see Housen & Kuiken, 2009) or that of CAF constituents across learners' different languages, have yet to be resolved. Given all these observations raised above, the present inquiry is hence an attempt to obtain a detailed vision of the developmental trajectories concerning CAF in multilinguals' L1, L2 and L3 writing.

## II. METHODOLOGY

### A. Participants

Five third-year undergraduate Chinese students (one male and four females) from a university in China, ranging in age from 20 to 21 years, volunteered to participate in the study in exchange for payment, and all of them were actually quite interested in such a research. Here these students will be referred to as F, L, S, W, and Z to preserve their anonymity. They were enrolled in a 4-year undergraduate French Language and Literature Program, in which they took various French skill courses (e.g., reading, listening, speaking, writing and translation) of 15-18 hours per week. All Chinese French majors are obliged to finish this program to obtain a Degree of Bachelor of Art. In the French writing class, students would learn various models of writing, e.g., narration, exposition and argumentation, and they would receive instructions on a number of elements in writing, e.g., diction of vocabularies and syntax, employment of rhetoric strategies and cohesion to govern the textual construct.

Before entering college, these participants had no knowledge of French language and had, on average, received 9 years of formal compulsory EFL education and demonstrated English as well as other academic skills as part of the

university entrance process. Their English scores on the Chinese college entrance exam were above the 72 percentile nationally for Chinese college applicants. In college, they continued to take the 2-hour per week English language courses (e.g., reading, writing and speaking) which last for three years and are compulsory. Moreover, no one has ever experienced overseas education or has learned any languages other than mandarin Chinese, English and French. In a word, these multilingual learners have thus mandarin Chinese as their L1, English as L2 and French as L3 in terms of the chronological sequence of language acquisition. As for their foreign language proficiency, all of them have passed CET-6 (College English Test Band 6, the official national English proficiency test targeted at college students through the examination of the basic language skills, i.e., listening, reading, writing and translation) and TFS-4 (Test national du français enseigné à titre de spécialité niveau IV, the official national French proficiency test targeted at French majors through the examination of the basic language skills like speaking, listening, reading, writing, etc.), and all obtained moderate scores on these tests (from 66% to 73% of the full scores of the tests). Hence, both their L2 and L3 proficiency can be regarded as intermediate according to the ranking benchmark of foreign language proficiency as set forth by the College Foreign Language Teaching and Examination Committee of Chinese Ministry of Education.

### B. Data Collection

The participants performed the untimed writing tasks once every two months throughout an academic year (September 2011-June 2012), and in other words, the data were collected 5 times (October 2011, December 2011, February 2012, April 2012 and June 2012) over the 10-month period. Each time they were first asked to compose a narrative essay in Chinese (L1 writing). After a one-week interval they wrote in English (L2 writing), and finally they composed in French (L3 writing) a week after the L2 writing task. Neither dictionary nor reference books were allowed. The minimal required length for L1 writing was 500 *zi*<sup>1</sup>, and that for L2/L3 writing was 200 words. In addition, the topics across L1, L2 and L3 writing were the same. Altogether the participants carried out the narrative writing tasks of 5 specific topics (e.g., an event that makes me happy, an event that makes me angry, an unforgettable lesson in my life) respectively for each time of data collection. These topics, albeit seemingly different, unanimously fall under the umbrella of the genre of personal experience narratives, i.e., writers' monologues about very impressive personal events or experiences. Such kind of uniformity in genre, no doubt, makes the comparative inquiry of the longitudinal written data of distinct topics feasible.

### C. Data Analysis

All the writing samples were analyzed in terms of fluency (mean number of words per t-unit, a t-unit being a minimal terminal unit or an independent clause with whatever related subordinate clauses and non-clausal structures attached to or embedded in it), accuracy (the proportion of error-free t-units to total number of t-units), lexical complexity (Guiraud's index: word types divided by the square root of the word tokens) and grammatical complexity (mean number of clauses per t-unit), as these indices have been documented to be most reliable measures of language development in writing and speaking (see, e.g., Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998; Housen, Kuiken, & Vedder, 2012).

A significant point that merits attention is that we did not directly draw upon the definitions of clause and t-unit for English and other European languages (see, e.g., Hunt, 1965) in the analysis of L1 Chinese writings. Taking into account the syntactic differences between Chinese and Indo-European languages, we categorized these two concepts in Chinese writing by virtue of the operational definitions respectively proposed by Chu (1998) and Jiang (2013). Therefore, in our study a Chinese clause is a linguistic unit "minimally consisting of a predicate of various forms" (Chu, 1998, p. 354), and a Chinese t-unit is "a single main clause that contains one independent predicate plus whatever other subordinate clauses or non-clauses are attached to, or embedded within, that one main clause" (Jiang, 2013, p. 5). In addition, when demarcating type and token in Chinese writing, we calculated Chinese *word* (also named *syntactic word* by Chao, 1968), i.e., a minimal linguistic form that has meaning, can occur independently in speaking and writing (Fu, 1985; Zhu, 1982), and has translation equivalent in other languages (Chao, 1968), rather than Chinese *zi*. This procedure was achieved with the aid of ICTCLAS2013 (Zhang, 2013), an authoritative computer software program for identification and segmentation of Chinese words in written texts.

We independently coded all the written samples. Our interrater reliability was checked and reached 0.92. Then we examined each other's coding, discussed discrepancies, and attained 100% agreement. The quantitative data were finally plotted in Microsoft Excel charts for the sake of visualizing the complex and dynamic development of CAF in multilinguals' writing.

### D. Expected Findings

Very much like the research conducted by Larsen-Freeman (2006), this study, being exploratory in nature, does not aim to test any hypothesis, but expect to obtain, among other things, the following findings:

1. At the group level, multilingual learners may show stable and level patterns in their L1 writing development, with neither significant growth nor decrease, while they may demonstrate general linear downward trends in their L2 and

<sup>1</sup> The minimal free form (or the basic unit) in English and other Indo-European languages is *word* (see Bloomfield, 1933), whereas that in Chinese is *zi* (Chao, 1968; Zhu, 1982; Pan, 2002). There are no exact matches between Chinese *zi* and *word* in Indo-European languages, as the two units, despite some conceptual overlaps, have fundamental distinctions. In linguistic analysis, the approximate Chinese equivalent of *word* in English may be called *syntactic word* (see Chao, 1968), which can be a unigram (a single *zi*), bi/trigram (consisting of two or three *zi*), or even a four-gram.

overt smooth upward trajectories in L3 writing development in terms of CAF analyzed.

2. Non-linear/dynamic developmental processes and a great deal of variation (e.g., waxing and waning of language patterns with recurrent progression and regression, emergent and constant changes, iterative and chaotic development, no clear cut-off stages in development) may be identified in interindividual's (between individuals) L1, L2 and L3 writing via CAF analyzed.

3. Non-linear/dynamic developmental processes and a great deal of variation (e.g., waxing and waning of language patterns with recurrent progression and regression, emergent and constant changes, iterative and chaotic development, no clear cut-off stages in development) may be identified in intraindividual's (within one individual) L1, L2 and L3 writing via CAF analyzed.

4. CAF components do not develop in isolation, given that they may either support or compete with each other. The interaction and interdependence of CAF can be discerned within individual multilingual learner's writing of a single language and across individual's writings of different languages.

### III. RESULTS

#### A. Group Averages over Time

Fig. 1A-1C indicate that group averages of the four measurements in L1, L2 and L3 writing underwent almost entirely different developmental paths. Over the 10-month period, L1 fluency first increased sharply (from 13.94 in October to 15.49 in December), and then decreased substantially (from 15.49 in December to 13.08 in April) to the bottom point, and finally it grew again (from 13.08 in April to 15.31 in June). In contrast, L1 lexical complexity developed in a reversed fashion as compared with fluency: it declined from October to December (12.78→11.99), and between February and April it went through dramatic growths (11.99→12.82) and drops (12.82→11.74), and after April it slightly increased. Meanwhile, L1 accuracy went through a U-shaped development in which the peak (0.958 in October) fell rapidly to the valley (0.894 in February) and grew remarkably from February to June (0.894→0.94). Last, grammatical complexity measures revealed an overall declining tendency, with the exception of a minor increase in December.

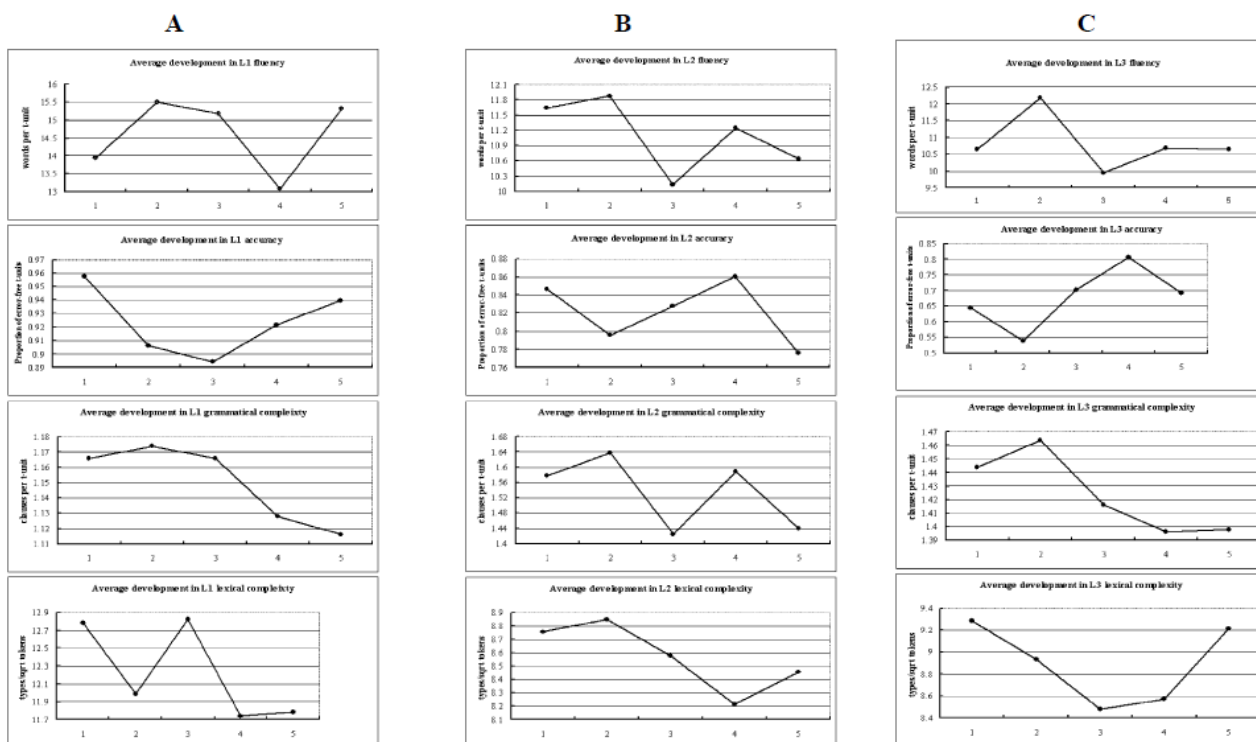


Figure 1. A: Group average development of CAF in L1 writing; B: Group average development of CAF in L2 writing; C: Group average development of CAF in L3 writing

As for L2 writing, although the last values in June of all the four indices were unanimously lower than the initial ones in October, their twisted developmental trajectories, teemed with waxes and wanes from time to time, were not demonstrative of linear and smooth downward trends. With respect to L3 writing, the fluency metrics underwent salient ups (10.64→12.18) and downs (12.18→9.94) from October to February, and after February it again increased slightly until June (9.94→10.65). L3 accuracy development, irrespective of its global upward tendency, actually went through salient regress (from 0.645 in October to 0.539 in February; from 0.807 in April to 0.692 in June) and substantial progress (from 0.539 in February to 0.807 in April) consecutively. In the meantime, grammatical complexity was

indicative of an overall declining path with the exception of slight growth in December, whereas lexical complexity exhibited a U-shaped curve (from 9.29 in October to 8.48 in February; from 8.48 in February to 9.22 in June).

Although group averages may provide some useful information for analyzing learner language development, they may nonetheless portray a process which can conceal a large body of variability (Larsen-Freeman, 2006), and has no validity for any individual (Sidman, 1960). Therefore, our study will focus primary endeavors on individual variations by disaggregating the group data.

*B. Interindividual Differences over Time*

In comparison with the group averages which seem to display relatively smoother curves, individuals showed a great deal of variability in all the four measures across L1, L2 and L3 writings (see Fig. 2A-2C). Actually none of the learners followed the group averaged trajectories. For their L2 and L3 writing, some of the variations were more pronounced and others relatively leveled off and less noticeable. But their performances, in the main, were in constant or even chaotic change over time, with recurrent growths and declines. Therefore, their L2 and L3 did not indicate regressive inconformity or progressive conformity to the target language norms, and individual developmental paths diverged significantly from each other. Meanwhile, it warrants further attention that even learners' L1 did not cease to change and were not supposedly fossilized, which demonstrates a number of individual differences.

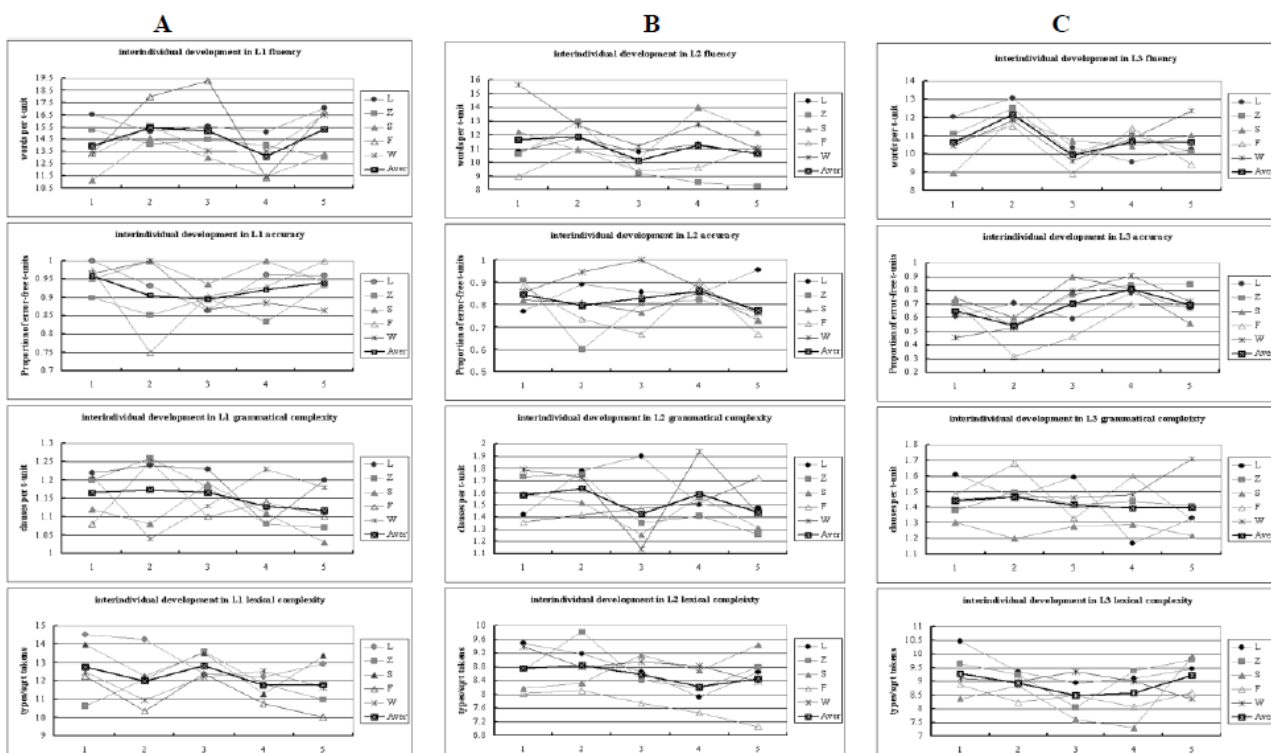


Figure 2. A: Interindividual development of CAF in L1 writing; B: Interindividual development of CAF in L2 writing; C: Interindividual development of CAF in L3 writing

*C. Intraindividual Variations over Time*

Intraindividual variations were examined in terms of two aspects. First, analyzing and comparing one single measurement across L1, L2 and L3 writing over time (e.g., fluency across L1, L2 and L3 writing). Second, observing all the four indices within writing of a single language (e.g., fluency, accuracy, grammatical complexity and lexical complexity in L1 writing) over time. For the second category of analysis, we normalized the performance measures by recalculating the data to values from 0-1 (see Verspoor, de Bot, & Lowie, 2011) so as to guarantee the comparability across the different constructs and represent all of them together within a single graph.

Due to limited space in the article, we can but selectively dwell on some intraindividual data to analyze the variations. We will start by probing one single measurement across L1, L2 and L3 writing and we may take the data from F as an example. As indicated in Fig. 3, L1, L2 and L3 fluency all ascended from October to December, and the growth for L1 was much more salient (from 13.42 to 18) than L2 (from 8.96 to 10.95) and L3 (from 10.67 to 11.53). From December to next June, L1 fluency dramatically declined (from 19.29 in February to 11.36 in April) and increased (from 11.36 in April to 16.7 in June). Over this period, though L2 and L3 fluency demonstrated fluctuations occasionally, their changes were obviously less pronounced in comparison with L1.

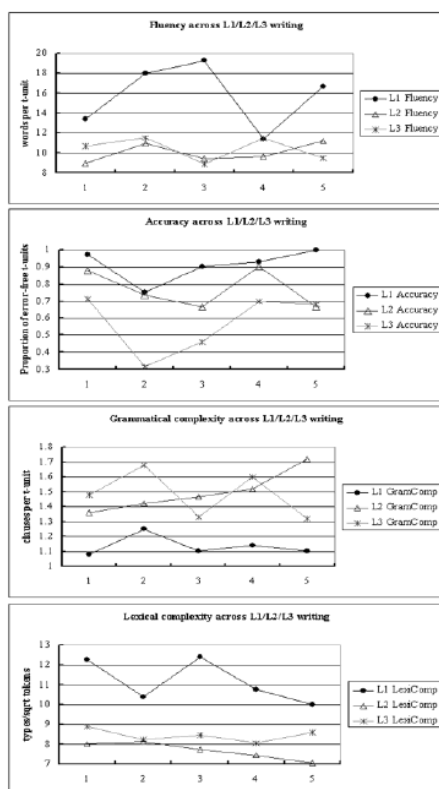


Figure 3. Intraindividual variation of a single index of CAF across F's L1/L2/L3 writing

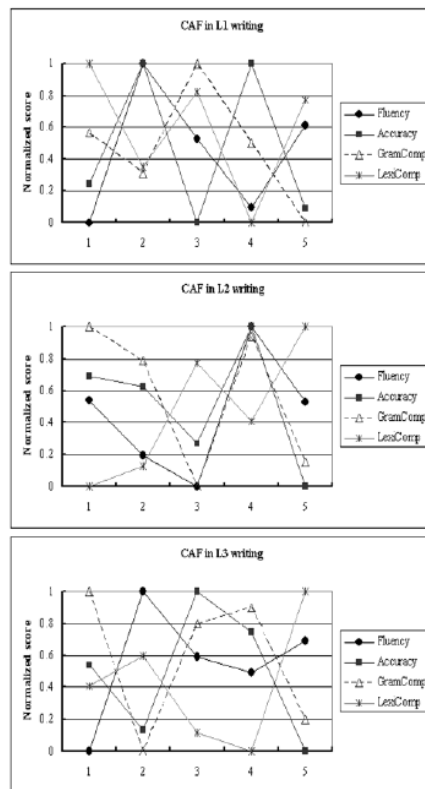


Figure 4. Intraindividual variation of CAF in S's writing of a single language over time

Concerning the accuracy index, initially it went down remarkably for L1 (from 0.97 to 0.75), L2 (from 0.88 to 0.74) and L3 (from 0.71 to 0.32). Then L1 accuracy continued to grow throughout the subsequent several months (L1 accuracy reached its peak, i.e., 1 in June). Meanwhile, L2 accuracy kept on decreasing and fell to the lowest point (0.67) in February, and after that it underwent conspicuous increase (from 0.67 in February to 0.9 in April) as well as decrease (from 0.9 in April to 0.67 in June). Over the period of December 2011 to June 2012, L3 accuracy witnessed a giant ascending leap (from 0.32 to 0.68).

With respect to grammatical complexity, it grew to its peak (1.25) in December in L1 writing, dropped remarkably from December to February (from 1.25 to 1.1), and for the rest six months it almost stabilized without any important changes. L2 complexity, on the other hand, was on the increase throughout the whole academic year, with a relatively more noticeable growth from April to June (1.52→1.72). Finally, L3 complexity embodied the largest variability as compared with L1 and L2 counterparts, because it alternatively went through salient increase (from October to December, 1.48→1.68; from February to April, 1.33→1.6) and decline (from December to February, 1.68→1.33; from April to June, 1.6→1.32) for two times.

As for lexical complexity, it initially exhibited a U-shaped curve in L1 writing (from October to December, 12.27→10.37; from December to February, 10.37→12.38), and then it went down constantly until June. In the meantime, L2 lexical complexity was in decline over the entire 10-month period, whereas the L3 equivalent underwent the U-shaped development twice successively in that time span (from October to December, 8.88→8.24, from December to February, 8.24→8.48; from February to April, 8.48→8.06, from April to June, 8.06→8.59).

For the sake of exploring the interactions of one measurement among F's L1, L2 and L3 writing (e.g., interactions between L1 fluency and L2 fluency; between L2 and L3 fluency; between L1 and L3 fluency) in the developmental processes, we further calculated the correlation coefficients. Table 1 and 2 demonstrates that certain degree of interplays of one single index among L1, L2 and L3 writing indeed existed. The positive correlations are indicative of a supportive relationship (i.e., variables develop in unison as they support each other), whereas the negative ones are suggestive of a competitive relationship (i.e., variables develop in alternating patterns as they compete with each other). There was, in particular, a significant positive correlation between L1 accuracy and L3 accuracy ( $r = .902, p < .05$ ), manifesting an intense supportive nexus between them.

TABLE 1  
THE INTERACTION OF A SINGLE MEASUREMENT OF CAF ACROSS F'S L1/L2/L3 WRITING (PEARSON'S R): PART ONE.

	L1 Fluency	L1 Accuracy	L1 GramComp	L1 LexiComp
L2 Fluency	.404			
L3 Fluency	-.571			
L2 Accuracy		.135		
L3 Accuracy		.902*		
L2 GramComp			-.214	
L3 GramComp			.787	
L2 LexiComp				.485
L3 LexiComp				..482

\*: Correlation is significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 2  
THE INTERACTION OF A SINGLE MEASUREMENT OF CAF ACROSS F'S L1/L2/L3 WRITING (PEARSON'S R): PART TWO.

	L2 Fluency	L2 Accuracy	L2 GramComp	L2 LexiComp
L3 Fluency	.034			
L3 Accuracy		.514		
L3 GramComp			-.503	
L3 LexiComp				.101

Apart from examining one single measurement across L1, L2 and L3 writing, we also looked into CAF within writings of a single language. Here we may take the data from S as an example. As Fig. 4 shows, CAF within L1, L2 and L3 writing went through almost entirely distinct or even chaotic developmental trajectories. In L1 writing, fluency successively exhibited dramatic increase and decrease from October to April (from October to December, 0→1; from December to April, 1→0.096), and afterwards it grew remarkably again. In contrast, grammatical complexity changed in an opposite fashion: it initially underwent pronounced decrease and increase, and from February onwards it dropped conspicuously. Meanwhile, accuracy developed in a reversed U-shaped manner twice over the ten months period (from October to December: 0.243→1, from December to February: 1→0; from February to April: 0→1, from April to June, 1→0.088). Likewise, lexical complexity also consecutively showed reversed U-shaped developmental curves for two times throughout the whole academic year.

As for L2 writing, fluency fell to the lowest point from October to February (from 0.54 to 0), grew sharply to the peak from February to April (from 0 to 1), and finally decreased remarkably (from 1 to 0.529). Accuracy and grammatical complexity developed in fashions quite analogous to fluency, with the exception that the lowest point for accuracy was in June and that the peak for grammatical complexity was in December. In comparison with the above three indices, lexical complexity indicated a distinct trajectory: it increased conspicuously from October to February (from 0 to 0.772), declined greatly from February to April (from 0.772 to 0.409), and developed dramatically to its peak over the last two months (from 0.409 to 1).

With regard to L3 writing, fluency at first went up remarkably from October to December (0→1), and afterwards it went down until April (1→0.492). Then it increased again from April to June (0.492→0.696). Accuracy and grammatical complexity, on the other hand, seemed to resemble each other in the developmental trajectory as they both consecutively went through U-shaped curve and reversed U-shaped curve throughout the entire period, but they also diverged noticeably in their rate of change at different times of data collection. In the meantime, lexical complexity underwent tiny growth (from October to December, 0.406→0.598), salient decline (from December to April, 0.598→0) and dramatic increase (from April to June, 0→1) one after another over the academic year.

In order to discover the interactions of CAF within S's writing of a single language, we computed the correlation coefficients as well. Table 3-5 revealed that CAF actually correlated with each other to some extent within L1, L2 and L3 writing. The interplay was especially conspicuous between accuracy and lexical complexity ( $r = -.883, p < .05$ ) in L1 writing, between lexical complexity and grammatical complexity ( $r = -.88, p < .05$ ) in L2 writing, and between accuracy and lexical complexity ( $r = -.917, p < .05$ ) in L3 writing, which indicated a strong competitive relationship within each pair.

TABLE 3  
THE CORRELATION OF CAF IN L1 WRITING OF S (PEARSON'S R).

	Fluency	Accuracy	Grammatical complexity
Fluency			
Accuracy	.133		
Grammatical Complexity	-.291	-.218	
Lexical complexity	-.088	-.883*	.165

\*: Correlation is significant at the .05 level



TABLE 4  
THE CORRELATION OF CAF IN L2 WRITING OF S (PEARSON'S R).

	Fluency	Accuracy	Grammatical complexity
Fluency			
Accuracy	.547		
Grammatical Complexity	.574	.876	
Lexical complexity	-.126	-.756	-.880*

\*: Correlation is significant at the .05 level

TABLE 5  
THE CORRELATION OF CAF IN L3 WRITING OF S (PEARSON'S R).

	Fluency	Accuracy	Grammatical complexity
Fluency			
Accuracy	-.416		
Grammatical Complexity	-.850	.811	
Lexical complexity	.316	-.917*	-.740

\*: Correlation is significant at the .05 level

#### IV. DISCUSSION

All the expectations as laid out earlier are met, with the exception of the first one. Results yielded from data analysis indicate that at the group level multilingual learners failed to show stable and level patterns in their L1 writing development, and they demonstrated neither general linear downward trends in their L2 nor overt smooth upward trajectories in L3 writing development in terms of CAF analyzed. In reality, CAF in group learners' L1, L2 and L3 writings all developed in non-linear and dynamic fashions, with continuous and erratic changes (e.g., ups and downs) from time to time. This finding is somewhat contradictory to the Model of Multilingual Development (see Herdina & Jessner, 2002, p. 123; Jessner, 2008, p. 272) which posits that multilingual learners' L3 undergoes persistent increase, and the durative growth of L3 counteracts the maintenance of L2 (or even L1), leading to gradual attrition or loss of L2 (or even L1). These multilingual learners of our study had at least 15 hours of L3 classes and only 2 hours of L2 classes per week. Such a significant imbalance between L2 and L3 input (as well as output) would, as we suppose, bring out apparent backsliding of L2 and salient progress in L3 over time, because the multilingual systems, influenced by the instructional and learning context, are expected to adaptively vary. However, in actual case the group of learners did not go through such patterns of linear and smooth change, and instead they showed much more reversible and dynamic manners of development in both their L2 and L3. Moreover, the current discovery further corroborates the recently updated version of Critical Period Hypothesis (see Singleton, 2005; Singleton & Ryan, 2004) which proposes that there is no absolute stabilization or fossilization of L1 even for adults. Hence, the notion of fossilization or stabilization may not be quite applicable to L1 development of adult multilinguals, given that their L1 still varies saliently and elusively after the age of 20.

True, the grand group averages have preliminarily sketched the dynamics of multilingual development in terms of CAF, but the individual data further complicate the matter. Given that individual differences are not very often addressed in language acquisition research, investigators tend to assume that individual learners may undergo approximately the same developmental trajectories as the group pathways (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). However, our finding uncovers that none of the multilingual learners resembled the group averaged curves, since each individual's developmental processes as indexed by CAF in writings of L1, L2 and L3 are all replete with considerable variability and numerous dynamic patterns like emergent growth and backsliding, sustained and iterative alternations, etc. One might question if learners fail to make linear progress in L2 and L3 writing during a one-year period of learning and practice, as there should be requirements at the University for them to pass certain tests and exams. Nevertheless, the static or linear presuppositions for language acquisition are quite contradictory to the principles of DST. In reality, the changing of many possible internal factors (e.g., memory capacity, motivation) and external factors (e.g., time invested to support learning, pressure from teachers and parents) might lead to both growth and attrition in language development. Therefore, what we have presented in this paper are the virtual language developmental processes, in which continuities and discontinuities would emerge. As stated by Spoelman and Verspoor (2010, p. 533), "within-subject variability is functional and occurs continuously in any developing complex system". Through the seemingly messy interindividual and intraindividual trajectories described in the section of *Results*, we can perceive that the fundamental properties of dynamic systems, e.g., nonlinearity, emergence and everlasting changes, are intrinsic to individual multilingual development. The discoveries about individual variations, coupled with the group development elaborated above, corroborate that multilingual acquisition/development is a non-linear, dynamic and complex process which is much more intricate than SLA or bilingualism and may not be adequately and simply accounted for by theories of SLA. In other words, multilingual acquisition/development deserves further attention of applied linguistic researchers and should become an important issue that is both intricately linked with and independent of SLA inquiries.

Last but not the least, certain degree of interplays between CAF components were identified within learners' writing of a single language as well as across learners' writing of different languages over time, and some interactions were



especially strong. Given that CAF have already been documented to be the most reliable indicators of language proficiency and language development, the present finding may further demonstrate that multilingual learners' different languages, as mirrored and measured by CAF in writing, are not in isolation, but rather, interactively bound up with each other over time. This interaction and independence of development in learners' multiple languages definitely conforms to the congenital characteristics of dynamic systems, i.e., all subsystems are integrative and are holistically interconnected to constitute a larger unified system.

## V. CONCLUSION

From a DST perspective, this study longitudinally probed the dynamic and interactive development of CAF in multilingual learners' L1, L2 and L3 writing over an academic year. Detailed analysis of the quantitative data shows that the developmental patterns of CAF in multilingual learners' (especially each individual learner's) L1, L2 and L3 writing were characterized by recurrent and elusive progression/regression, emergent and persistent changes, chaotic iteration, and by complex interactions among variables. Many implications can be drawn from this study, an important one being that, through exploring developmental trajectories and interplays of CAF in multilingual learners' (especially each individual learner's) writing, it justifies that multilingual development is indeed a dynamic and complicated process, which may supplement and provide further insights into forgoing and ongoing empirical studies and theories on multilingual acquisition/development. In addition, via adopting CAF dimensions to effectively capture the dynamics of multilingual learners' language development in writing, this investigation methodologically verifies that CAF, complexly integrative and interrelated constructs, can be used as valid indices of multilingual development and applied to the study of multilingualism.

However, this study, being exploratory in nature, did have its innate limitations. To begin with, we traced the development of CAF in multilingual learners' writing for only a 10-month period. In future research, a longitudinal corpus which covers a larger time span (e.g., 2-3 years) and includes denser data (e.g., data collected every month) is expected to shed more lights on the complex and dynamic patterns of multilingual development. Second, this study, following the canonical methods of DST (see, e.g., Marjolijn, Lowie, & de Bot, 2011), focuses on description rather than explanation of the language developmental processes. Revealing and explicating the reasons underlying these dynamic variations of multilingual development (e.g., why there is supportive and competitive relations between different measurements, why certain indices develop faster and more remarkable than others, what may be the possible internal/external factors that bring about these variations in multilingual development) fall within the major parameters of our ongoing and future inquiries.

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# Interactive Markers in Medical Research Articles Written by Iranian and Native Authors of ISI and Non-ISI Medical Journals: A Contrastive Metadiscourse Analysis of Method Section

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**Abstract**—The present study is concerned with the issue of whether there were any significant differences between the two groups- Iranian writers of ISI and non- ISI medical journals- in terms of the number and types of interactive markers. To this end, a corpus of 90 'method sections' of ISI and non- ISI English medical research articles written by Iranian and non- Iranian writers published between 2005 and 2010 were selected. Then, Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse markers was used as the model of analysis. After performing detailed quantitative and qualitative analyses of interactive markers, Chi- Square tests were run. Although the different groups of writers were found to have employed all sub-types of interactive markers, they were different by the use of them. The findings revealed significant differences between the ISI and non-ISI groups in binary comparisons ( $p=0.05$ ). The differences may be attributed to the writers' mother tongue, culture and also to their lack or limited awareness of the rhetorical conventions of English medical academic research writing.

**Index Terms**—metadiscourse analysis, interactive marker, method section, medical research article, Iranian, ISI journal

## I. INTRODUCTION

The dominance of English as the international language of research (Swales, 2004), has been established it as the language for research publication purposes in many disciplinary fields. On the other hand, language manifests itself into particular features of its own in different disciplines that create different genres and each discipline shares mechanisms of intercommunication among its members through, for instance, professional journals (Swales, 1990). Furthermore, research article (RA) genre was correctly glossed by Montgomery (1996) as 'master narrative of our time' (swales, 2010), that is, the scientist through RA genre as a form of persuasive writing attempts not simply to present new claims, but to ensure that those claims are accepted and ratified as new knowledge by the disciplinary community (Livnat, 2012). The latter is just the final rhetoric aim of RAs insomuch as Prelli (1989) claims that writing persuasive scientific academic texts, per se, in second or foreign language writing for being accepted, and published in particularly, internationally indexed or prestigious journals is a fundamental means of securing scientific change (Livnat, 2012). Medicine is no exception to this rule as medical research articles are the genre, the mastery of which is very important to the professional success of researchers. In fact, as Swales (1990) maintains, authors of medical research articles are required to know how to write in accordance with the social aims, the norms, and the conventions of their discourse community.

Theoretically, Hyon (1996) argues that genre scholarship has taken significantly different paths: a) English for specific purposes (ESP), b) North American New Rhetoric, and c) Australian systemic functional linguistics. His investigation (1996) reveals that ESP and Australian genre research provide ESL instructors with insights into the linguistic features of written texts as well as useful guidelines for presenting those features in classrooms. Hyon (1996) also argues that New Rhetoric scholarship offers language teachers fuller perspective on the institutional contexts around academic and professional genres and the functions genres serve within these settings.

Dudley-Evans (1998) in 'Genre studies in English for academic purposes' states that ESP genre analysis has its origins in Swales' (1981, 1990) seminal work on introductions of academic articles and then most of the work were done on written genre, as these are much more accessible and portable. Moreover, different types of genres in academic written English including textbooks, different sections of research articles, acknowledgements, theses and dissertations, and their titles and also in spoken genres as conference presentation were analyzed in various EAP fields of study.

As the literature in the area of contrastive genre analysis suggests, medical RAs published in ISI journals have not been studied for employing metadiscourse features. Furthermore, 'method section' of RAs has been paid the least attention in this regard. However, it should not lead us to think that writing 'method section' is relatively uncomplicated (Swales 2004) and 'method section' has been largely ignored while methods and procedures determine the ways in which other sections are constructed, and they give corporeal substance to the ideas, and produce certain kinds of data in certain amounts to make certain claims possible (Swales, 2010). Moreover, editors of major journals often operate 'methodological screens', and reject out of hand submissions that do not meet their methodological expectations (Swales, 2010).

Based on the abovementioned grounds, this study was conducted to contribute to evaluating academic medical journals, and would form a strong basis in understanding them linguistically in terms of interactive markers to exploit the outcomes for pedagogical goals and planning appropriate materials for explicit teaching of writing medical RAs.

## II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### A. *The Corpus*

This study examined 90 'method sections' of English medical research articles in English, having the standard IMRD structure published in ISI and non-ISI journals. They comprised the three study groups: Native, Iran ISI, and Iran non-ISI groups. Each of them consisted of 30 articles selected respectively from ISI Native journals, ISI Iranian Journals, and non-ISI Iranian journals. Thus, three groups of medical journals constituted the corpus of the study as follows:

1-English medical journals published in English native speaking contexts selected from among a ranking list at (SCImago) at the website of SJR including the highest impact and prestigious journals because popularity and prestige were both taken into consideration.

2-ISI Iranian medical journals selected from among a ranking list at (SCImago) under the title of Iranian journals indexed in international website of SJR.

3-Iranian non-ISI medical journals selected from among the general list of Scientific Information Database (SID) Articles Published in Iran.

To balance out the problem of peculiarities of writers' styles, these articles have been selected through stratified random sampling. Moreover, the same numbers of articles, that is, 5 articles were selected randomly from each journal regardless of their differences in terms of the frequency of annual publications.

### B. *Justification for Selecting ISI and non-ISI Groups of Journals*

Selecting ISI journals was carried out since they have always enjoyed the highest degree of prestige and credibility. Linguistically, ISI journals are particularly the product of implementing the rhetorical styles of the authors of the articles and also of the editors of the journals. Consequently, as expected, these journals publish articles with the highest quality of content and rhetorical styles. Taking the above-mentioned assumptions into account, discovering the probable differences between these two groups of medical articles may help the ESP academic writing planners to improve teaching materials and techniques as for medicine research article writing.

### C. *Justification for Selecting 'Method Section'*

Functional homogeneity among the corpus of study is of great salience. Thus, to provide reliability and also content validity of the corpus and also in order to extend the findings of the study to other articles of the corpus, a particular section as 'method section' of IMRD structure was chosen for the analysis of metadiscourse features within medical research articles.

### D. *Process of Random Selection of the Corpus*

The choice of research articles was based on a number of criteria; the first criterion was, having experimental design in order to have homogeneous data because research articles in medicine mainly deal with experimental research. The second criterion was, having IMRD structure. Then, the research articles were all restricted to those published within 2005-2010 with the assumption that time influences the style of the writers. To increase the external validity of findings, the articles were selected irrespective of medical specialty, that is, they were of diversity in subject as possible. Random selection was carried out 18 times for the 18 types of the journals to select 5 articles from each journal by means of *stattrek* stratified random sampling at (<http://stattrek.com/Tables/Random.aspx>).

### E. *Instrumentation*

#### 1. **The Framework of the study**

This study used Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse markers as the model of analysis. He has provided the probably most comprehensive framework for the study of metadiscourse and it is specifically named a model of metadiscourse in academic texts (Hyland, 2000; Hyland, 2005). He (Hyland, 2005) argues that metadiscourse does not simply uphold propositional content as it is the means by which propositional content is made coherent, intelligible, and persuasive to a particular audience. Therefore, Hyland's (2005) model recognizes that metadiscourse is comprised of the two dimensions of interaction: 1) The interactive dimension which concerns the writer's awareness of a

participating audience and the ways he or she seeks to accommodate its probable knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing abilities and the use of resources in this category addresses ways of organizing discourse and 2) The Interactional dimension which deals with the ways the writers conduct interaction by intruding and commenting, that is, metadiscourse here is evaluative, engaging, expressing solidarity, anticipating objections and responding to an imagined dialogue with others.

These two macro-categories were previously referred to as textual and interpersonal, respectively by Halliday in the systemic functional grammar. The change of labels was put forward by Hyland who claims that all metadiscourse needs to be conceptualized as an interpersonal feature of communication 'in that it takes account of reader's knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs (Hyland, 2010; Hyland 2005; Hyland and Tse, 2004).

#### *F. Procedure of the Study*

##### **1. Performing Pilot Test**

Performing pilot test at first stage demonstrated some significant differences as for the employed interactive markers between the mentioned study groups. Based on the feedback from the pilot test, the study was conducted completely using the Hyland's (2005) Model. The metadiscourse analysis of the articles was conducted through analyzing 'method sections' of all the medical articles to explore the frequency of the employed sub- types of interactive markers within them. Then, it was followed by qualitative stage.

##### **2. Quantitative Procedure**

A list of 267 potentially productive searched metadiscourse items to express the sub-types of interactive resources (Appendix) was compiled based on previous research on metadiscourse features (e.g. Hyland, 2007; Vazquez & Giner, 2009), and on a careful study of the corpus themselves for eliciting the most frequently occurring items in the articles being examined.

The research articles in PDF format were converted to text form by the Simpo PDF Converter software. Then, the texts were converted to an electronic corpus of 81,562 numbers of words using MAXQDA text analysis software and searched for the frequency of the specific features.

##### **3. Qualitative Procedure**

The results of the quantitative stage in the research articles were examined in the context to ensure the multi-functionality nature of interactive markers in method sections to verify the validity of the results and a small sample was double-checked by a colleague working independently to verify the results to attain the reliability of the findings.

##### **4. Performing normalization**

The frequencies of the interactive markers totally and individually as well as the total number of words were obtained. Since consistency of the length of the articles is a 'must' to make the results comparable, the obtained data was calculated in 10,000 words.

##### **5. Intra-rater and Inter-rater Reliability**

To determine inter- rater reliability, method sections of 90 randomly selected articles were analyzed by the researcher. Then, a small sample of the same articles analyzed by a colleague of the researcher- an M.A. holder of TEFL- who received sufficient training in doing the task. The obtained value of Spearman's correlation coefficient ( $\rho$ ) between the two ratings ( $r=0.81$ ) was an estimate of the high inter- rater reliability of the judgments made by the researcher and the rater. Furthermore, the second analysis of the same sections of the same articles by the researcher was done at a two weeks interval. The calculated correlation between the two results by the researcher ( $r=0.83$ ) was an estimate of high intra- rater reliability of the judgments made by the researcher on two different times.

#### *G. Data Analysis*

Inasmuch as the research questions concerning the metadiscourse analysis of the present study dealt with sets of binary comparisons including Native /Iran ISI, Native/Iran non- ISI, and Iran ISI/ Iran non- ISI, sets of statistical tests were performed on the data, that is, chi-square tests were run between the pairs of frequency counts concerning single sub-types of interactive markers individually, in order to examine probable significant differences between them to test the hypotheses of the present study.

##### **1. Hypotheses of the study**

1- There is no significant difference in employed interactive markers between medical ISI and non-ISI articles written by Iranian writers.

2-There is no significant difference in employed interactive markers between medical ISI articles written by Iranian writers and those written by native speakers of English.

##### **2. Research questions**

###### **2.1. Metadiscourse Approach to ESP Genre Studies**

1-What are distinctive features of medical articles written by Iranian writers in ISI and non-ISI journals as for employing interactive markers?

2-What are distinctive features of medical ISI articles written by Iranian writers and those written by native speakers of English as for employing interactive markers?

#### *H. Variables of the Study*

**1. The Dependent Variables**

The frequency of each sub-type of interactive markers used in method section of medical research articles by the three groups of writers.

**2. The Independent Variables**

The rhetorical aspect of using sub- types of interactive markers in ISI, and non- ISI medical research articles within the study groups.

III. RESULTS

Totally 3,657 instances of interactive markers were exploited within the corpus of the study. The Native group has employed 2,010 instances of interactive markers. The Iran ISI and the Iran non- ISI groups have employed 929 and 718 instances of interactive markers respectively (Table3.1). These findings are more clearly evident by a bar graph below (chart 3.1).

TABLE 3.1  
FREQUENCY RATES OF THE FIVE SUB -TYPES OF INTERACTIVE MARKERS INDIVIDUALLY, AND THOSE OF TOTAL INTERACTIVE MARKERS (THE RAW DATA)

Sub-types Of Interactive Markers	The Study Groups			Total
	Native	Iran ISI	Iran Non- ISI	
Code glosses	318	161	138	617
Evidentials	173	95	46	314
Transitions	881	477	282	1640
Frame markers	66	26	36	128
Endophorics	572	170	216	958
Total Interactive Markers	2010	929	718	3657
Total words	46944	16230	18388	81562

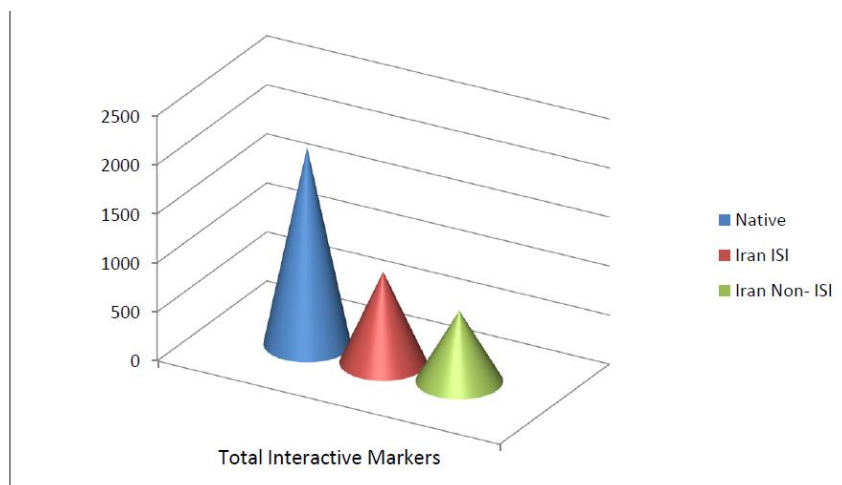


Chart 3.1 Bar graph representing total number of interactive markers across 'method section' of medical research articles used by the study groups

Statistically, the number of interactive markers, totally and individually were calculated per 10,000 words (Normalization). The Native group employed 428.17 instances of interactive markers, totally. The Iran ISI group with a total number of 572.40 instances for interactive markers stood in the highest position; however, the Iran non- ISI group with 390.47 instances of total interactive markers ranked the lowest position among the three study groups (Table 3.2). This is depicted by a bar graph below (chart 3.2).

TABLE 3.2  
FREQUENCY RATES OF THE 5 SUB-TYPES OF INTERACTIVE MARKERS INDIVIDUALLY AS WELL AS THOSE OF TOTAL INTERACTIVE MARKERS ACROSS 'METHOD SECTION' OF MEDICAL RESEARCH ARTICLES (PER 10,000 WORDS)

Sub-types of Interactive Markers	The Study Groups		
	Native	Iran ISI	Iran Non- ISI
Code glosses	67.74	99.20	75.05
Evidentials	36.85	58.53	25.02
Transitions	187.67	293.90	153.36
Frame markers	14.06	16.02	19.58
Endophorics	121.85	104.74	117.47
Total	428.17	572.40	390.47

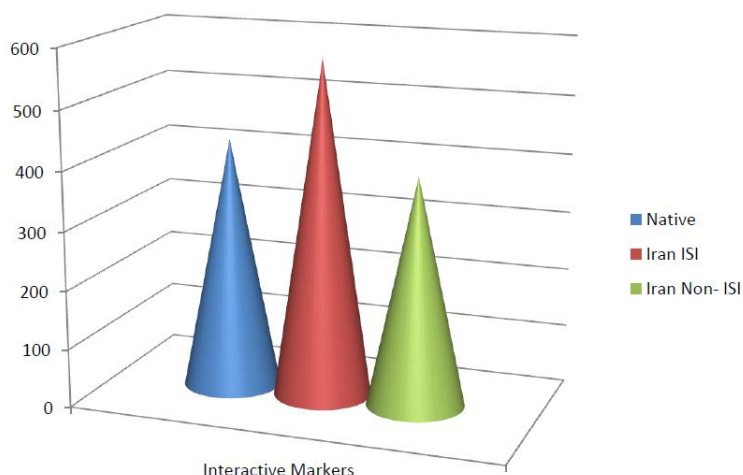


Chart 3.2 Bar Graph representing interactive markers across 'method section' of the medical research articles used by the study groups

Frequency rates of the five sub-Types of interactive markers in percentage terms indicated that transitions comprised maximum percentage of them used in each study group, but frame markers were of minimum percentage of interactive markers employed in each study group (Table 3.3). The findings are best depicted in chart 3.3 below.

TABLE 3.3.  
FREQUENCY RATES OF THE FIVE SUB-TYPES OF INTERACTIVE MARKERS ACROSS 'METHOD SECTION ' OF MEDICAL RESEARCH ARTICLES USED BY THE STUDY GROUPS (IN PERCENTAGE TERMS)

Sub-types of Interactive Markers	The Study Groups		
	Native	Iran ISI	Iran Non-ISI
Code glosses	15.82	17.33	19.22
Evidentials	8.61	10.23	6.41
Transitions	43.83	51.35	39.28
Frame markers	3.28	2.80	5.01
Endophorics	28.46	18.30	30.08
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>

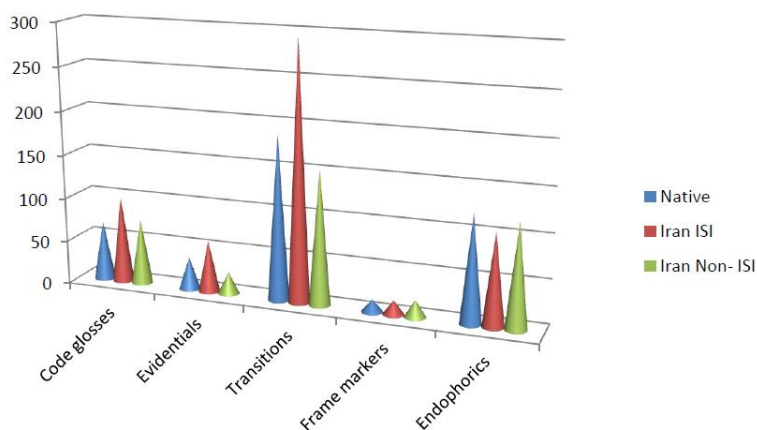


Chart3.3. Bar graph representing the five subtypes of interactive markers individually across 'method section' of medical research articles used by the study groups

Chi- Square tests were run in order to examine probable significant differences between the Native group and the other study groups for employing interactive markers individually. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the Native and the Iran ISI group in this regard (Table 3.4).

On the other hand, Chi- Square tests were run in order to examine probable significant differences between the Iran ISI group and the Iran non- ISI group. The findings indicated that there was a significant difference between the Iran ISI and the Iran non- ISI, for using interactive markers (Table 3.4).

TABLE 3.4  
RESULTS OF CHI- SQUARE TESTS OF THE NATIVE WRITERS AND THE OTHER STUDY GROUPS INDIVIDUALLY AS WELL AS OF THE IRAN ISI AND IRAN NON-ISI GROUPS FOR USING INTERACTIVE MARKERS ACROSS 'METHOD SECTION' OF MEDICAL RESEARCH ARTICLES

	The Binary Comparisons		
	Native / Iran ISI	Native / Iran Non- ISI	Iran ISI / Iran Non- ISI
Value of Chi- Square	20.79	1.74	34.37
DF	4	4	4
P	0.05	0.05	0.05
N	1000.57	818.64	962.87

Chi Square tests were run to determine probable significant differences within the binary comparisons including the Native/Iran ISI, Native/Iran non- ISI, and Iran ISI/Iran non- ISI as for employing each sub-type of interactive markers (Table3.5).

TABLE 3.5  
RESULTS OF CHI- SQUARE TESTS OF THE STUDY GROUPS INDIVIDUALLY, FOR USING EACH OF THE FIVE SUBTYPES OF INTERACTIVE MARKERS ACROSS 'METHOD SECTION' OF MEDICAL RESEARCH ARTICLES

Sub-types of Interactive Markers		The Binary Comparisons		
		Native / Iran ISI	Native / Iran Non- ISI	Iran ISI / Iran Non- ISI
Code glosses	Value of Chi- Square	5.93	0.37	3.35
	Number	166.94	142.79	174.25
Evidentials	Value of Chi- Square	4.93	2.26	13.45
	Number	95.38	61.87	83.55
Transitions	Value of Chi- Square	23.43	3.45	44.16
	Number	481.57	341.03	447.26
Frame markers	Value of Chi- Square	0.13	0.91	0.36
	Number	30.08	33.64	35.60
Endophorics	Value of Chi- Square	1.29	0.08	0.73
	Number	226.59	239.32	222.21
	DF	1	1	1
	P	0.05	0.05	0.05

Table 3.5 demonstrated that there were significant differences between the Native and the Iran ISI groups as for employing code glosses, evidentials, and transitions. The findings of Table 3.5 also revealed that there were significant differences between the Iran ISI and the Iran non- ISI group for using evidentials and transitions.

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Despite the discrepancy in employing the five sub- types of interactive markers within the study groups (Native and non- Native groups), it is remarkable that the ranked order of using them is identical within the study groups. On the other hand, as Mauranen (1993a, 1993b) and Vaero-Garces (1996) state different cultural backgrounds of writers have been found to influence the types and the number of employing metadiscourse features. Thus, it may mean that although the writers in the study groups may have different strategies in employing metadiscourse markers due to their different linguistic (L1, and L2 Interlanguage), cultural, educational, and social background, they, to a great degree, follow the same disciplinary culture and write within a unique framework identified by the genre (the 'method section' genre of medical research article genre).

As for employing '**code glosses**', the existence of significance between 'method section' of medical RAs written by the native writers, and those of the Iranian writers in ISI journals demonstrates that the Iranian ISI writers have not been similarly successful in employing code glosses as compared with the Native writers. Lack of significance between the Native and the Iranian non-ISI writers demonstrates the same similarity between 'method sections' of these two study groups in this respect. However, lack of significance between Iran ISI and Iran non- ISI groups shows that both of them have not been similarly successful in employing code glosses in comparison with the Native group. A glimpse at the findings reveals to us that the frequency rate of employed code glosses by the Iran non- ISI group stands roughly between those of the Native and the Iran ISI groups, that is, Iran non- ISI group has been successful merely, to the extent that the group are on the verge of becoming Native- like non- ISI group and has not been successful completely, in this regard.

Hyland (2007) argues that elaboration is a complex and important rhetorical function in academic writing that both its use and meanings vary according to different disciplines. On the other hand, code glosses are metadiscourse signals that demonstrate what the writer assumes an unfamiliar or an ambiguous usage. Thus, it seems that the special nature of 'method section' genre-abound with lists, tables, and diagrams- requires employing more code glosses.

As for employing '**evidentials**' the results indicate that the Iranian ISI group has not been similarly successful in employing evidentials in comparison with the Native group and the Iranian non- ISI groups.

The findings regarding employing evidentials by Iranian ISI and Iranian non- ISI writers suggest that Iranian ISI writers have not had the achievement in employing a normal frequency of evidentials (overusing) in their respective articles as the Native group; However, the Iranian non- ISI writers did indicate that they have been successful in using a normal frequency of evidentials.



The results concerning '**transitions**' demonstrate the same pattern as evidentials, that is, **Iranian ISI writers have not been successful** in employing a normal frequency in their articles as compared with the Native group. However, **the Iranian non- ISI group has achieved in using** a normal frequency of transitions as the Native writers. Moreover, there exists a significant difference between Iran ISI and Iran non- ISI groups in this respect. Transitions are the most frequently occurring interactive feature in 'method section' of medical research articles (187.67 instances per 10.000 words) within the Native group in this study. Transitions within texts indicate their readers how parts of the texts are connected to one another and also how they are organized (Vande Kopple 2002), and they are also the most common interactive markers because texts do not report the work of others and therefore most of the times refer to the internal sequencing of the discourse itself, and make internal relationships clear to specialist readers.

As Shokouhi (2009) states, according to Hinds(1987) frequent use of text connectors in English texts indicates Anglo-American writers' interests in producing more cohesive texts, which it can be a sign of a writer-responsible rhetoric, that is, an English writer provides clues in the texts so that the reader can piece together the logic that binds the discourse together, whereas in Persian, land markers may be weak and it is the responsibility of the reader to determine the relationships between any part of discourse and discourse as a whole. On the other hand, with regard to findings of the study, Iranian ISI writers show overusing code glosses, evidentials, and transitions. Therefore, in agreement with Shokouhi's (2009) argument, it may indicate that the Iran ISI group is more likely interested in explicitly organizing the texts and orienting the readers in order to provide them with the help to understand the text. Though the influence of overgeneralization and interference between English and Persian can be also taken into consideration, Crismore and Abdollehzadeh(2010) argue that the main reason behind indeed overusing interactive markers is that they challenge for being accepted by ISI journals because they may need to compete for a research space because of the much larger size of the discourse community and the increased possibility of audience rejection, thus they use interactive markers (except for frame markers and endophorics) **unconsciously more excessively** in order to gain community acceptance and solidarity with their audience, while the increased use of metadiscourse by learners cannot by itself be a sign of language development.

It is also added that as Rahman (2004) maintains excessive use of metadiscourse can be as disadvantageous as a limited use or no use of such expressions since they may interfere with the reading process and may look imposing and condescending. Further, the writers are aware that without using an appropriate amount of code glosses, evidentials, and frame markers which they bestow credibility to their propositions, their research papers could be seriously questioned (Abdi, 2009), and probably rejected, since reproducibility of 'method section' and research articles are founded on its credibility, clarity, and also its precision. Thus, this is confirmed that Iranian ISI writers need instruction on these three sub-types of interactive markers.

The results regarding employing '**frame markers**' and '**endophorics**' demonstrate the identical pattern as both Iranian ISI and Iranian non- ISI writers suggest have been successful in employing a normal frequency of these two sub-types of interactive markers in their articles in comparison with the Native group.

Frame markers tend to be shorter in 'method section' of medical articles because writers have less need of them to guide readers through a lengthy or complex text. (The average length of 'method section' in the present study: 1600 words).

This study attempted to shed some light on neglected genre-'method section'- of medical research articles in ISI (indexed) and non- ISI ones (non- indexed) journals, and the ways native and non- native writers of different nationalities employ interpersonal demands using Hyland's(2005) model of metadiscourse markers. As an overall picture of the present research the Iran ISI and Iran non- ISI groups show an excessive use of code glosses, evidentials, and transitions. Surprisingly, the Iranian non- ISI group demonstrates a better position in employing interactive markers within 'method section' of medical research articles as compared with the Iranian ISI group. Different explanations are offered to account for the differences. It is probable that some of the scholars in non- ISI group have not proceeded to publishing their articles in indexed journals, and if they were on the point of publishing them in high- prestigious journals, they would also become sensitized and overused metadiscourse markers unconsciously as the Iran ISI group did. It is also likely that publishing scientific content of the articles or the writers' affiliation influence over the process of being published in indexed journals.

The results could be used for pedagogical purposes and planning of ESP course for scholars of aimed at raising scholars' awareness of the importance of these rhetorical so that the disciplinary members' expectations are met in international context of publication in English.

Moreover, the results of the present study may contribute to making some revisions to selecting and evaluating international and national journals by preparing international disciplinary-oriented checklists for this purpose to achieve more reliable and valid outcomes in this regard. On the other hand, the results of the study could be discussed and also particularly, studied with regard to background cultural and linguistic considerations though there are some critiques as for this issue, for instance, Spack (1997) maintains that predicting cultures by means of explaining writing differences prompts a normative stance which leads to grouping students together on the basis of their first language background (Hyland, 2005; Hyland, 2006). This is a useful point, but conducting researches might help us understand the ways individuals write in a second language because in line with Hyland's. (2005) statement, basically the L2 writer is writing from his or her own familiar culture and the L1 reader is reading from another context, and so a possible explanation for

any difficulties of comprehension may be related to the amount of effort that the writer expects the reader to invest in the text.

#### A. Limitations of the Study

Since sample selection process is one of the crucial stages in conducting a study, at the beginning of the study it was decided to adopt the writers' names and their affiliation as the criteria of nativeness. However, these criteria were considered to be unreliable since the same names may be used by different scientists of different nations speaking different mother tongues. Regarding affiliation, academic members of a country are not necessarily natives of countries. Therefore, it is probable that the articles have been written or edited by a native or native-like English speaker. It caused to change the perspective as for nativeness and to present a novel definition in this regard in order to delimit and to maintain reliability of the study, that is, it is not the nativeness, and non-nativeness of the writer(s) of medical RAs which is of paramount importance. However, nativeness, and non-nativeness of the context in which the articles are published are of crucial importance. Further, it could be by-product of repetitive evaluations and revisions of articles by journals' editors. Therefore, the rhetorical style of each article is, at least partly, resulted from employing generic features.

The other notable point is that the issue 'who second language- speaking students are' is a vexed one linguistically, educationally, and politically. According to Paltridge and Starfield( 2007), rather than, a dichotomy between first- and second language speakers of English, it may be useful, as Swales suggests, to think of academic English proficiency as a continuum as at one pole is Broadly English Proficient (BEP) scholars and researchers who are either first or second language speakers of English and, if second language speakers, they are particularly bilingual within their disciplinary field, and at the other pole, those scholars who are more Narrowly English Proficient (NEP) since gradually ,many academic members and supervisors from non- English speaking background could make achievement in publishing and communicating in English.

The second limitation of the study was that, some of the medical journals especially non- ISI ones, which were normally required for random selection, could not be available, or some numbers of the journals were not available. Therefore, in some cases, hard copies or available online versions of the articles of these journals were used.

The third limitation is that principally, rhetorical analysis especially metadiscourse analysis is a so much time demanding. Ideally to attain the most reliable and valid results statistically, it requires more repetition of performing the test that virtually providing such a humanity power as researchers and raters is roughly implausible (Crismore & Abdollehzadeh, 2010). Therefore, the restricted numbers of raters were asked to analyze a limited number of articles and repetitions of metadiscourse analysis were carried out on a small sample of the same corpus of the study.

#### B. Suggestions

**A few suggestions are made about future research being based on the findings of the present study as follows:**

► While this study has embarked upon interactive features of 'method section' within ISI and non- ISI medical RAs, there could be other researches in the future examining introduction, results, and discussion sections of these articles with respect to metadiscourse analysis in order to present a more exhaustive description of Iranian and non- Iranian medical RAs and to improve the level of the learners' proficiency by deciphering the blind spots of the learners' rhetorical patterns.

► Articles written by Iranian authors within ISI and also non-ISI journals can be juxtaposed with those written by native authors to examine their respective linguistic and cultural characteristics as for metadiscourse markers.

► It is recommended that metadiscourse studies on different disciplines within IMRD structure of RAs written by non-native and native speakers of English be conducted in order to draw on the results to improve the level of educational planning in the country.

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# Lexicalisation in Japanese, Chinese and German: A Focus upon Scalarity\*

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**Abstract**—This paper brings the scalarity concept, in an effort to uncover how the lexical, morphological and syntactic resources of the three languages in focus (Japanese, Chinese and German) play essential roles when it comes to lexicalising motion events into linguistic forms. The findings bring us to the point that path-prominent languages seem to favour rendering path via verb roots, which gives rise to a restriction: one verb can only incorporate an endpoint in a single clause. This restriction prevents Japanese conflating sequential paths in a single clause. In manner-prominent languages, path is rendered via a path verb or a particle, meaning they exhibit two-faced characteristics of conflation. This two-faced characteristic invites a less restrictive morpho-syntactic environment for incorporating path information. In particular, the option of conveying the path via satellites (outside the verb roots) enables sequential paths. Chinese and German are typical in this respect. Moreover, in German, when path is expressed via a particle, sequential paths are accepted; when path is conveyed via a path verb, or a compound verb, only a single path is allowed. In Chinese, the occurrence of [spatial event + non-spatial event] is possible but conditioned: (a) syntactically, the single clause has to be bounded; (b) semantically, the motion path and resultative path are in a successive relation. In addition, the combination [non-spatial event + spatial event] is ruled out, as it disobeys the semantic condition: two events should be assigned to a successive relation.

**Index Terms**—Japanese, Chinese, German, lexicalization, scalar structure

## I. INTRODUCTION

Lexicalisation pattern has long been an overriding issue in typological linguistics (Talmy 1975, 1985, 1991, 2000; Choi & Bowerman, 1991; Naigles, Eisenberg, Kako, Hightner & McGraw, 1998; Papafragou, Massey & Gleitman, 2002; Allen, Kita, Brown, Turanli & Ishizuka, 2007). In Talmian typology, German and Chinese are allegedly satellite-framed languages, as they characteristically map the core schema onto satellites. Japanese, along with other Romance languages, is deemed to be a verb-framed language, as it habitually lexicalises path in the main verb, leaving manner to be encoded in an optional constituent. This view, however, has been challenged by many scholars from distinct camps. It is argued that lexicalisation patterns across languages are far from being a clear-cut case (e.g. Slobin 1996, 1997, 2000, Melka 2003, Croft 2001, 2003, Ramchand & Folli 2005, Levinson & Wilkins 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Beavers, Levin & Tham 2010). French, a canonical verb-framed language, has some verbs with directional prefixes, e.g. *ac* in *ac-courir* ‘to-run’ and *é* in *é-couler* ‘out-flow’, and allows a generic *until* marker to mark a goal with manner-of-motion verbs (see Kopecka 2006, Horn 1996). Italian, another deemed verb-framed language, employs adverbials (e.g. *fuori* ‘out’, *giù* ‘down’, and *su* ‘on’) to express the path with manner-of-motion verbs, which apparently resemble English particles. Russian allows goal-marking prepositions but at the same time requires verbal prefixes specifying the direction of motion.

The limitations in Talmy’s typology further extend to East Asian Languages, whereby satellites are conveyed by verbs. Li (2011, 2012) draws an observation that Japanese and Chinese have undeniable similarities in favouring a single verb to convey the core schema but meanwhile the two present distinctions in regard to morphology, i.e. boundary marker, prefixes, etc.

Another remarkable work in this field comes from Slobin (2004, 2006), who proposes a third type of lexicalisation pattern, *equipollent framing*, whereby ‘path and manner are expressed by equivalent grammatical forms’. A similar conclusion has been reached by Zlatev and Yangklang (2004) working on Thai, as well as by Ameka and Essegbey with regard to West African serial verb languages. This hypothesis appears to apply to languages that have productive verb compounds or serial verb constructions (SVCs). This view is challenged by Li (2012, 2013), who argues equipollent framing is not valid in relation to Chinese SVCs, as the multi-morphemes in SVCs are not equipollent, i.e. the first constituent describes the manner, the second indicates the path, and the third the deictic. Crucially, the third constituent ranks lower than the second constituent. This is probably down to the different degrees of grammaticalisation they have received.

One other important issue that concerns the typology is the concept of *boundary crossing*, which is introduced by Slobin (1996). Slobin looks at points when a motion event involves a moving entity crossing a boundary instead of

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telic/atelic distinction. Incorporating this, he achieves an intriguing prediction, i.e. that satellite-framed languages may encode manner of motion with manner verbs and particles, whilst verb-framed languages may encode manner of motion in adjuncts such as adverbials (Slobin 1996). Slobin's boundary crossing concept has been welcomed among linguists, with Filipović (2007) being the principal supporter. She compares English and Serbo-Croatian motion constructions from a situation types approach, inspired by the notion of boundary crossing. On the other hand, this concept is challenged by Naigles et al. (1998), who carried out experimental research and argue that speakers of verb-framed languages may also prefer manner verbs to express motion constructions in certain contexts.

Given this, it seems that current research does not have reached an adequate typology that would fit for solving the empirical problems.

This paper brings the scalarity concept, in an effort to uncover how the lexical, morphological and syntactic resources of the three languages in focus (Japanese, Chinese and German) play essential roles when it comes to lexicalising motion events into linguistic forms. Moreover, it explores the constraint on the incorporation of a path relation in the three languages with regard to 'boundary-crossing effects'. This paper is mapped out as follows. Section 2 provides an insight into the framework of this study, i.e. the scalar structure. It also introduces the concept of boundary crossing. Section 3 uncovers lexicalisation in Japanese in light of scalar structure. Section 4 turns to Chinese, looking at motion expressions conveyed via a single verb. Furthermore, it searches for the boundary crossing vs. non-boundary crossing that lie in Japanese, Chinese and German. Section 5 highlights the distinction made between single path and sequential path. Finally Section 6 concludes the paper.

## II. FRAMEWORK

This paper follows the scalarity as a point of departure and incorporates the boundary-crossing concept to account for how motion events are rendered in the three languages. The data for German are predominantly drawn from *taz*, which is a newspaper that appears nation-wide in Germany. This paper also uses the COSMAS corpus that is provided by the *Institut für Deutsche Sprache Mannheim*. The data for Modern Chinese is adopted from the corpus of Modern Chinese constructed by the Center for Chinese Linguistics at Beijing University. The data for Japanese is from the corpus of Balanced Corpus of Modern Written Japanese by National Institute for Japanese language and linguistics. For doing theoretical linguistics sufficiently, this paper also uses hand-made examples. And native speakers check all the hand-made examples.

### A. Scale Structure

Scalar structure is relatively a new line of research (Kennedy and Levin 2008, Kennedy 2012). According to Kennedy (2001) and Kennedy and McNally (2005), a scale is constituted by a set of degrees (points or intervals indicating measurement values) on a particular dimension (e.g. cost, depth, height, temperature), with an ordering relation. The dimension represents an attribute of an entity, with the degrees indicating the possible values of this attribute. Incorporating this, Levin (2010) notes that a scalar change in an entity involves a change in the value of one of its scalar-valued attributes in a particular direction on the relevant scale. Consequently, verbs that lexically specify a scale are called scalar change verbs, as in (1a). Verbs that do not lexicalise a scale are referred to as nonscalar change verbs, as in (1b):

- (1) a. scalar change verbs: *warm, cool, freeze, fall, rise...*  
 b. nonscalar change verbs: *roll, exercise, scream, laugh, jog...*

It should be noted that verbs such as *roll* and *jog* can be associated with a scale, but the events they represent probably do not lead to a change of state (see also Levin 2010).

There are two types of attributes, which give rise to two types of scalar change verbs:

- (2) a. change-of-state verbs (COS): *warm, cool, freeze, stretch...*  
 b. Inherently directed motion verbs (IDM): *arrive, fall, rise, approach...*

In the COS domain, the relation to the standard correlates with the direction of change, i.e. with an increase or decrease in value of the attribute, such as 'We froze the ice cream solid' (Rappaport Hovav & Levin 2010: 29). In the domain of motion, as Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2010) note, a scale can be understood in regard to the dimension of distance, i.e. the distance of the moving object with respect to the reference object (Rappaport Hovav & Levin 2010: 29). For example, the points in the scale of *arrive* are ordered in a direction stretching from the reference object, i.e. the starting point of the departure and the event we are heading towards.

At this stage, it seems necessary to shed more light on the type of IDM verbs.

In the motion domain, verbs can be classified by the nature of their associated scale, namely, path (Levin 2010):

- (i) IDM verbs with unbounded path: *rise, advance, recede*  
 (ii) IDM verbs bounded at the lower end: *leave, depart*  
 (iii) IDM verbs bounded at the upper end: *approach, reach*  
 (iv) IDM verbs with completely closed-scale: *exit, enter*

Levin (2010) points out that the points on the path lexicalised by IDM verbs are inherently ordered, i.e. towards or away from the source of gravity. For example, *approach* involves a movement toward the reference object, lexicalising an unbounded path. On the other hand, *reach* involves movement away from the reference object, lexicalising a

bounded path.

Scale structure is applicable to adpositions as well. To take two expressions that Talmy (2000) gives: ‘I walk across the pier’ is not acceptable, whereas ‘I walk along the pier’ is okay. The acceptability of ground NPs (noun phrase) varies based on the prepositions they follow. *Across* is a closed-scale preposition and is only suitable in expressions of motion in which the figure’s path begins at one edge and ends at the other edge of the ground (Talmy 2000: 324-326). On the other hand, *along* has an open-scale aspect and thus is compatible with cases where the path is longer than the perpendicular axis.

#### B. Boundary Crossing vs. Non-boundary Crossing

The term *boundary crossing*, was initially put forward by Aske (1989) regarding the importance of telicity. Slobin and Hoiting (1994) and Slobin (1997) developed it further in their work on Spanish motion events. Slobin (1997) refers to boundary-crossing events as those kinds of events where there is a boundary to be crossed in the way of the moving figure. For non-boundary-crossing situations, the types can encompass both the directional and locational meanings of particles, as in ‘He ran towards the park’ vs. ‘He ran in the park’ (see Filipovic 2007). The ‘boundary-crossing’ can be tackled as a reflection of the constraint on the incorporation of a path relation in the three languages in focus.

### III. LEXICALISATION IN JAPANESE

With the scalar structure as well as boundary crossing highlighted, this section proceeds by looking at the Japanese lexicalisation patterning. It is observed that motion constructions can be rendered via five grammatical elements: (a) postposition phrases: *ni*, *e*, *e-to*, involving a single path verb that entails or selects for the goal PP, as in (3a); (b) boundary markers, which head an adjunct PP and thus involves the boundary/goal inference, as in (3b); (c) verb compounding, whereby path is potentially conveyed via the main verb, as in (3c); and (d) participial complex predicates, whereby manner is expressed via a participial form, as in (3d) and (3e):

- (3) a. Taroo ga eki **ni itta**.  
Taroo NOM station to go PAST  
‘Taroo went to the station.’
- b. Taroo ga eki **made aruita**.  
Taroo NOM station till walk PAST  
‘Taroo walked to the station.’
- c. Taroo ga kaidan kara **koroge-ochita**.  
Taroo NOM stairs from roll-fall PAST  
‘Taroo rolled down the stairs.’
- d. Taroo ga eki **ni hasshitte-itta**.  
Taroo NOM station DAT run-go PAST  
‘Taroo ran to the station.’
- e. Taroo ga **aruite** eki **ni itta**.  
Taroo NOM walk station DAT go PAST  
‘Taroo went to the station on foot.’

In the following sections, discussion focuses upon two parts, i.e. (i) motion expression conveyed by a single verb; (ii) motion expression conveyed by complex predicates.

#### A. Motion Expressions Conveyed via a Single Verb

Below are partial lists of path and manner of motion verbs in Japanese:

##### (4) Manner verbs

*aruku* ‘walk’, *ayumu* ‘walk’, *oyogu* ‘swim’, *hashiru* ‘run’, *haseru* ‘run’, *kakeru* ‘run’, *hau* ‘crawl’, *suberu* ‘slide’, *odoru* ‘dance’, *korogaru* ‘tumble’, *haneru* ‘jump’, *mau* ‘dance’, *moguru* ‘dive’, *samayou* ‘wander’, *tobu* ‘fly’

##### (5) Path verbs

*agaru* ‘ascend’, *kudaru* ‘descend’, *deru* ‘exit’, *hairu* ‘entre’, *noboru* ‘climb’, *sagaru* ‘descend’, *yokogiru* ‘cross’, *chikazuku* ‘approach’, *oriru* ‘descend’, *tooru* ‘through’, *sugiru* ‘past’, *koeru* ‘transcend’, *sou* ‘go along’, *yoru* ‘approach’, *saru* ‘go away’, *hanareru* ‘leave’, *noku* ‘move backward’, *tsuku* ‘arrive’, *itaru* ‘get to’, *todoku* ‘reach’, *wataru* ‘cross’, *mawaru* ‘around’, *modoru* ‘return’, *kaeru* ‘return’, *heru* ‘pass’, *kasumeru* ‘flit’, *kuguru* ‘pass through’, *yokeru* ‘ward off’, *mukau* ‘go toward’, *sakarau* ‘go against’, *zureru* ‘slip out’, *utsuru* ‘shift’, *kayou* ‘ply’, *narabu* ‘queue up’, *noru* ‘get on’, *meguru* ‘move around’

##### (6) Pure motion verbs

*kuru* ‘come’, *iku* ‘go’

It seems that Japanese does not have a large set of manner of motion verbs. As a result, the English expressions *leap up*, *fly away* are rendered in Japanese via the same verb compound: *tobi-tatu* ‘fly-leave’. When a manner verb and a satellite are used in English or Chinese, Japanese tends to express the path in the main verb and the manner in an ideophone or a compound.

Moreover, the path verbs listed in (6) are mostly paired with transitive verbs, as in (7):

(7) *agaru-ageru, deru-dasu, hairu-ireru, oriru-orosu, tooru-toosu, sugiru-sugosu, sou-soeru, yoru-yoseru, hanareru-hanasu, noku-nokeru, tsuku-tsukeru, todoku-todokeru, wataru-tawasu, mawaru-mawasu, modoru-modosu, kaeru-kaesu, sagaru-sageru, kuguru-kugurasu, mukau-mukaeru, zureru-zurasu, utsuru-utsusu, kayou-kayowasu, narabu-naraberu, noru-noseru, susumu-susumeru, chikazuku-chikazukeru*

In light of scalar structure, this paper tentatively divides the morphemes of (4) – (6) into three classes: (a) non-scalar change morphemes; (b) open-scale morphemes; and (c) closed-scale morphemes. The classification is demonstrated in (8):

(8) a. **Non-scalar change morpheme**

*mawaru* ‘move around’, *meguru* ‘move around’, *zureru* ‘slip out’, *narabu* ‘queue up’, *kuguru* ‘pass through’, *yokeru* ‘ward off’, *sakarau* ‘go against’

b. **Open-scale change morpheme**

*agaru* ‘ascend’, *kudaru* ‘descend’, *noboru* ‘climb’, *oriru* ‘descend’, *sagaru* ‘descend’, *mukau* ‘go toward’, *noku* ‘withdraw’, *kasumeru* ‘flit’, *saru* ‘go away’, *hanareru* ‘leave’, *susumu* ‘go forward’, *chikazuku* ‘approach’

c. **Closed-scale change morpheme**

*deru* ‘exit’, *hairu* ‘entre’, *tooru* ‘through’, *suguru* ‘past’, *heru* ‘pass’, *wataru* ‘across’, *koeru* ‘transcend’, *yoru* ‘approach’, *tsuku* ‘arrive’, *itaru* ‘get to’, *todoku* ‘reach’, *modoru* ‘return’, *kaeru* ‘return’, *kayou* ‘ply’, *utsuru* ‘shift’, *noru* ‘get on’, *yokogiru* ‘cross’

Closed-scale change morphemes inherently have specific goals as part of their meanings. On the other hand, non-scalar and open-scale change morphemes do not entail such inherent endpoints. However, the endpoint of the motion can be supplied by a goal phrase, denoted by *made* ‘until’, as in (9):

(9) Taroo wa eki **made** aruita.

Taroo TOP station till walk PAST  
‘Taroo went to the station.’

The addition of the goal phrase to non-scalar change morphemes makes the aspectual properties of those morphemes available for an endpoint reading (see also Aske 1989; Beavers et al. 2010); meanwhile, the goal phrase functions as an accomplishment. Consequently, the motion path is conveyed outside of the head verb, with the result that the motion constructions conveyed by the non-scalar change morpheme.

The distinction between scale and non-scale change morpheme is further linked to the selections of ground NPs. Recall Nikitina’s (2008) classification of grounds, i.e. container grounds and area grounds. We assume that closed-scale morphemes, since they denote punctual transitions, are likely to occur with container ground NPs. On the other hand, non-scale and open-scale morphemes, since they entail durative processes, are likely to occur with area ground NPs. It turns out, then, that it is the motion verb that determines the selection of ground NPs. The following examples (taken from Kageyama 2009, but partially changed) illustrate how sometimes the difference in the ground NP is drawn in expressions based on which verb comes after it:

(10) [Non scalar change M + area Ground NP: duration transition]

Taroo wa **toori** o aruiteiru.  
Taroo TOP road ACC walk PROG  
‘Taroo is walking in the street.’

(11) [Closed-scale M + container Ground NP: punctual reading]

a. \*Taroo wa **kiri** ni haitta.  
Taroo TOP mist DAT lose PROG  
‘Taroo is lost in the mist.’

b. Taroo wa **kiri no naka** ni haitta.  
Taroo TOP mist GEN naka DAT walk PROG  
‘Taroo is lost in the mist.’

The ungrammaticality of (11a) is down to the noun *kiri* ‘mist’ being an area ground NP, which a manner of motion verb denoting a duration transition cannot co-occur with. Only when supplemented with a particle that denotes a specific container of a spatial (i.e. *kiri no naka* ‘inside of the mist’) can the expression be possible.

### B. Motion Expressions Rendered by PPs

Japanese does not have a large inventory of postpositions as Chinese and German do. If we go beyond the verb complex, we face a new set of issues to be taken into consideration, revolving around split intransitivity.

Motion expressions exhibit split intransitivity: (a) unergative verbs of manner of motion, i.e. *aruku* ‘walk’, *hashiru* ‘run’; and (b) unaccusative verbs of directed motion, i.e. *iku* ‘go’, *tsuku* ‘arrive’. The split relates to the selection of PPs, i.e. unergative verbs of manner of motion seem unable to appear with a directional PP as the path is conflated in a verb. This can be seen in (12) below:

(12) \*Taroo ga kooen **ni** aruita.  
Taroo NOM park DAT walk PAST  
‘Taroo walked to the park.’

The failure of Japanese *-ni* to conflate manner is down to the nature of the adposition, which is inherently locative (see Dini & Di Tomaso 1995; Cummins 1996; 1998; Song & Levin 1998). When occurring with a path verb, the

directional interpretation is attributed to the verb; when occurring with a manner verb, the postposition is unable to predicate a result location.

The ungrammaticality of (12) can be improved by replacing *ni* with *e*, changing the aspect from telic to atelic<sup>1</sup>. Thus, (12) is developed into (13):

- (13) ?Taroo ga kooen **e aruita.**  
 Taroo NOM park toward walk PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked to the park.’

*e-to* appears perfectly compatible with unergative verbs of manner of motion, as in (14):

- (14) Taroo ga kooen **e-to aruita.**  
 Taroo NOM park to walk PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked to the park.’

With regard to unaccusative verbs of directed motion, the three postpositions *e*, *e-to*, and *ni* are compatible, as in (15):

- (15) Taroo ga nikai **e/ni/e-to agatta.**  
 Taroo NOM upstairs to go up PAST  
 ‘Taroo went up to the second floor.’

The allative case marker *made* ‘until’ can appear with unaccusative verbs of directed motion, i.e. the path verb, as in (16a); with unergative verbs of manner of motion, i.e. manner verbs, as in (16b); and both unaccusative and unergative verbs, as in (16c):

- (16) a. [*made* + Path V]  
 Tama ga kaidan no shita **made ochita.**  
 Ball NOM stairs GEN bottom till fall PAST  
 ‘The coin fell down to the bottom of stairs.’  
 b. [*made* + Manner V]  
 Taroo wa eki **made aruita.**  
 Taroo TOP station till walk PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked to the station.’  
 c. [*made* + Manner V + Path V]  
 Taroo wa kaidan no shita **made korogochita.**  
 Taroo TOP stairs GEN bottom until fall-down PAST  
 ‘Taroo fell down to the bottom of the stairs.’

With this in place, perhaps we can give a rough classification of PPs, on the basis of Jackendoff’s (1983: 165) insights. First, there is a class of source markers that impose a locative condition on the initial part of the path, e.g. *kara* ‘from’, *yoru* ‘from’. Second, there is a class of goal-markers, e.g. *ni* ‘to’. These two types fall into the closed-scale group. Third, there is a class of markers involving route with or without an endpoint, e.g. *made* ‘till’. A fourth class is the route without an endpoint, e.g. *ni sotto* ‘along’. Fifth is the class of markers that involves a spatial ordering of the extremes of the path, e.g. *e* ‘toward’, *e-to* ‘towards’. The last two types are open-scale. A summary of the classification of postpositions is given in Table 1:

TABLE 1.  
 A CLASSIFICATION OF JAPANESE POSTPOSITIONS

Type	Postposition	Scalar property
Source	<i>kara, yori</i>	closed-scale
Goal	<i>ni</i>	closed-scale
Route (+endpoint)	<i>made</i>	closed/open-scale
Route (-endpoint)	<i>ni sotto</i> <sup>2</sup>	open-scale
Direction	<i>e, e-to</i>	open-scale

Perhaps we can pause and draw a preliminary conclusion here: the postposition *e* is more likely to be understood as English *towards*, with locations that can be viewed as ‘area ground NPs’. On the contrary, *made* is more likely to be understood as English *until*, with locations (or results) that can be viewed as delimited – that is, as being ‘containers’ rather than simply ‘areas’ in the sense of motion events. Moreover, *e-to* is composed by a directional postposition *e* with an indeterminate aspectual head *-to* (see Ayano 2009). As a result, *e-to* is compatible with a telic (see 13) as well as an atelic expression (see 14), meaning the ground NP that *e-to* denotes is more like something between direction *e* and delimitation *made*.

The differentiation on PPs is further tied to the durative/punctual distinction. In directional motion constructions, manner of motion verbs, such as *aruku* ‘walk’ and *hashiru* ‘run’, tend to describe processes with a duration and thus are

<sup>1</sup> The notion of ‘telicity’ has often been invoked to refer to an aspectual concept inherent to unaccusative verbs (cf. Tenny 1994; Van Valin 1990; Zaenen 1988, 1993). When an event includes an endpoint, it is said to be ‘telic’. When it represents a homogeneous event without an endpoint, it is said to be ‘atelic’.

<sup>2</sup> *sotto* is the gerundive form of the verb *sou* ‘go along’. It has been lexicalised and habitually occurs with *ni*. *Ni sotto* is regarded as a complex particle.



seldom found with locative adpositions (e.g. *ni* ‘to’) but are often found with indeterminate directional PPs (e.g. *e-to*, *e*; or a route with an endpoint, e.g. *made* ‘till’). Path verbs, such as *tsuku* ‘reach’ or *hairu* ‘enter’, are likely to indicate a punctual reading and thus can occur with goal-markers as well as locative adpositions. Incorporating Vendler’s (1957) verb classification<sup>3</sup>, we assume activity verbs (e.g. run, jump, *aruku* ‘walk’, *hashiru* ‘run’) and accomplishment verbs (e.g. hatch, *kaesu*) are likely to occur with open-scale markers, since they entail durative readings. Achievement verbs (e.g. arrive, fall, *tsuku* ‘reach’, *hairu* ‘enter’) tend to occur with closed-scale markers since they have punctual readings. The distinctions are illustrated in Figure 1:

P	Nature	Verbs it pairs	Ground NP it pairs
<i>ni</i>	locative	Path V	Container Ground NP
<i>e, e-to</i>	direction		
<i>made</i>	delimitation	Manner V	Area Ground NP

Figure 1. Differences between *e*, *e-to*, *ni* and *made*

An important distinction we have pointed out earlier, but which it is necessary to come back to at this point, is the scope of *made* vs. *ni*. *Ni* denotes a scope limited to the goal, as furnished by its appearance in locational motion events. The scope of *made* includes the route and the endpoint. It is necessary to bear in mind that *made* clauses do not always have to be bounded (e.g. *yama no ue made noboroo toshiteiru* ‘try to climb up to the top of the mountain (but haven’t reached it yet)’). Consequently, *made* is likely to occur with manner of motion verbs, such as *aruku* ‘walk’, (e.g. *eki made aruita*) or verbs like *oufuku suru* ‘go and return’, as well as path verbs. On the other hand, *ni* tends to be integrated with path verbs solely, such as *tsuku* ‘arrive’ and *chakuriku suru* ‘land’ (e.g. *eki ni \*aruita/tsuita*).

### C. Boundary Crossing vs. Non-boundary Crossing in Japanese

In Japanese, for constructions with a single ground NP, the use of a manner verb as a main verb in a non-boundary crossing expression is not as ill formed as the case in which an expression where a boundary crossing is predicated, as in (17):

- (17) a. ?Taroo ga kooen e aruita. (non-boundary crossing)  
 Taroo NOM park toward walk PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked to the park.’  
 b. \*Taroo ga kooen ni aruita. (boundary crossing)  
 Taroo NOM park to walk PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked to the park.’
- (18) Taroo ga kooen ni tsuita. (boundary crossing)  
 Taroo NOM park to walk PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked to the park.’

It appears that boundary crossing is more likely to occur in conjunction with achievement verbs (e.g. *tsuku* ‘reach’) than activity verbs (*aruku* ‘walk’). This is because, as Slobin (2006) points out, boundary crossing indicates a reading of a ‘change of state’. Since manner verbs are generally activity verbs, they can hardly be accepted in boundary-crossing expressions.

Regarding constructions with multiple ground NPs, when a non-boundary-crossing situation is to be expressed, Japanese tends to employ the combination of [manner verb + directional particle] and accumulate ground elements in relation to a single verb, as in (19):

- (19) Taroo wa ie o dete eki no hoo e hassitta.  
 Taroo TOP house ACC exit station GEN direction toward run PAST  
 ‘Taroo ran out of the house and ran to the station.’  
 (1 Manner verb; 2 Grounds)

As we can see, (19) above describes a non-boundary crossing motion with a manner verb *hashiru* ‘run’ and entails an atelic path phrase: *eki no hoo e* ‘towards the station’. As such, there seems to be no segment assigning a particular end-state.

When boundary crossing is to be expressed, Japanese cannot offer [manner verbs + directional particles] but has to go for one ground element per path verb, as in (20):

- (20) Taroo wa hashi o watari, fumikiri o koe,  
 Taroo TOP bridge ACC cross INF level crossing ACC cross INF  
 ie ni tsuita.  
 house DAT reach PAST  
 ‘Taroo crossed the bridge, crossed the level crossing and reached the house.’  
 [G<sub>1</sub>+V<sub>1</sub>+ G<sub>2</sub>+ V<sub>2</sub>+ G<sub>3</sub>+ V<sub>3</sub>]

As far as (20) is concerned, Japanese gives three path verbs, all of which encode path, and the manner segment is absent. Each ground NP indicates the endpoint of the motion, despite semantically appearing to be the source or the

<sup>3</sup> Vendler’s (1957) verb classification: (a) states love, know; (b) activities: run; (c) achievements: notice, die; (d) accomplishments: build, paint.

route.

Regarding COS constructions, satellite-framed languages can render COS with a satellite, as in (21) and (22), while verb-framed languages have a restriction against resultative nonverbal predicates, as in (23).

(21) Bill kicked the door **open**.

(22) Bill *tī* **kaī** *le* *mén*.

Bill kick open PAST door

(23) \*Bill *wa* *doa* *o* **kaihooteiki** *ni* **ketta**.

Bill TOP door ACC open COP kick-PAST

A possible explanation for this is offered by Aske (1989) and (Talmy 1991), where a verb-framed language has to predicate the COS in the main verb and express the manner in subordination. The constraint is further related to what Washio (1997) calls strong/weak resultatives, in that Japanese is simply missing strong resultatives. Establishing how boundary crossing vs. non-boundary crossing is manifested in Chinese will be discussed at length shortly.

It showed that the distinction of boundary crossing vs. non-boundary-crossing with regard to multiple ground NPs in Japanese is achieved by [manner verb + directional particle] vs. [one ground element per verb]. In the next section, we turn to Chinese, to see whether the two languages are different in terms of their manifestations of this distinction.

#### IV. LEXICALISATION IN CHINESE

Motion constructions in Chinese are rendered via two groups of grammatical elements: (a) lexical resources, including single verbs and reduplicative adverbials; and (b) syntactic resources, e.g. verb compounds. This paper primarily focuses upon the expressions conveyed by a single verb.

##### A. Motion Expressions Conveyed via a Single Verb

To start with, a partial list of path verbs is given below:

(24) (24) **Chinese path verbs**

*jìn*, 'enter'; *chū*, 'exit'; *shàng*, 'ascend'; *qǐ*, 'ascend'; *xià*, 'descend';

*guò*, 'cross'; *huí*, 'return'; *dào*, 'reach'; *lái*, 'come'; *qù*, 'go'

These morphemes can be divided into two groups in light of scalar structure: (a) open-scale morphemes; (b) closed-scale morphemes. The classification is demonstrated in (25):

(25) a. Open-scale change morpheme: *shàng* 'ascend', *xià* 'descend', *qǐ* 'ascend', *huí* 'return'

b. Closed-scale change morpheme: *jìn* 'enter', *chū* 'exit', *guò* 'cross', *dào* 'reach', *lái* 'come', *qù* 'go'

Some morphemes are fully grammaticalised and hence are considered to be directional complements (satellites), whereas others may still be capable to take a ground NP as object, making the whole structure like a VP, only with no causativity, as in (26) and (27):

(26) a. [Closed-scale change morpheme]

*dào rìběn* 'arrive at Japan'

b. [Open-scale change morpheme]

*huí rìběn* 'go back to Japan'

(27) [Closed-scale change morpheme]

a. *xì ài* 'go into business'

b. *chū guó* 'go abroad'

The combinations of each closed-scale change morpheme and ground noun phrase are strictly fixed. The morphemes *dào* and *huí* are not fully grammaticalised, as they can take an argument structure. Furthermore, when describing a telic motion event, some speakers admitted that it would have been natural if the manner segment were omitted (see 28), which, apparently, is a characteristic of verb framing.

(28) a. *qù xué xiào* 'go to school' (cf. Japanese: *gakko ni iku*)

b. *huí rì běn* 'go back to Japan' (cf. Japanese: *Nihon ni kaeru*)

Like path verbs, prepositions can introduce ground NPs. They form PPs, together with ground NPs. Two ways of formation are observed: (a) prepositions that habitually occur before manner verbs (Prep + Ground NP + V) are likely to express a source, as in (29):

(29) **cóng** *jiā lǐ* *pǎo chū lái*.

from house run-exit-come

'come out of the house.'

*Cóng* 'from' bears an ablative reading. This group of prepositions further includes *wǎng* 'towards', which functions as an allative, and *yánzhe* 'along'.

(30) **wǎng** *jiā lǐ* *pǎo*.

towards house run

'run towards the house.'

(31) **yánzhe** *hébīān* *pǎo*.

along bank run

'run along the river.'

(b) PPs that appear after manner verbs are likely to express a goal (V + Ground NP).

- (32) *cóng jiā lǐ pǎo dào xuéxiào.*  
 from home run arrive school  
 ‘run from home to school.’

Bear in mind that, in (32), the non-deictic path verb *dào* pairs with an ablative PP *cóng* ‘from’. Thus, its substantive reading has to be weakened. As a result, in this case it is more like an allative PP, indicating the endpoint of a motion.

There is another type of preposition, *zài* ‘at’, as observed by (Tai 1975), which can appear preverbally (V + *zài* + Ground NP) or postverbally (*zài* + Ground NP + V), as in (33):

- (33) a. *zǒu zài jiē shàng* ‘walk in the street’  
 b. *zài jiē shàng zǒu* ‘walk in the street’

Having all this in mind, perhaps we can classify the prepositions on the basis of Jackendoff’s (1983:165) insight:

- (a) A class of source P that imposes a locative condition on the initial part of the path, e.g. *cóng* ‘from’.  
 (b) A class of P that involves a spatial ordering of the extremes of the path, e.g. *yánzhe* ‘along’, *wǎng* ‘toward’  
 (c) A class of goal P that involves a route with an endpoint, e.g. *dào* ‘reach’  
 (d) A class of goal P that involves direction, e.g. *xiàng* ‘towards’

A summary of the classification is given in Table 2:

TABLE 2.  
 A CLASSIFICATION OF CHINESE PREPOSITIONS

Types	Prepositions	Scalar property	Position
Source	<i>cóng</i> ‘from’	closed-scale	preverbally
Route (-endpoint)	<i>yánzhe</i> ‘along’	open-scale	preverbally
	<i>wǎng</i> ‘toward’	open-scale	preverbally
Route (+endpoint)	<i>dào</i> ‘reach’	closed-scale	postverbally
Direction	<i>xiàng</i> ‘towards’	open-scale	post/preverbally

### B. Boundary Crossing vs. Non-boundary Crossing in Chinese

We first look at expressions with one ground NP. It is noticed that both non-boundary-crossing and boundary crossing situations can be achieved via the combination of [manner verb + directional complement], as in (34):

- (34) a. *Wǒ zǒu xiàng wòshì* (non-boundary crossing)  
 I walk toward bedroom  
 ‘I walk toward the bedroom.’  
 b. *Wǒ zǒu jìn le wòshì* (boundary crossing)  
 I walk enter PAST bedroom  
 ‘I walk toward the bedroom.’

For multiple ground NPs, when a non-boundary-crossing situation is to be expressed, there can be two ways: go for one ground element per manner verb, per satellite, as in (35a), or to employ the combination of [manner verb + directional particle] and accumulate ground elements onto a single manner verb, as in (35b):

- (35) a. *wǒ zǒu chū jiā, pǎo xiàng chēzhàn.*  
 I walk out house run toward station  
 ‘I walked out of the house and ran toward the station.’  
 [MV<sub>1</sub> + Sat<sub>1</sub> + G<sub>1</sub> + MV<sub>2</sub> + Sat<sub>1</sub> + G<sub>2</sub>]<sup>4</sup>  
 b. *wǒ cóng jiālǐ chū lái, xiàng chēzhàn pǎo qù*  
 I from house exit-come toward station run go  
 ‘I walked out of the house and ran toward the station.’  
 [G<sub>1</sub> + Sat<sub>1</sub> + G<sub>2</sub> + MV + Sat<sub>2</sub>]

In (35a), there are two manner verbs: *zǒu* ‘walk’ and *pǎo* ‘run’. In (35b), the whole motion entails only one, i.e. *zǒu* ‘walk’. The strategy exhibited in (35b) comes to resemble English, as shown in (36):

- (36) Bill walked through the streets, from the jail to the marshy point.

When it comes to a boundary-crossing situation, like Japanese, Chinese cannot amass all the directional phrases onto one manner verb. But Chinese is different to Japanese in that the manner segment cannot be omitted. Thus, in (37), there will be three manner verbs and three directional complements:

- (37) *Tā zǒu xià shān, dùguò hé, chuān guò xiǎojìng, lái dào le jiàotáng.*  
 3SG walk-down hill cross-over river cross-over path come-arrive PAST chapel  
 ‘He walked down the hill **across** the bridge and **through** the pasture **to** the chapel.’  
 [MV<sub>1</sub> + Sat<sub>1</sub> + G<sub>1</sub> + MV<sub>2</sub> + Sat<sub>2</sub> + G<sub>2</sub> + MV<sub>3</sub> + Sat<sub>3</sub> + G<sub>3</sub> + Sat<sub>4</sub> + G<sub>4</sub>]

Each ground NP in (37) indicates an endpoint of a motion despite the semantic indication that they might be the source or the route.

<sup>4</sup> MV: motion verb; Sat: satellite; G: ground;

### C. Boundary Crossing vs. Non-boundary Crossing in German

To confirm our findings, we will briefly draw a parallel with a related situation in German, a language generally conceived of as satellite framing. In German, path can be indicated by case on a nominal argument. There is no doubt that the interpretations of the following two expressions are distinct: when a boundary-crossing situation is to be expressed, an accusative case *über die* ‘over the’ is used, giving rise to a directional reading (see 38a); when the non-boundary crossing situation is to be expressed, a dative case *über der* ‘over the’ is used, inviting a locational reading (see 38b):

- (38) a. Directional motion  
 Das Flugzeug flog **über** die Stadt.  
 The airplane flew over the-ACC town
- b. Locational motion  
 Das Flugzeug flog **über** der Stadt.  
 The airplane flew over the-DAT town  
 (Wienold 1995)

With regard to multiple ground NPs, when it comes to a non-boundary crossing situation, German can amass all the directional phrases onto one manner verb, as in (39):

- (39) **Multiple ground NPs (non-boundary crossing)**  
 Ich ging durch die Küchentür und an der Sitzecke  
 I walk-PAST through the kitchen door and the sitting room vorbei zum Garten des Nachbarn.  
 past towards garden of neighbor  
 ‘I walked out the kitchen door, past the sitting room, towards the neighbour’s garden.’  
 [MV<sub>1</sub>+Sat<sub>1</sub>+G<sub>1</sub>+G<sub>2</sub>+Sat<sub>2</sub>+Sat<sub>3</sub>+G<sub>3</sub>]

When it comes to a boundary-crossing situation, there are two possibilities, i.e. go for one ground element per manner verb and per particle, as in (40a), or amass all the directional phrases onto one manner verb, as in (40b):

- (40) **Multiple ground NPs (boundary crossing)**
- a. Bill **schlenderte** langsam **durch** die Straßen und  
 Bill walk slowly through the streets and  
**ging vom** Marktplatz **bis zum** Museum.  
 walked from the square till the museum  
 ‘Bill walked slowly through the streets, from the square to the museum.’  
 [MV<sub>1</sub>+Sat<sub>1</sub>+G<sub>1</sub>+MV<sub>2</sub>+Sat<sub>2</sub>+G<sub>2</sub>+Sat<sub>3</sub>+G<sub>3</sub>]
- b. Bill **ging** langsam **durch** die Strassen, **vom** Marktplatz  
 Bill walk-PAST slowly through the streets from the square  
**bis zum** Museum.  
 till the museum  
 ‘Bill walked slowly through the streets, from the square to the museum.’  
 [MV<sub>1</sub>+Sat<sub>1</sub>+G<sub>1</sub>+Sat<sub>2</sub>+G<sub>2</sub>+Sat<sub>3</sub>+G<sub>3</sub>]

## V. SINGLE/SEQUENTIAL PATHS IN JAPANESE, CHINESE AND GERMAN

There is another important aspect that has relevance to the comparison of the languages, i.e. the distinction made between single path and sequential path. In this section, this phenomenon is to be discussed in depth.

To begin with, compare the following two expressions:

- (41) a. Taroo ga ie no naka kara niwa ni **deta**.  
 Taroo NOM house GEN inside allative garden DAT enter  
 ‘Taroo walked out of the house into the garden.’
- b. \*Taroo ga ie no naka kara toshokan ni **deta**.  
 Taroo NOM house GEN inside allative library DAT enter  
 ‘Taroo walked out of the house and into the library.’

The distinct treatments of (41) probably have to do with the property of the path. In (41a), the two ground elements, *ie no naka* ‘house’ and *niwa* ‘garden’, are assigned in a contiguity relation, thus the path in (41a) is single. However, in (41b), the two ground elements (*ie no naka* ‘house’ and *toshokan* ‘library’) are not on the same level: *ie no naka* is a closed space whilst *toshokan* is a building. Therefore, (41b) shows sequential paths. Thus, employing a biclausal conveys a range of head verbs in a coordinate position, as in (42):

- (42) Taroo ga ie no naka kara **dete** toshokan ni **itta**.  
 Taroo NOM house GEN inside allative exit GER library DAT go PAST  
 ‘Taroo walked out of the house and went to the library.’

This distinction of single/sequential path further extends to German. The following illustrations are taken from Bellavia (1996):

- (43) **Sequential path in German**  
 a. Sie wanderten durch die Alpen nach Berlin/Füssen.

She wander-PAST through the Alpen towards Berlin/Füssen  
 ‘She wandered through the Alps to Berlin-Füssen.’

- b. Sie durchwanderten die Alpen nach \*Berlin/Füssen.  
 She through-wander-PAST the Alpen towards Berlin/Füssen  
 ‘She wandered through the Alps to Berlin-Füssen.’

The path in (43a) is conveyed by particle *durch* which is outside the verb root. Such conflation enables sequential paths. When path is rendered via a verb compound, *durchwanderten*, as in (43b), it turns out that the path is incorporated in the verb root, which blocks sequential paths. Thus, only *Füssen* is allowed owing to *Füssen* being on the edge of *Alpen*, whilst *Berlin* is blocked as *Berlin* is not on the edge of the Alps (see also Bellavia 1996).

Returning to Chinese, sequential paths are well accepted, as in (44):

(44) a. **Single path**

Taroo c ńng ch ńf ńng d ào le w ńsh ì  
 Taroo from kitchen enter PAST bedroom  
 ‘Taroo walked out of the kitchen and entered the bedroom.’

b. **Sequential path**

Taroo c ńng jì ńsh ì q ń le túshūguǎn. (non-boundary crossing)  
 Taroo from classroom go PAST library  
 ‘Taroo walked out of the classroom and headed off to the library.’

- c. ?Taroo c ńng ji ńoshi dào le túshūguǎn. (boundary crossing)  
 Taroo from classroom reach PAST library  
 ‘Taroo walked out of the classroom and reached the library.’

The slight oddness observed in (44c) suggests that sequential path works better in a non-boundary-crossed expression. Moreover, as seen in (44b), the manner segment in a sequential-path expression can be omitted.

The distinction of single/sequential path noticed in Japanese, Chinese and German shed light on a striking typological difference between verb and satellite-framed languages. The reason, perhaps, has to do with the characteristics of their conflation means. Path-prominent languages seem to favour rendering path via verb roots, which gives rise to a restriction: one verb can only incorporate an endpoint in a single clause. This restriction prevents Japanese conflating sequential paths in a single clause. Sequential paths in Japanese will have to be drawn explicitly on the syntactic level, i.e. by using a participle complex predicate, thus giving rise to a range of head verbs being in the coordinate position. In this regard, Japanese appears to be a verb-framed language.

In manner-prominent languages, path is rendered via a path verb or a particle, meaning they exhibit two-faced characteristics of conflation. This two-faced characteristic invites a less restrictive morpho-syntactic environment for incorporating path information. In particular, the option of conveying the path via satellites (outside the verb roots) enables sequential paths. Chinese and German are typical in this respect. In further support of this position, more German data are provided. The following illustrations involve a single path, but receive different treatments:

(45) a. Mutter ging **aus** dem Haus in den Garten.

Mother walk-PAST out of the house into the garden  
 ‘Mother walked out of the house into the garden.’

- \*b. Mutter **verließ** das Haus in den Garten.  
 ‘Mother left the house into the garden.’

cf. Mutter **verließ** das Haus und *ging* in den Garten.  
 ‘Mother left the house and went into the garden.’

The ungrammaticality of (45b) is due to its path being conveyed in the main verb, *verließ* ‘exit’. In (45a), path is expressed via the particle *aus*.

The finding embodies the following picture of German single/sequential path: (a). when path is expressed via a particle, sequential paths are accepted; (b) when path is conveyed via a path verb, or a compound verb, only a single path is allowed. This applies to Chinese, as it also exhibits such two-faced characteristics of conflation.

Another concept that serves the purpose of highlighting our central claims concerns the compatibility of a spatial PP and a non-spatial PP within a single clause. Goldberg (1991b, 1995) and Ueno (2007) demonstrate that the following expressions are impossible in English:

- (46) a. \*Sam kicked Bill black and blue out of the room.  
 b. \*Sam kicked Bill out of the room black and blue.  
 Goldberg (1995:81)

The unacceptability of (46), as noted by Ueno (2007), lies in that the spatial PP and non-spatial AP are parallel, which means the single manner verb cannot hold these two arguments at one time.

It turns out, however, that in Chinese, non-spatial and spatial path verbs denoting the change of state or location can coexist in a single clause:

(47) [**Spatial path + non-spatial path**]

Zhāngsān d ào le Dōngjīng ch ńng le qīngjìégōng.  
 Zhāngsān reach PAST Tokyo become PAST cleaner

‘Zhangsan reached Tokyo and became a cleaner.’

There are two factors connected to the distinct treatments in (46) and (47). First, from a syntactic point of view, the spatial and non-spatial in (46) are rendered via the same manner verb, whilst in (47) the two events are independently conveyed. The spatial event *dào le Dōngjīng* ‘reached Tokyo’ is not expressed via a PP, but via a non-deictic path verb *dào* ‘reach’. Perhaps it is not unsound to reiterate that *dào* has not fully been grammaticalised. Syntactically, it takes the NP *Dōngjīng* as its argument structure. The non-spatial event *chéng le qīngjiégōng* ‘become a cleaner’ is tackled via the path verb *chéng* ‘become’. Moreover, semantically speaking, the two events are in a successive relation or, to put it in another term, a contiguity relation. That is, the spatial event, which occurs before the non-spatial event, somehow gives rise to the result of the non-spatial event. On the other hand, in (32), the result AP *black and blue* cannot be the reason of the PP *out of the room* and nor can the spatial PP *out of the room* be the reason for the result AP *black and blue*.

Given this, perhaps we can arrive at a first conclusion: in Chinese, the occurrence of [spatial event + non-spatial event] is possible but conditioned: (a) syntactically, the single clause has to be bounded; (b) semantically, the motion path and resultative path are in a successive relation. In addition, the combination [non-spatial event + spatial event] is ruled out, as it disobeys the semantic condition: two events should be assigned to a successive relation.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper brings the scalarity concept, in an effort to uncover how the lexical, morphological and syntactic resources of the three languages in focus (Japanese, Chinese and German) play essential roles when it comes to lexicalising motion events into linguistic forms.

The findings bring us to the point that path-prominent languages seem to favour rendering path via verb roots, which gives rise to a restriction: one verb can only incorporate an endpoint in a single clause. This restriction prevents Japanese conflating sequential paths in a single clause. Moreover, sequential paths in Japanese will have to be drawn explicitly on the syntactic level, i.e. by using a participle complex predicate, thus giving rise to a range of head verbs being in the coordinate position. In this regard, Japanese appears to be a verb-framed language.

In manner-prominent languages, path is rendered via a path verb or a particle, meaning they exhibit two-faced characteristics of conflation. This two-faced characteristic invites a less restrictive morpho-syntactic environment for incorporating path information. In particular, the option of conveying the path via satellites (outside the verb roots) enables sequential paths. Chinese and German are typical in this respect.

Moreover, in German, when path is expressed via a particle, sequential paths are accepted; when path is conveyed via a path verb, or a compound verb, only a single path is allowed. This applies to Chinese, as it also exhibits such two-faced characteristics of conflation.

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# The Impact of EFL Teachers' Years of Experience on Their Cultural Identity

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**Abstract**—The issue of cultural tension is a problem with which most of Asian countries are faced. In fact, it can be the result of the entrance of western culture into a country's national borders and can stem from both globalization and the use of English language as the international medium of communication. Iran is one of those Asian countries whose people are at risk of an emerging new identity that tries to replace Iranian socio-cultural and religious identity with a new western one. Specially, English language teachers and learners are more in danger of getting into such a foreign identity as they are always directly facing with western culture. Some factors like one's age, socio-cultural and ethnical background, gender, and residency in another country as well as length of exposure to a foreign culture may have impact on one's identity. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate the impact of EFL teachers' length of experience in language teaching on their cultural identity. The data was collected through using a questionnaire which was administered to 100 EFL Iranian teachers. The results are discussed and some suggestions for further research are given.

**Index Terms**—cultural identity, EFL teachers, teaching experience

## I. INTRODUCTION

English language as the global lingua franca is a vital means of communication for millions of people around the world. In other words, it is clearly associated with our life. "You hear it on television spoken by politicians from all over the world; wherever you travel, you see English signs and advertisements; whenever you enter a hotel or restaurant in a foreign city, they will understand English, and there will be an English menu" (Crystal, 2003, p. 2). Similarly, Crystal (1997, cited in Coury, 2001) states that the information about the new technological and scientific inventions and academic developments in the world is expressed and stored in English.

The broad spread and use of English in different contexts of life has particularly made Kachru's *Expanding Circle* countries invest so much time, money and energy on providing educational settings for English teaching and learning. *Iran* is no exception to this influence and trend as it is adjusting to the world trend of keeping pace with technological, economic and social advances. Accordingly, many Iranians are attracted to the English language due to personal, academic or occupational interests.

English is neither the first nor the second language in this immense country; it is mainly regarded as a school subject and is not a means of communication within the Iranian families (Pishghadam and Sadeghi, 2011a). However, it plays a significant role in Iran's socio-cultural context. In the past few years, Iranian public opinion has become extremely sensitized to issues of language and the learning of languages as numerous English teaching institutions are opened all over Iran which provide interested learners of English with considerable language learning facilities and teaching methods. The Iranian English learners do really like to be a member of English-conversant Iranians, their imagined community, where they can own and master it as they own their mother tongue (Pishghadam and Sadeghi, 2011a). However, some English learners are likely to have and behave by the foreign language cultural values and norms and acquire a new identity which may lead to loss of their own cultural values, norms and particularly cultural identity (McLeod, 1976; Pishghadam & Navari, 2009; Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984).

Considering the fact that language and culture are deeply related to each other and a language and its culture are two inextricably related entities which should be taught together (Leveridge, 2008; Cakir, 2006; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Byram, 1989; Brown, 2002; Sudartini, 2009), and bearing in mind that language plays a significant role in shaping one's identity (Brown, 2007), and also being mindful of the internal and inter-state conflicts over culture and identity in Asian countries (Croissant & Trinn, 2009), it is worth asking ourselves "How a foreign language can shape our cultural identity?". Moreover, foreign language teachers play a significant role in shaping their students' cultural identity. Students follow their teachers as a model and try to be like them. Keeping this in mind, White, Zion and Kozleski (2005) hold the view that teachers bring their life experiences, personalities, cultures, opinions, assumptions, and beliefs into the classroom. This implies that western culture may unintentionally be inserted in English classrooms by those teachers who admire the foreign language culture, while learners may have been learning them while learning English (Sudartini, 2009). Consequently, it may lead to internalization of western culture in their life which brings about a new cultural



identity. Students need to develop cultural awareness and cultural sensitiveness, and teachers should make students aware of cultural differences (Cakir, 2006).

According to White, et al. (2005, p. 2) “the longer teachers teach, the more their beliefs and knowledge are reorganized and sculpted by experience; experience, culture, and personality are just part of who teachers are, and they go wherever teachers go including their classrooms”. Thus, this study tries to investigate the relationship between EFL teacher’s years of experience and their cultural identity in the context of Iran’s private language schools.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Probably, the first thing that comes to our mind regarding the definition of culture is that culture is the characteristics of a particular group of people who share same values, customs and tradition, religion, social habits and language. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.138) culture is “the set of practices, codes and values that mark a particular nation or group: the sum of a nation or a group’s most highly thought of works of literature, art, music, etc”.

Trinovitch (1980, cited in Cakir, 2006) defines culture as “an all-inclusive system which incorporates the biological and technical behavior of human beings with their verbal and non-verbal systems of expressive behavior starting from birth, and this “all-inclusive system” is acquired as the native culture.” (p. 550). In the same vein, Brooks (1969) describes culture as having five components, namely, biological growth, personal refinement, literature and fine arts, patterns for living and a way of life. Summing all these definitions up we find a core definition and that is the fact that “culture is a way of life” (Brown, 2007, p.188).

Hofstede’s (2001, cited in Sun, 2008) Onion diagram is a model of culture with relation to society. This diagram explains the differences between societies and culture in terms of four cultural ingredients, namely, symbols, heroes, rituals, and values. It says that socialization happens when a person (1) *understands a culture’s symbols* (i.e. gestures, objects, pictures that have a special meaning only recognized by the members of that culture) (2) *recognizes heroes* (i.e. persons who are real or imaginary, dead or alive, admired in that culture) (3) *partakes the rituals* (e.g. social and religious ceremonies or ways of greeting) and (4) *learns values* (i.e. are connected with moral and ethical codes and they’re common beliefs and attitudes consisting of such binary oppositions as good vs. evil or logical vs. paradoxical) (Sun, 2008). In this model, values form the core of culture and cultural practices encompass the first three features (Sun, 2008).

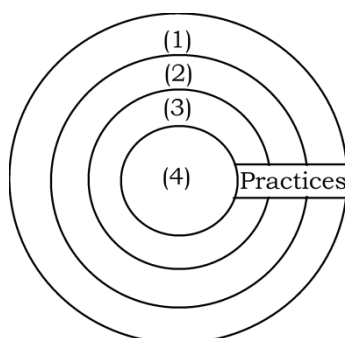


Figure 1. Hofstede’s Onion Diagram

Today, no one can deny the existence of the inseparable link between culture and language. The Linguistic Relativity Theory of Whorf (1956) can be considered as an evidence of this claim. According to linguistic relativity, the structure of a language has impacts on its speakers’ cognitive processes as well as their world view (Whorf 1956). This theory is considered as a pioneer highlighting the relationship between the structure of a language and the cultural world view of its speakers; however, it is mainly concerned with the impacts of first language on culture. In line with the theory of Whorf (1956), and according to Brown (2007) “words shape our lives (p. 208), and “the acquisition of a second language is also the acquisition of a second culture” (pp. 189-190). Similarly, Tang (1999) holds the view that culture is language and language is culture. On the other hand, Saville-Troike (1978) holds the view that by teaching a second culture, sometimes, students ignore parts of their native culture without recognizing comparable parts of the second. This crisis is also true for language teachers; according to Pishghadam and Navari (2009) most of the language teachers have a positive attitude towards western culture. Moreover, Pishghadam and Saboori (2011) found out that the Iranian EFL teachers have positive attitudes towards the American culture.

As mentioned earlier, English language is the global lingua franca and is used as a means of communication by millions of people around the world. On the other hand, and at the same time as English is governing the world, these people are faced with the globalization phenomenon. According to Tomlinson (2003, p.270) “cultural identity is at risk everywhere with the depredations of globalization, but the developing world is particularly at risk”. Similarly, Naz, Khan, Hussain and Daraz (2011) take the stance that “through globalization the entire world is changing into a single place, single culture and single identity” (p. 2).

This fact that language, culture, and identity are closely related to each other has made some teachers to believe that “the language teacher should take the responsibility of explicitly teaching culture as well as language” (McLeod, 1976,

p. 217). Similarly, Gence and Bada (2005) take the stance that “without the study of culture, teaching L2 is inaccurate and incomplete” (p. 73). The positive point of explicit culture teaching is that the learners can then understand and deal with cultural differences better and easier and it also increases their level of tolerance and flexibility when they face with a different cultural value (Pishghadam & Sadeghi, 2011a).

As stated above, language plays a significant role in shaping one’s identity (Brown, 2007); in fact, they’re tied to each other. Each individual has many social identities and cultural identity is one of them (Gudykunst and Nishida, 1999). In order to find the true meaning of cultural identity one should take a deep look into social science research. According to Aboud (1981, cited in Berry, 1999), identity has a sense of attachment in itself; hence, cultural identity refers to one’s attachment to a group or groups who share same cultural values and beliefs. In fact, cultural identity is shaped through the socialization process and is marked by a number of elements such as race, ethnicity and religion. Moreover, Clarke (2008, p.527) takes the stance that “cultural identity is fluid and contingent in relation to historical and cultural circumstances”. Similarly, Rosaldo (1984, cited in Pishghadam & Sadeghi, 2011a) believes that personhood, identity, culture, and language are inextricably related constructs in the social setting. Given these facts, the issue of cultural identity has occupied a significant position in the realm of foreign language teaching and learning for this reason that while we are teaching a second language, we automatically teach a second culture, too (Cakir, 2006) which consequently leads to the development of a second identity. Accordingly, there’s a rich literature on the influence of L2 on the culture and identity of learners (e.g., Norton 1997, 2000; Peirce, 1995; Kim, 2003; Sumaryono & Ortiz, 2004; Gence & Bada, 2005; White, et al., 2005; Cakir, 2006; Wong, 2009; Brown, 2007). For instance, Brown (2007) holds the view that learning a second language has influential impacts on the identity of learners. Gence and Bada (2005) found out that attending a culture class is to high extent beneficial in raising cultural awareness of students concerning both native and target societies. On the other hand, Pishghadam and Navari (2009) found that when Iranian students are exposed to English culture, they are more likely to abandon their home culture. Additionally, Kim (2003) explored the relationship between language and socio-cultural identities of ESL learners in Malaysia, and noted that in such a multicultural society, identity issues are more complex and become a matter of concern as the people try to shift their identity in search of acceptance and belonging.

The growing interest in aspects of identity in social settings over recent years has also been reflected in the small but increasing amount of research work concerning teachers’ identities (e.g., Nabobo-Baba & Teasdale, 1994; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Atay & Ece, 2009; Pishghadam & Sadeghi, 2011a; Pishghadam & Sadeghi 2011b; Chen & Cheng, 2012). For instance, Atay and Ece (2009) explored the view of Turkish teachers about foreign-language learning and changing identities. The results obtained from this study showed that Turkish English teachers were aware of their multiple identities and regarded their Turkish and Muslim identities as the primary ones. Moreover, these English teachers considered facing with L2’s culture as a good opportunity to increase their awareness concerning the differences between cultures and also to increase their level of flexibility and tolerance. On the other hand, Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011a) investigated the degree of EFL teachers’ home culture attachment; they found out that Iranian EFL teachers do not have a perfect home-culture-maintenance status and that those EFL teachers who have a longer contact to the foreign culture are more attached to their home culture. Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011a) also examined whether some of the demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status and also length of teaching experience have impacts on EFL teachers’ home culture attachment. Examining the role of “Length of Teaching Experience,” Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011a) found no significant relationship between “Home Culture Attachment” and “Length of Teaching Experience”; however, by using t-test, they noticed that “the longer EFL teachers teach English, the more they develop home culture dependency” (p. 158).

Similarly, Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011b) investigated the relationship between teachers’ cultural and social capitals and their home culture attachment. With regard to cultural capital which consists of two components, namely, cultural competence and literacy, Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011b) noticed that those EFL teachers who have more cultural competence possess less home culture attachment; however, they found no significant relationship between home culture attachment and literacy. Additionally, with regard to social capital consisting three components, namely, social competence, social solidarity, and extraversion, Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011b) found out that EFL teachers possessing more social competence and more social solidarity are more strongly attached to their home culture; in contrast they found no significant relationship between home culture attachment and extraversion. On the other hand, Duff and Uchida (1997, cited in Atay & Ece, 2009) investigated the relationship between language and culture and also teachers’ socio cultural identities and teaching practices. The findings of their study showed that teachers’ social, political, cultural and professional identification is associated with some complexities which are also reflected in their classes (Atay & Ece, 2009).

Returning to the research questions posed in this study, EFL teachers themselves are also in danger of becoming the victims of western-American cultural hegemony due to long time exposure to the English language and culture. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate the impact of EFL teachers’ length of experience in English language teaching on their cultural identity.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Participants

One hundred EFL teachers, 53 female and 47 male, aged between 18 to 57, 50 single and 50 married, took part in the study voluntarily. Ninety percent of participants held degrees in English, teaching English (n=51), English translation (n=17), English literature (n=21), Linguistics (n=1), and there were only 10 who had degrees irrelevant to teaching English like engineering and medicine. The participants held academic degrees ranging from High School Diploma to PhD: High School Diploma (n=4); bachelor degree or undergraduate student (n=53); Master degree or master student (n=42), and only one teacher with a PhD degree. They were teaching English books compiled outside Iran (n=71), in Iran (n=11), and both kinds of books (n=18). The levels they were teaching ranged from elementary to advanced: elementary (n=13); elementary and intermediate (n=25); elementary and advanced (n=3); intermediate (n=10); intermediate and advanced (n= 11); advanced (n=11), and finally all levels (n=27). Among these 100 teachers, 9 of them had been living abroad e.g. in Turkey, UAE, USA, Malaysia, and Australia for different lengths of time ranging from 3 months to 11 years. They also had different lengths of teaching experience ranging from 1 year to 25 years.

In addition, all of these teachers were teaching English in private language institutes which was chosen as our context of study, because in such institutes teachers are more familiar with new updated EFL teaching methodologies and also they show their real cultural and social attitudes more openly than those who teach English in public schools.

### B. Instrumentation

Two instruments were used in the present study, i.e., a demographic scale and Home culture attachment scale (HCAS).

#### *Demographic Scale:*

The demographic scale consisted of four short answer questions and four multiple choice items. While the former dealt with the participants' age, length of teaching experience, degree and field of study, the latter called for the specification of their marital status, books and levels taught, and residence in a foreign country as well as gender.

#### *Home Culture Attachment Scale:*

The participants were required to answer a questionnaire (Pishghadam, Hashemi, and Bazri, 2013) consisting of 36 items concerning home culture attachment in 15 minutes. This scale is a four-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (4) "strongly agree". The questionnaire consists of both negative and positive statements to make sure the participants fully read the questions and then answer. HCAS was validated through Rasch measurement, and its reliability was reported to be 0.85 utilizing Cronbach alpha.

### C. Procedure

To detect home culture attachment, the questionnaire (Pishghadam, Hashemi, and Bazri, 2013) was administered to EFL teachers of six private language institutes of Mashhad, Iran in July 2013. Some answered them in the break time between their classes and some at home. After collecting the data, they were entered into and processed with SPSS 18 program.

## IV. RESULTS

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire consists of 36 items and is a four-point Likert-scale. Therefore, the maximum possible score of the questionnaire could be 144 and the minimum possible score might be 36; (average score of the questionnaire is 90). Thus, the mean acquired by EFL teachers (96.97) is just a bit higher than the average score of the questionnaire (90).

TABLE 1.  
STATISTICS; MEAN, MEDIAN, MODE, STANDARD DEVIATION, LOWEST & HIGHEST ACHIEVED SCORES (MIN & MAX) AS WELL AS THOSE OF POSSIBLE SCORES

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Achieved max & min	Possible max & min
HCA	<b>100</b>	<b>96.97</b>	<b>97.00</b>	<b>99.00</b>	<b>6.86</b>	<b>77 &amp; 111</b>	<b>36 &amp; 144</b>

To measure the relationship between "cultural identity" and years of experience of EFL teachers, Pearson product-moment correlation was ran. The results of the correlational analysis are summarized in Table 2. The findings indicate that years of teaching experience is not associated with HCA: ( $r=.112$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

TABLE 2.  
RESULTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN CULTURAL IDENTITY AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Correlations			
		Years of Experience	Cultural identity
Years of experience	Pearson Correlation	1	-.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.265
	N	100	100
Cultural identity	Pearson Correlation	-.112	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.265	
	N	100	100

The correlation between years of Teaching Experience and HCA was not significant ( $r=.112$ ,  $p>.05$ ); however, as Table 3 suggests, there is no significant difference between high and low experienced EFL teachers in their degree of home culture attachment, too ( $t=1.193$ ,  $p>.05$ ). In other words, years of teaching experience plays no significant role in changing EFL teachers' cultural identity.

TABLE 3.  
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST FOR HCA AMONG EFL TEACHERS WITH YEARS OF EXPERIENCE OVER 5 YEARS & UNDER 6 YEARS

Variable	N	Mean	T	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Low (1-5 years)	55	97.70	1.193	98	0.236
High (6-25 years)	45	96.06			

## V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between EFL teachers' cultural identity and their length of experience in English language teaching to find out whether years of experience in teaching English would have any impact on the degree of their home culture attachment, and as the results indicated, there's no relationship between these two.

These findings, at first, show that the opinion suggested by Gence and Bada (2005) was correct. Gence and Bada (2005) found out that attending a culture class is to a high extent beneficial in raising cultural awareness of students concerning both native and target societies. In fact, it also shows that when a person becomes more familiar with a foreign culture through explicit learning of it, then, he can deal with the differences between that culture and his. In other words, being familiar with a foreign culture helps you take a deeper look into your own culture, and thus, pay more attention to its values and norms. According to Pishghadam and Sadeghi (2011a) "the older EFL teachers who have experienced longer contact with the foreign culture might have been able to look at their home culture with fresh eyes and might have valued aspects of their home culture they had underevaluated when they were younger" (p. 157).

The findings of this study highlight the significance of teacher training as an important means of promoting and affirming cultural identity through education. In fact, the cultural differences should be illustrated for those teachers who are responsible of teaching language and thus culture. As mentioned earlier, cultural awareness is an important factor in language learning and teaching, and the teachers should enhance their students' cultural awareness and emphasize on differences as students may lose their home culture and acquire the new one. On the other hand, learners should be good at critical thinking and be taught to develop this ability in themselves especially in EFL classes where they learn a new language, a new culture which may bring about a new identity. On the other hand, teaching English and thus culture should not be at expense of losing home culture and identity.

To conclude, although this study showed that there was no significant relationship between EFL teachers' years of experience and cultural identity, the findings cannot support casual claims and must be treated with caution since the study was based on correlational data.

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# Cognitive Grounding and Its Adaptability to Chinese Noun Studies

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**Abstract**—Cognitive Grammar is a linguistic theory represented by the symbolic thesis and the usage-based thesis. Cognitive grounding theory is a newly fledged theory in CG. Studies related to grounding have been in their infancy, exhibiting a typological vigor. There have been so far no systematic studies devoted to the grounding system of the Chinese language. Chinese grammar studies applying modern Western linguistic theories have long been the pursuit of scholars from generation to generation. This paper is devoted to introduce grounding theory and then focus on its adaptability to Chinese noun studies. It is concluded that (1) grounding is a cognitive process in which the construal of entities becomes more subjective, and in which a type concept is changed into instances that are singled out by the interlocutors; (2) grounding theory and Chinese noun studies have high adaptability, so Chinese noun studies can be approached from the perspective of Chinese nominal grounding.

**Index Terms**—cognitive grammar, grounding, adaptability, Chinese noun studies

## I. INTRODUCTION

Cognitive Grammar (CG hereafter) is a linguistic theory developed by Ronald Langacker since the mid-1970s. It is held within CG that language is symbolic in nature, and that language is a usage-based model (Langacker, 1987, 1991). The symbolic thesis holds that linguistic expressions symbolize or stand for conceptualizations or construal of people's bodily experience. The usage-based model means that language knowledge is knowledge of how language is used. Cognitive Grounding (grounding hereafter) theory is a newly fledged core theory in CG (Langacker, 2013; Wan, 2009). The reason for its important position is that grounding reflects the key ideas of CG. On one hand, grounded nominals and clauses are symbolic in nature, symbolizing the two-way relationship between the semantic pole and phonological pole, and on the other hand, grounding process gives expression to the interaction function of language, which is what the usage-based model fundamentally means.

The present study is motivated by the following two factors. First, the previous studies related to grounding, home and abroad, have only been in their infancy (Nobuko, 2001; Achard, 2002; Kochańska, 2002; Mortelmans, 2002; Nuyts, 2002; Cornillie, 2005). It can be found that these researches are all devoted to typological endeavors, focusing on Japanese, French, Polish, German, Dutch and Spanish respectively. Second, as Langacker (2008, p. 272) put, "every language has its own grounding system". However, few systematic studies have so far approached the Chinese grounding system. Since the birth of *Mashi Wentong* in 1898, Chinese grammar studies applying modern Western linguistic theories have been the pursuit of the scholars from generation to generation. One common agreement over these efforts is that it is inadvisable to totally apply Western linguistic theories to Chinese grammar studies because Chinese differs greatly from most Western languages. In other words, there exists a question of adaptability. Then arises a question: what kind of adaptability does grounding theory show in comparison with Chinese grammar studies? Noun studies are one fundamental aspect of grammar studies, so this paper is devoted to the adaptability of grounding to Chinese noun studies, and the introduction to grounding theory proceeds first, because grounding theory is a newly fledged one in CG.

## II. AN OVERVIEW OF COGNITIVE GROUNDING THEORY

Grounding Theory was established by Ronald W. Langacker and firstly appeared in his two volumes *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar* in 1987 and 1991. After that, Langacker began to use the term broadly in his later works like *Grammar and Conceptualization* (1999), *Cognitive Grammar: A Basic Introduction* (2008) and *Essentials of Cognitive Grammar* (2013). Grounding Theory comes out the efforts to explore grammatical phenomena from the perspective of

human beings' mental conception. The theory is closely related to construal, and it is, in a sense, a construal process in which the conceptualizer's conception of the conceptualized becomes more subjective. Grounding is also a process of type concepts turning into instance concepts. Grounding falls into two categories: nominal grounding and clausal grounding. The following sections focus on the three points above.

#### A. *Grounding and Construal*

Ground is actually developed from the figure-ground segregation initiated by the gestalt psychologist, Rubin, to study "the comprehensive framework of perceptual organization by the gestalt psychologist" (Ungerer & Schmid, 2008, p.157), and later Talmy (1975) introduced and incorporated the concept into the cognitive exploration of language as an attempt to explain the relationship between the main clause and the subordinate clauses. Langacker's contribution in question is to have realized the enormous potential of the gestalt-based approach to language and extended the notion of figure-ground alignment to all linguistic units. Accordingly, ground is given more references. Let's look at some representative definitions of ground:

a. Ground refers to the speech event, its participants, and its immediate circumstances (such as the time and place of speaking). (Langacker, 1990, p.318; 2008, p. 259)

b. Ground refers to the context of the speech event, comprising the participants in the event, its time and place, the situational context, previous discourse, shared knowledge of the speech-act participants, and such like. (Taylor, 2002, p.346)

c. Ground consists of place and time of speaking, the participants in the speech event and the shared knowledge between them. (Evans & Green, 2006, p.575)

It can be seen from the above definitions of ground that ground is concerned with the speech event or speech act. Roughly speaking, ground is composed of all the factors involved in a speech event. Grounding is a process which establishes a basic connection between an entity (either a thing evoked by a noun or a process evoked by an infinite clause) and the ground with the interlocutors being a usual appearance (Langacker, 1991, p.98, 2008, p.259, 2009, p.149; Taylor, 2002, p.346; Evans & Green, 2006, p.575). It can therefore be said that grounding involves two camps. One is the entity a nominal or finite clause designates, and the other is ground. For example, in a skeletal clause consisting of nothing more than the lexical units *girl*, *like*, and *boy*, *girl* elaborate the trajector (the focal participant) of *like*, and *boy* its landmark (the second participant), that is, *girl like boy*. It is true that this skeletal clause has no specific meaning in real life because of lacking ground and its value can be realized by associating with different situations. It figures, for instance, in all the following expressions: *the girl likes that boy*; *this girl may like that boy*; *a girl liked that boy*; *no girl liked that boy*, and so on. Though sharing the same lexical elements, these clauses have distinct meanings and refer to different things about the world. Langacker (2008) argues that "bridging the gap between *girl like boy* and the full sentences cited are grounding elements" (p.259). A grounding element specifies the ground of the thing profiled by a nominal or the process profiled by a finite clause.

Any expression's meaning depends on both the conceptual content it evokes and the way that content is construed. Construal is "our ability to conceive and portray the same situation in alternate ways" (Gao & Li, 2007, p. 41). When viewing a scene, what we actually see always depends on how closely we examine it, what we choose to look at, which elements we pay more or most attention to and where we see it from. It is apparent that the expression's grammatical class is determined by the nature of its profile instead of its overall content. That is, a noun profiles a thing and a verb profiles a process. As a matter of fact, grounding process is a process of construal because the grounding elements function as the bridge between the skeletal clause and the ground, and do help the participants construe the meanings and situations. A grounding element specifies the ground of the thing profiled by a nominal or the process profiled by a finite clause. Through nominal grounding (e.g. *the*, *this*, *that*, *some*, *a*, *each*, *every*, *no*, *any*), the speaker "directs the hearer's attention to the intended discourse referent, which may or may not correspond to an actual individual" (Langacker, 2008, p. 259). Clausal grounding (e.g. *-s*, *-ed*, *may*, *will*, *should*) situates the profiled relationship with respect to the speaker's current conception of reality. That is why the skeletal clause *girl like boy* can express different meanings by associating with different grounding elements. Figure 9, taken from (Langacker, 2008, p. 260) shows the main conception of the conceptualizing relationship.

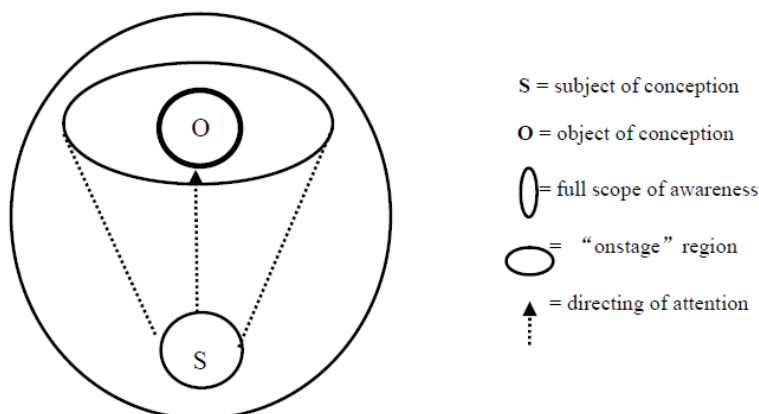


Figure 1 The conceptualizing relationship between the subject and object roles

Grounding reflects “the asymmetry between the subject and object of conception: that is, the conceptualizer and what is conceptualized” (Langacker, 2008, p. 260). The subject and the object here refer to the subject of conception and the object of conception respectively, which is not equivalent to the traditional grammatical terms—subject and object. In Figure 9, the subject and the object stand for two facets of a conceptualizing relationship. Both the speaker and the hearer function as the subjects of conception, which is the focus of the conceptual experience, but in its role as subject it is not itself conceived. The subject (S) directs its attention to the “onstage” region and then singles out some onstage element as the focus of attention which is the object of conception (O). In this situation, S is construed subjectively and O objectively. It should be pointed out that which element is the focus attention owes to the participant’s mental experience that is generally revealed by the grounding element.

All in all, grounding is a process of construal in which the construed are the entities that linguistic expressions profile and the construal factors are within the ground. Just as Radden and Dirven (2007) understand, “in grounding a situation, the speaker provides information about who or what he is talking about, and whether it really happened” (p.48).

#### B. Type and Instance

“Grounding is characteristic of the structures referred to in CG as nominals and finite clauses” (Langacker, 2008, p. 264). More specifically, a nominal profiles a grounded instance of a thing type and a finite clause profiles a grounded instance of a process type. Therefore, the concept of type and instance is one of the keys to understanding grounding.

A type carries a concept with temporal or spatial reference, so it has, in great measure, no communicative meaning. In other words, types are natural symbols which have to be connected to the ground so that they become instances to be referred to and identified by the interlocutors. That is to say, types become entitled to communication via grounding. For example, the difference between a noun like *book* and a nominal like *this book* lies in the fact that the former stands for a type specification whereas the latter singles out an instance of that type. The semantic content of a noun is the basis for distinguishing one entity from another of the same class, but it is just the general classification of entities, never referring to any instance of a type in terms of spatial references. When the grounding element *this* is added before *book*, the concept is given spatial reference and the speaker directs the hearer’s attention to a proximal referent, either in the real world or in the conceived reality, so that the hearer can identify it through their shared knowledge. In other words, the process of *book* to *this book* is a process of nominal grounding, and it is also a process of a type turning into an instance. Just like a noun and a nominal, a verb stands for a type and a finite clause profiles a grounded instance of this type. A skeletal clause *boy like girl*, for instance, has no reference to time and reality, so it just stands for a type of process or relation, because it applies to a couple of situations. If it becomes grounded, like *this boy may like that boy*, it can symbolize an instance in which the process or relation is a direct unreality. In other words, the grounded clause is qualified for its communicative status. The grounded process of a type changing into an instance to be referred to and identified can be shown in figure 2 as below.



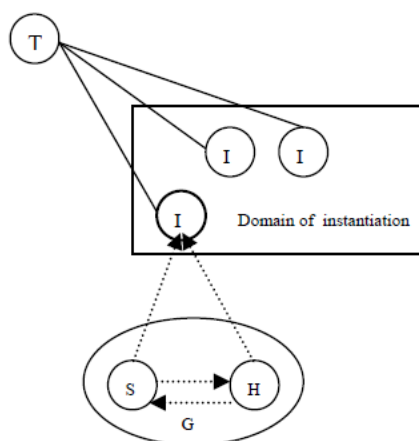


Figure 2 The grounding process of type into instances  
(Adapted from Langacker, 2008, p. 282)

It can be seen from figure 2 that a type can be elaborated into more one instance, and the speaker use grounding element to direct the hearer's attention to a particular instance which is expected to be identified by the hearer through the interaction between the speaker and the hearer based on their shared knowledge within the ground.

According to the above analysis, the instances are different from the type and an abstract domain is provided for instantiation. It can be read as a type being instantiated in its special domain of instantiation. Any object in the domain of instantiation can be considered as an instance of the type in question. Hence the difference between a type and an instance is that "the former suppresses (or at least backgrounds) the thought of the profiled entity occupying a particular, distinguishing location" (Langacker, 2008, p. 268).

As the primary function of lexemes is classificatory, nominals and finite clauses "provide an established schema for apprehending the world in terms of culturally sanctioned categories of proven relevance and utility" (Langacker, 2008, p. 264), and namely the basic function of a nominal or a finite clause is referential. It is the grounding elements that help a noun or a verb direct attention to a particular thing or process and the profiled entity serves to distinguish it from other members of its category. In short, grounding is a process in which a type is changed into an instance to be referred and identified in the communicative activity.

### C. Grounded Nominal and Grounded Clause

It can be seen from the definition of grounding and from the discussions above that grounding actually falls into two major categories: nominal grounding and clausal grounding. A nominal's grounding indicates that the reference is achieved, which implies that the interlocutors direct their attention to the same conceived entity. The nominal reference is to direct an interlocutor's attention to one particular thing out of a range of potential candidates that are usually open-ended. For example, a single noun *car* just stands for a type which may include thousands of such things like cars (instances). The car is selected from all those instances as the focus of attention and it also indicates that this instance can be recognized by both the speaker and the hearer. Maybe the car is what the speaker and the hearer talked about just now or it may be the car near them.

Like a nominal, a finite clause profiles a grounded instance of some type. A verb designates a type of process and a finite clause designates an instance of the type. For example, the verb *like* designate a type of process and *He liked her* is one of the instances of the type. Clausal grounding is mainly concerned with "the status of events with respect to their actual or potential occurrence" (Langacker, 2008, p. 296). The speaker's conception of reality and the ground function as the reference for the epistemic judgments expressed by grounding elements. These elements mainly include the marks of the two basic tenses, present and past, and five basic modals, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should* and *must*. Taylor (2002) points out that "grounding of a clause situates a process with respect to the circumstance of the speech event; grounding is marked by a cluster of features pertaining to the verb and its subject, namely tense inflection, number agreement of the verb with its subject, and the nominative case of the subject" (p.392). When the tense inflection is added to the verb, the finite clause or grounded clause depicts the situation in present time or past time, whereas when the modal are added to the verbs, the finite clause or grounded clause depicts the situation real or unreal. That is to say, tense is to indicate an event's location in time relative to the time of speaking, while modals pertain to its likelihood of occurring. Here are four examples to depict these relations.

- (1) He likes her.
- (2) He liked her.
- (3) He may like her.
- (4) He might like her.

It is apparent that (1) designates the present tense, which shows the process has a direct relationship with the speaker, that is, the situation is a direct reality. The past-tense mark is added to the verb of (2), which means the process is an indirect reality. The modal *may* in (3) shows the process is a direct unreality and the past-tense form *might* in (4) shows

an indirect unreality. Just as taking the determiner as the head of a nominal, the tense inflection is considered as the head of a finite clause. The tense inflection designates a grounded instance of schematic process and “the clause inherits the profile of the tense inflection” (Taylor, 2002, p. 395).

In summary, grounding is a cognitive process in which the construal of things or relations becomes more subjective. Grounding a cognitive process in which a type is changed into an instance and the speaker directs the hearer’s attention to the intended thing or relationship within the same mental space. Grounding basically falls into two categories: nominal grounding and clausal grounding.

### III. ADAPTABILITY OF COGNITIVE GROUNDING THEORY TO CHINESE NOUN STUDIES

As is mentioned above, linguistic theories based on Indo-European language family do not always apply to Chinese, a member in the Sino-Tibetan language family. The following sections focus on what adaptability that grounding theory demonstrates in its application to Chinese noun studies. It is argued in this paper that grounding theory has a high adaptability with Chinese grammar studies, which can be explained from the two senses as below.

#### A. *In Its Broad Sense*

The broad sense here means that we attempt to approach the adaptability of grounding theory to the Chinese noun studies from their higher levels of categories. To be more specific, we examine the adaptability of Cognitive Linguistics (CL hereafter) and CG, the broader labels of grounding theory, to Chinese grammar studies, which include noun studies. The high adaptability in this sense can be discussed from the following aspects.

First, the function-oriented approach of CL is consistent with the need of Chinese grammar studies. On one hand, CL is a modern school of linguistic thought that originally emerged out of dissatisfaction with formal approaches to language. It sees language ability as the demonstration of human general abilities in language, and therefore attaches great importance to cognition between language and the world. On the other hand, one top pressing matter in Chinese grammar studies is “to release themselves from the influences of the dominant Indo-European grammar analysis models which are fundamentally formalism oriented” (Zhang, 1998, p. 198). CL is in a good position to meet this need in that the founders of CL are mostly the “betrayers” of the formalism camp, and therefore are against the traditional Indo-European grammar analysis models. Here it is necessary to quote some sayings of Shen (2011, preface): CL is very close to Chinese which is typically not form oriented, so the clothes of CL fits well the body of Chinese, and in China CL enjoys better momentum of development than formalism approaches. All the quotes above can be boiled down to one conclusion that CL has high adaptability with Chinese grammar studies.

Second, both CG and Chinese grammar studies lay emphasis on language use. For one thing, it is held under the framework of CG that grammar is a usage-based model (Langacker, 1988, 2004; Croft & Cruse, 2004; Evans & Green, 2006). This model holds that language knowledge comes from language use, and therefore CG does not separate competence and performance as believed by Chomsky. In addition, the usage-based model sees language knowledge as language specific, which on one hand defaults the minimalist, reductive and top-down approach held by formalists, and offers an open access for Chinese on the other. For another thing, “Chinese grammar resides, in great measure, in its actual use, so there would be little to say if we talk about Chinese grammar without taking its uses into account” (Shen, 2011, p.15). Accordingly it can be said that the principles and assumptions of CG and the characteristics of Chinese make it a feasible approach to study Chinese grammar in reference to CG, and to CL at large.

Third, the introduction of CL to China is “not intended to criticize formalism as mostly in Western world, but to seek a new approach to Chinese language description and explanation” (Shu, 2009, p. 248). In practice, this intention of approaching Chinese grammar studies has indeed brought about substantial achievements (Tai, 1985; Zhang, 1998; Yuan, 2004; Shen, 2006; Wen, 2007, 2008; Shu, 2009; Liu, 2008; Wu, 2011), which all proves factually the feasibility and effectiveness of CG, or CL at large, approach to Chinese grammar studies.

#### B. *In Its Narrow Sense*

It is meant by the narrow sense that grounding theory in CG has a high adaptability with noun studies in Chinese grammar studies at large. This is to be elaborated as follows.

First, grounding theory occupies a core position in CG, and accordingly embodies the underlying theses of CG: the symbolic and usage-based nature. CG is driven by the idea that language is inherently symbolic in nature, and therefore grammar is also symbolic (Langacker, 1987, pp. 11-12, 2013, p. 14; Taylor, 2002, p. 20). It follows that linguistic expressions symbolize or stand for conceptualizations. CG makes the strong claim that grammatical units can be exhaustively described in terms of the following units: phonological structures, semantic structures and symbolic structures (Langacker, 1987, p. 16, 2013, p.15; Taylor, 2002, pp. 20-21). Phonological structures are the overt manifestations of language, which is a linguistic expression in its material or perceptual aspects. It is believed to have a wide coverage of both the sound and the written forms. Semantic structures refer to conceptualizations exploited for linguistic purposes, notably the meaning of an expression conveys. An expression’s meaning is “not just the conceptual content it evokes—equally important is how that content is construed” (Langacker, 2008, p.55). Symbolic structures are not distinct from phonological and semantic structures, but reside in a two-way relation between them. It can be seen that symbolic structures are the pairing of form and meaning, each invoking the other. To put it simply, “grammar is a

means of linking form and meaning in a conventionalized manner” (Shen, 1994, p. 16).

The symbolic structure is shown as [[SEM]/[PHON]]. CG reduces all the grammatical units into two categories: thing and process. Their symbolic structures are indicated as [[THING]/[X]] and [[PROCESS]/[Y]] respectively. For instance, *dissertation* can be symbolized as [[DISSERTATION]/[dissertation]], and *advise* as [[ADVISE]/[advise]]. It is noted that different symbolic units can be composed into large ones using a hyphen, and the symbolic complexity is called symbolic assembly. For example, *dissertation advisor* can be shown as [[[DISSERTATION]/ [dissertation]]-[[[ADVISE]/[advise]]- [[OR]/[or]]]], which is a symbolic assembly.

In form, English nominal grounding is a process from bare nouns to nominal phrases such as *book* to *this book*. Both bare nouns and grounded nouns are symbolic involving a two-direction link between the phonological pole and the semantic pole. In other words, the symbolic nature of language, particularly find its way well in nominal grounding.

As far as meaning is concerned, nominal grounding involves a process of a bare noun realizing its communicative function. In order to carry communicative function, natural languages have to be connected to the ground covering the whole speech event, notably the speaker and the hearer. For example, an ungrounded bare noun *book* just expresses a type in concept, and the interlocutors have no verbal access to the specific references, so the ungrounded noun *book* has not gained its communicative status. By adding a grounding element, the demonstrative *this* for example, the speaker directs the hearer’s attention to the intended target, and based on their shared knowledge, the interlocutors realize their communication. Communication via language is another way of saying the instances of language use. That is why we say grounding reflects the usage-based nature of language, one key thesis of language held in CG.

Second, Chinese nouns involve the key ideas of nominal grounding. Grounding falls into two categories: nominal grounding and clausal grounding. Nouns and verbs are universal and grammatically fundamental across all languages, and Chinese has no exceptions. Therefore it can theoretically be said that grounding can find its expression in Chinese nouns. In fact, just as Langacker (2008) mentioned, “every language has its own grounding system, which must be described in its own terms (p. 272). So far very few studies have touched upon the grounding system of Chinese nouns. Lu (2012) discussed the semantics of Chinese bare nouns from the grounding perspective. It is argued in her research that Chinese bare nouns are chiefly grounded through covert means. However, one thing that does not receive due attention is that Chinese also has overt grounding strategies despite the fact that Chinese bare nouns alone can sometimes realize definite reference. Grounding is not a grammatical category. Grounding is in nature a process in which the interlocutors realize their referring and identifying the intended entity. Therefore, any modifiers that are helpful in referring to and identifying nominal referents are grounding elements. It can be seen that high adaptability of grounding theory to Chinese noun studies does not mean that grounding theory can be directly borrowed to study Chinese nouns. Rather, Chinese nominal grounding has its own typological demonstrations. As is argued above, for example, Chinese nominal grounding, compared with English nominal grounding, at least has the following characteristics. Therefore, it is advisable to figure out, in reference to English grounding system, the model or framework of the Chinese nominal grounding system so as to approach Chinese noun studies.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This paper introduced grounding theory, a newly fledged component in CG, and discussed its adaptability to Chinese noun studies from the broad sense and the narrow sense. Grounding is a construal process and a type-instance changing process. Roughly speaking, grounding consists of two categories: nominal grounding and clausal grounding. It is argued in this paper that grounding theory has a high adaptability to Chinese noun studies. In the broad sense, the function-oriented approach and emphasis on language use of CL and CG is consistent with the need of Chinese grammar studies. In practice, since CL is introduced into China as an attempt to seek a new approach to Chinese language description and explanation, a lot of achievements have been made. In the narrow sense, grounding theory occupies a core position in CG on one hand, and Chinese nouns involve the key ideas of nominal grounding on the other hand.

It has to be pointed out that high adaptability of grounding theory to Chinese noun studies does not mean that grounding theory can be directly borrowed to study Chinese nouns. Rather, Chinese nominal grounding has its own typological demonstrations, which need to be figured out so as to be applied in Chinese noun studies. The present study is expected to make some contributions to the typological development of grounding theory, provide a new approach to Chinese noun studies, and shed some light on the tense and aspect studies from the grounding perspective.

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# Critical Discourse Analysis of Political Speeches: A Case Study of Obama's and Rouhani's Speeches at UN

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**Abstract**—The aim of this paper is to survey the art of linguistic spin in Obama's and Rouhani's political speeches at UN in September 2013 based on Halliday's systematic functional linguistics. The analysis is mainly performed through the transitivity system and modality to represent how two presidents' language can incorporate both ideology and power in their political speeches. In other words, they can manifest their power, capabilities, and policies through language; furthermore, the political implications of these speeches can be perceived better by common people.

**Index Terms**—critical discourse analysis, Halliday's systematic functional linguistics, transitivity, modality, political speeches

## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a broad field which is related to use of language in context. According to Tistcher (2000, p. 42), "discourse is a broad term with different definitions, which 'integrate a whole palette of meanings". Discourse analysis takes into account different theoretical and methodological approaches such as linguistic, anthropology, philosophy, psychology and sociology. The nature of language is closely related to the demands that we make on it and the functions it has to serve. In the most concrete terms, these functions are specific to a culture. "The particular form has taken by the grammatical system of language is closely related to the social and personal need that language is required to serve" (Halliday, 1978, p. 142).

One of the important features of DA is to study authentic text and conversations in the social context. The early DA has concerned with the internal structure of texts. Halliday's systematic functional linguistics is a new evolution against internal structure of texts. According to Halliday (1978), texts should encode both personal and social processes. In other words, texts should be generated, comprehended and put into a social context. Discourse analysis is based on micro and macro levels. Therefore, both linguistic and social analyses are important. Discourses are interpreted as communicative events because discourses between people convey messages beyond that of what is said at directly. What is important in such discourse is the social information which is transferred allusively.

### B. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

At the end the 1970s, CDA has established as one of the domain of research in discourse studies. It is known as an approach that is based on the union of language studies and social theory (Fairclough, 1992). CDA investigates how social power is misused and how text and talk represent, procreate, and resist dominance and inequality in the social and political context. The most notable figure in this domain is Norman Fairclough, who has developed a three dimensional framework for studying discourse. The aim of this framework is to integrate three dimensions into another analysis of language text. In other words, it refers to analysis of discourse practice (processes of text production, distribution and consumption) and analysis of discourse events.

The main focus of CDA is public speech, such as political speeches, advertisement, newspaper, official documents and so on. CDA' aim is to examine the relationship between the language, ideology, and power; Furthermore, its aims is to find out the assessment and exploitation of language dominance through text.

One of the most important linguistic theories correlated with a critical discourse approach is that of Halliday's systematic functional grammar. It is supported by some linguists such as (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999, Fairclough, 1992, 1995 a and b, Kress, 1985) who used it for analyzing the text because systematic functional grammar has a significant role in critical interpretation of linguistic expression in various discourses. As a matter of fact, systematic functional linguistic (SFG) model has been applied as a tool for analyzing the texts.

## II. THEORETICAL BASES

Systematic functional grammar (SFG) is developed by M.A.K. Halliday and it is based on grammatical description. It says that language is considered as interlocking options or network of systems for creating meaning. Functional linguistic foregrounds linguistic choice and functional linguistic that deals with structures which derives from the options created by encoding rules. Functional language is a tool for interaction based on this idea that language forms are inevitably specified by the functions or uses that they provide (Huzhunglin, 1988, p. 307).

According to Halliday and Hassan (1989, p. 10), a text, in the general term, is "language that is functional"; meaning written and verbal language which conveys social meaning in a specific and real situation. Indeed, for Halliday the texts serve as the study of meaning and use of phrases and words rather than just the union of words and sentences. It takes into account two perspectives concurrently such as text as product and text as process. A text is considered as a product when it studies the linguistic structures. Simultaneously it is a process in terms of semantic component or encoding the meaning. These grammatical systems provide a basis for explaining the meanings of different kinds.

Halliday's basic idea is that language is established metafunctionally. Therefore, Halliday's functions of language are called metafunctions and they have three kinds of semantic units: ideational functions, the interpersonal function, and the textual function.

### A. Ideational Metafunction

The ideational function refers to those functions that provide a basis for understanding human experience as a kind of resource for realizing the "reality" (Halliday, 1994). In other words, this function conveys both new information and elements are unfamiliar to the listener. The events and experience are represented by this function in both the real and intuitive world. Based on Halliday, this function is separated into logical and experiential metafunctions. Logical refers to the combination of two or more grammatical units into a more complex one. The experiential function refers to grammatical options that allow individuals to create meanings about the world around them and language evolved through this process. The analysis of the text based on this ideational function consists of 'transitivity' and "voice". Huzhunglin (1988, p. 312) states that "these functions determines the accessible options in meaning as well as specify the nature of their structural awareness".

Transitivity system represents ideational function in grammar. Transitivity system comprises six processes as follow:

- 1) Material processes: Physical action in the real world.
- 2) Relational processes: Expressing possession, equivalence, attributes...
- 3) Mental processes: Processes of cognition, affection and perception.
- 4) Verbal processes: Processes of communication.
- 5) Behavioral processes: Hybrid processes== a material + mental process.
- 6) Existential: Processes of existing by an empty there in subject position.

### B. Interpersonal Function

Based on Huzhuanglin (1988, p. 313), "the interpersonal function embodies all uses of language to express social and personal relations". This includes the various ways the speaker enters a speech situation and performs a speech act'. According to O' Halloran (2006, p. 15), "The interpersonal metafunction relates to a text's aspects of tenor or interactivity". "Like field, tenor comprises three component areas: the speaker/writer persona, social distance, and relative social status". "Social distance and relative social statuses are applicable only to spoken texts, although a case has been made that these two factors can also apply to written text".

The speaker/writer persona is related to attitude, personalization and place of the speaker/writer. This concerns the neutral attitudes of speaker and writer by using of positive and negative language. Relative social statuses investigate if speakers are equal or not. Coffin (2006, p. 22-23) argues that,

Social distance means how close the speakers are, e.g. how the use of nicknames shows the degree to which they are intimate. Relative social statuses ask whether they are equal in terms of power and knowledge on a subject, for example, the relationship between a mother and child would be considered unequal. Focuses here are on speech acts (e.g. whether one person tends to ask questions and the other speaker tends to answer), who chooses the topic, turn management, and how capable both speakers are of evaluating the subject.

Speaker uses language to provide a relationship between himself and hearer. He uses language for informing, questioning, greeting, persuading and the like.

Two terms that are used to express the interpersonal functions are modality and mood. Modality extends between extensive positive and extensive negative in social communication. Mood concerns the role that is selected by the speaker in a speech situation and the role that is allocated the addressee. (Huzhunglin, 1988)

### C. Textual Metafunction

"The textual metafunction relates to mode; the internal organization and communicative nature of a text" (O'Halloran, 2006, p. 36). "This comprises textual interactivity, spontaneity and communicative distance" (Coffin, 2006, p. 245). The factors such as lexical density, grammatical complexity, coordination and the use of nominal groups can determine the spontaneity. The communicative distance aims to investigate the text's cohesion regarding how it combines together and how it uses the abstract language.

Coffin (2006) pointed out that the context related to lexical, grammatical and intonational aspects can analyze cohesion according to lexical chains, speech register, tonality, tonicity and tone. The lexical factor puts emphasis on lexical reiteration and sense relationship. Grammatical aspects consider the role of joining adverbials and the meaning repetition that is reflected through elements such as ellipsis, substitution and reference.

### III. DISCUSSION

#### *Detail study on sample speeches*

From table 1, Obama's speech includes 5465 words that constitute 581 sentences and 57 paragraphs. Rouhani's speech includes 2650 words with 221 sentences and 29 paragraphs. As it is realized from two speeches, Obama has used most simple words than Rouhani's. Obama has used colloquial language in order to shorten the distance between him and the audience. As well as he refers to different subjects and different characters to extend his speech. As shown, Rouhani has used fewer yet more difficult words and his language is formal and it can be related to his first days of presidency.

TABLE 1  
STATISTIC OF SAMPLE SPEECH

Statistical terms	Statistic	
	Obama's speech	Rouhani's speech
Words	5465	2650
Sentences	581	221
Paragraphs	57	29

#### A. Transitivity Analysis

Transitivity is a system for explaining the whole clause instead of describing the verb and its object (Thompson, 1996, p. 78). According to Halliday a clause consists of three components: process, participant and circumstances. Halliday divides these processes into 6 types: material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, verbal process, and existential process.

TABLE 2.  
TRANSITIVITY IN THE SAMPLE SPEECHES

Process types		Obama's speeches		Rouhani's speeches	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1	Material	228	46	54	38
2	Relational	97	29	50	35
3	Mental	62	18	13	9
4	Behavioral	1	0	2	1
5	Verbal	15	4	15	10
6	Existential	4	1	5	3

From table 2, it can be concluded that material process has the first rank with 47% and 38% frequency among other processes. Second is relational process with 29% and 35% frequency, followed by mental process 18% and 9%. The lowest numbers of processes are behavioral process with 0 and 1%, then existential with 1% and 3% and finally verbal process with 4% and 10%.

#### 1. Material Process

Material process includes the activities and events that occur in the human's external world (Saragih, 2010, p. 7). Material process is process of "doing" or "happening". There are two participants in this process:

Actor: The one who does the action.

Goal: The one who is affected by the action.

This process applies action words either abstract or concrete.

TABLE 3  
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF ROUHANI'S SPEECHES (MATERIAL PROCESS)

Actor	Process	Goal
I, we, Iran, those, Iranian people, Sadam Hossein.	Played, harpoon, help, vote, defend, seeks	With chemical weapons, situation. Syria's acceptance, discourse, the peace, problems

TABLE 4  
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF OBAMA'S SPEECH (MATERIAL PROCESS)

Actor	Process	Goal
I, we, they, our, America, United states, those, UN, Syria	Use, give, persuade, return, continue, help, move, urge, provide, rebuild, walk, develop, reject, resolve, carry out, kill, deliver	Weapons, the Syrian people, settlements, prewar statues, moderate opposition, a peaceful resolution, Geneva process, all nations, nuclear weapons, nations, the issue, this attack, his people, beyond conflict. Peaceful.

Table 3&4 demonstrate that material process indicates government's activities. What presidents have done and will do for their people in future. According to table 3 most of the actors in Obama's speech are I, we, America, United States that enable us to realize that Obama and his government are action leaders who are against chemical weapons and want to do their best to provide a kind of peace among nations. But the number of this process in Rouhani's speech is much fewer and most of the actors are I, we, Iran but this does not mean that Rouhani is not an action leader since it was the first days of his presidency and also he refers to wise choice of Iranian speech.

#### Obama's speech:

*We (Actor) will dismantle (Material process) terrorist networks (Goal) that threaten (material Process) our people (Goal). Whenever possible we (Actor) will build (Material Process) the capacity of our partner (Goal), respect (Material Process) the sovereignty of nations (Goal) and work (Material Process) to address the root cause of terror (Goal). But when it is necessary to defend (Material Process) the United States (Goal) against terrorist attacks, we (Actor) will take direct actions (Material Process) and finally we (Actor) will not tolerate (Material Process) the development (Goal) or use of weapons of mass destruction so we (Actor) reject (Material Process) the development of nuclear weapons (Goal).*

#### Rouhani's speech:

*The Iranian people, (Actor) in a judiciously sober choice in the recent election, voted (Material Process) for the discourse of hope, foresight and prudent moderation (Goal). In foreign policy, the combination of these elements means that the Islamic Republic of Iran, (Actor) will act responsibility (Material Process) with regard to regional and international security (Goal).*

### 2. Relational process

"Relational process is a process of being that through identification, attribution, and possession shows the link among entities" (Saragih, 2010, p. 8). This process is identified by two modes: identifying relational process and attributive relational process. Identifying relational process means that one entity is being used to identify another. The verbs that are use in such process are (am, is, are, was, were...) become, etc.

Attributive process means that an entity has some characteristics that ascribed to it' (Halliday, 1994, p. 120). The verbs that are used in this process are (look, cost, play, sound, gets, seem...).

TABLE 5  
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF OBAMA'S AND ROUHANI'S SPEECHES (RELATIONAL PROCRAEE)

Attributive relational process	Identifying relational process
The leaders who built united nations were not na ĩve.	War in Iraq was the dominant issue. The dominant issue in Iraq was war.
Intolerance is the predicament of our time	The Taliban and Al-Qaide are just two examples of such catastrophes. Two examples of such catastrophes are the Taliban and Al-Qaide.

The modes which are established in this process are attributive and identifying. If the process is attributive the participants are carrier and attribute and clauses with attributive processes are non-passivisable. According to table 5 "the leaders" is carrier and "na ĩve" is attribute. The carrier in this process is treated as real and obvious which is represented through was, were, am, and etc. but if the process is identifying the participants are token and value and clauses undergo passivisation. According to above table "war" is token and "the dominant issue" is value. Relational process is considered as a process of being which can explain about the relationship between traditional ideals and their beliefs that such explanations have a role in showing that president aim is to express his reasons in a natural way which is unconsciously accepted and the audience can take the required sacrifice in the speech (Cheng Yumin, 2007).

### 3. Mental Process

This process includes perception, cognition, affection and desire verbs such as know, think, feel, hear, see, like, hate, please, and etc.

#### Obama's and Rouhani's speech:

- 1) *I (Sensor) know (Mental Process) that some now criticize the action in Libya as an object lesson.*
- 2) *We (Sensor) have seen (Mental Process) terrorists target innocent civilians in a crowded shopping mall.*
- 3) *They (Sensor) feel (Mental Process) in having no firm place in the community of nations.*
- 4) *I (Sensor) listened (Mental Process) carefully to the statements.*

From above examples there is sensor that feels (emotionally), think and perceive and the phenomenon which is felt and thought about. The sense involves in this process expressed by human being or a conscious entity. Human can express their inner feeling to arouse the sense of others. For example presidents use the mental verbs such as think, know, feel.... to express their opinion, thought, and taste to connect their political beliefs with people expectations.

#### B. Modality Analysis

One of the important factors that have crucial role in carrying out the interpersonal metafunction is modality which represents to what extent the proposition is acceptable.

#### 1. Modal verbs



TABLE 6  
MODAL VERBS (ZHANG GUOLING, 2006)

	Low Politeness	Median Politeness	High Politeness
Positive	Can, may, could, might, dare	Will, would, should, shall	Must, ought to, need, has/had to
negative	Needn't, doesn't/didn't, need to, have to	Won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, isn't/wasn't to.	Mustn't, oughtn't, can't, couldn't, mayn't, mightn't hasn't/hadn't to

TABLE 7.  
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF OBAMA'S AND ROUHANI'S SPEECH (MODAL VERBS)

Sample speech	Total number	Low politeness		Median politeness		High politeness	
		No	%	No	%	No	%
Obama	5465	54	98%/0	69	1/26%	30	54%/0
Rouhani	2650	6	22%/0	28	1/05%	7	0/26%

- 1) *It must also be measured by our ability to resolve conflict.*
- 2) *United States will never compromise our commitment to Israel's security.*
- 3) *We can arrive at a framework to manage our differences.*

According to table 7, in both speeches the median politeness has the first rank with 1/26 percent. The most frequently adopted modal verb in both speeches is 'will'. The next is 'can' and then 'must'. These two presidents have used 'will' in their speeches more than other verbs to show what they will do in future. It demonstrates the president's capability in ruling his government with difficulties in future.

## 2. Tense

According to Halliday (1994), the term tense refers to past, present, or future at the moment of speaking.

TABLE 8  
TENSE OF SENTENCES

Sample speeches		Total number	Present		Past		Future	
			Simple	Perfect	Simple	Perfect	Simple	Past
Obama	NO	339	154	47	95	3	34	6
	%		45/5	13/86	28/2	0/88	10/2	1/76
Rouhani	NO	94	44	18	16	1	14	1
	%		47	19/14	17/02	1/06	14/89	1/06

Based on table 8, we can see that simple present in both speeches occurs the most frequency; with an average percentage of 45/5 and 47%. Simple past has ranked in the second level with 28/2 and 17/02 percent. Finally future tense, with percentage of 10/2 and 14/89, ranks third. It is natural that simple present tense has the most frequency. The Presidents are talking in the present situation with the present audience. They are talking about issues that are based on facts. They try to focus the attention of people to the current events in their country. They use the simple past to refer to the past activities and what they have done in past. For example, in Obama's speeches the use of simple past or past perfect represents his activities. He refers to other leader's activities in the past and aware or recalls the people about the previous actions have done by president or other characters. Everyone's ambition is to know about future. Simple future is used with less frequency in both speeches since individuals cannot express their actions definitely in the future. So they cannot make promises about their actions in the future. One of the important features of this tense is that when it is uttered by presidents, respected characters, it can arouse people's motivation and hope in order to relate their beliefs to future's events.

## 3. Personal pronouns

Li (2002) states that one of the roles of personal pronoun is that it has an interpersonal function in discourse and it makes a kind of link between the speaker and the listener in a speech.

TABLE 9.  
PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Personal pronoun		Sample speeches	
		Obama's speech	Rouhani's speech
First person	I (me)	40	12
	We (us)	93	16
Second person	You (you)	1	3
Third person	He (him)	2	0
	She (her)	0	0
	It (it)	26	7
	They (them)	23	5
Possessive pronoun		Obama's speech	Rouhani's speech
	My (mine)	5	4
	Our (ours)	44	9
	Your (yours)	0	0
	His (his)	6	0
	Her (hers)	0	0
	Its (its)	10	1
	Their (theirs)	7	0

The data at table 9 shows that, the first person pronouns (we and I) are used the most in both addressers' speech. In Obama's speech 'we' turns up 90 times and in Rouhani's speech it turns up about 16 times. The pronoun 'we' suggests two meanings. On one hand it suggests an idea of 'I and you' that shortens the distance between the president and the audience and creates a feeling of common purpose. On the other hand, it means 'I and others', which refers to a sense of authority by the addresser and his team, who tries to establish the powerful government that the audience expects.

### C. Textual Analysis

This metafunction considers the internal organization of a text in order to create a message. The whole text should be coherent, organized, accurate and logical to persuade the audience (Wang, 2010).

Here we take Obama's speech as an example. Obama's inaugural speech includes following information:

- 1) Salutation
- 2) Introducing UN as an institute to resolve problems.
- 3) Explain about different attacks at different places
- 4) Refer to Assad regime that uses chemical weapons.
- 5) Explain about role of UN and international law in meeting cries for justice
- 6) Welcome the influence of all nations that can help bring about a peaceful resolution of Syria's civil war.
- 7) America policy toward Middle East and North Africa.
- 8) America's diplomatic efforts will focus on two particular issues: Iran's pursuit of nuclear weapons, and the Arab Israeli conflict.
- 9) America seeks peace and international community among nations.

## IV. CONCLUSION

Obama's and Rouhani's speeches are analyzed according to Halliday's systematic functional linguistic. Some features of two addressers are revealed as followed. First, Obama has applied a colloquial language, consisting of simple words and short sentences that are understandable to different people. But Rouhani has used more difficult words and his language is rather hard and formal. That is related to his first days of presidency. Second, regarding transitivity analysis, which is based on different processes, both addressers' speeches have included the material processes as a process of 'doing' and "happening" more than other processes. This is especially prevalent in Obama's inaugural speech. It can be realized that one of the notable functions of this process regards to president's activities and his government. Including what presidents have done and will do in future. Third, from modality metafunction, it can be understood that presidents' use of modal verbs shows their firm plan to fulfill the tasks and make their language easy as much as possible as well as shortening the distance between the president and the audience. Another role of modal verbs, especially the frequent use of 'will' and 'can' in presidents' inaugural speeches, can persuade the audience to have faith in the government's ability about the difficulties that their country may confront in the future.

One of the prominent factors that signalize an addresser's speech is the use of personal pronouns. Obama and Rouhani give significant role to personal pronouns such as 'we' to make sense of intimacy with the audience as well as follow a common objective. The tense can be another factor that signalizes presidents' political speech. Because it refers to present, past and future events as well as activities that demonstrate government's objectives and at the same time display the world wide situations that extend from political, cultural, and economical field at present.

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# The Quest Motif of Jewish Culture and Saul Bellow's Model of Novels

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**Abstract**—Set in the context of Jewish culture, the thesis explores the model of novels written by Saul Bellow. The author of the thesis holds that there is a quest model in Bellowian texts, either apparently or inwardly, which are related to Jewish culture. And the model is a kind of Jewish uniqueness: i.e. first, the agents to quest in the text are intellectuals; second, the quest is a spiritual one more or less; at last, it is uncertain and ironical.

**Index Terms**—quest motif, Saul Bellow, novel model, Jewish literature

## I. INTRODUCTION

Some scholars of anthropologist classify heroic stories into two types: i.e. quest and initiation ones (Campbell, 2003, p.100). By the division, readers of Saul Bellow may easily find some kind of intertextual models through Bellow's works. For instance, from his early novel *Dangling Man* (1944), whose main character is Joseph, *The Adventures of Augie March* (1953), the titular hero Augie March, *Seize the Day* (1956), Tommy Wilhelm as the central character, *Henderson the Rain King* (1959), Henderson the key character, till the middle representative one of *Herzog*, Moses Herzog the core character, and even his short story *Looking for Mr. Green* (1951), the readers are likely to find that all the novels are a kind of similar plot model, in which the main characters seem to be questing for something unknown to them. "But during their escapades they are all on the run, not from something but towards something, a goal somewhere which will give them what they lack--firm ground under their feet." ([http://www.nobelprize.org/nobel\\_prizes/literature/laureates/1976/bellow-lecture.html](http://www.nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/literature/laureates/1976/bellow-lecture.html), 16/8/2014) From the Award presented to Saul Bellow, the author of the thesis holds that the protagonists are running for something. And so, he claims that the above-mentioned novels are quest types. But, regrettably, the Nobel Prize Committee for Literature declares merely that the heroes want to gain a small patch of "firm ground under their feet"; as to what is the firm ground, they have no further clear interpretation of it. So, the author of the thesis tries to explore the exact essential of their goals, which are uncertain, changing, on the move and difficult to define. Probably, the goals could be interpreted as money, love, rank or risk, and liberty, truth, self-identity, Heaven or a kind of spiritual homeland, or anything tangible and exact. In fact, the heroes are puzzled to look for the objects, and the writer, Saul Bellow himself feel "perplexed" to point out what they actually are. If the author of the thesis did so, he would commit either "intentional" or "emotional errors". To his delight, his purpose is not to find the goals which the heroes are seeking for, but to explain the plots of quest of the novels.

## II. THE INTERPRETATIONS OF BELLOW'S TEXTS BASED UPON THE QUEST MODELS

*Dangling Man*, the first novel of quest narrative, telling us a story about Joseph, twenty-seven, from Chicago, is Bellow's first work which establishes his fame. Joseph, quitting his job in Travel Bureau, is waiting anxiously to be recruited. The story, in a form of journal, depicts Joseph's alienation during his time expecting to be enlisted. He feels to be separated and rejected by his families and communities because of his quarreling with his close friends, brothers, relatives and even his wife. We can see his idea in Joseph's words, 'I am enclosed in the small room, isolated, alienated, suspected, and I am not in a wide world but a closed hopeless prison. My vision is closed by the walls as well as my future. I have no future but the past, which rushes towards me with coldness and ignorance.' That is what Joseph's idea is at the time, which is a real description of his mind before his joining the army. After resigning his job, nothing else to do, Joseph has abundant time, which he intends to make use of; thus he might spend his days a little bit easily. And he picks up again his philosophy to study; unfortunately he doesn't know how to enjoy the free time. To him, the freedom is a burden on his shoulders, which is becoming heavier and heavier. In the end, he just stays in the room, reading newspaper or listening to the radio endlessly, watching maiden clear his house, staring at the cold outside of the window, and tries to think about the future and fate of human beings. Joseph always feels painful for what he sees in the world or what he is running for is never the present world he sees or expects; the readers may understand what Joseph is looking for is the essence hidden behind the phenomenon of the world. However, he is depressed and dejected about the world because what he sees is not what he wants indeed. Furthermore, he continuously re-examines himself over and again, and makes dialogues with his self-alternative ego to explore what is the world's essence. His reflective questions are like "For what is it?" "For what am I?" "Is this what I am for?" Joseph's questions are real dialogues with his soul and spirit to test and are to find the actual appeal from his heart, which is similar to Raskolnikov, a hero of *Crime and*

*Punishment* created by Fyodor Dostoyevsky (1821-81), a great Russian novelist. Here, we can see the influence from Dostoyevsky. Though Joseph is exploring his spiritual call, he fails to find it. To some extent, he is aware that he should live for his inner heart. The burden and vainness from his living, the coldness and jealousy from the world, his skeptical quest from the inner heart, etc., everything unlucky led him to go to barrack. In the end of the story, he is delighted that he is no longer responsible for himself for he is going to be dominated by others in the military regimes. When we readers read here to stop to think a moment, an impetus to ask such a question, "Joseph had resigned his job for freedom at first; after he gained it, he was puzzled and perplexed to enjoy it; and he was obliged to dangle here and there to kill the noble freedom; finally, he is cheerful to be charged by somebody else, i.e. he is happy to lose his freedom. We could not resist asking: Does Joseph quest for freedom or just throw it away? Is he not paradoxical? What is his final goal to run for in the end?" To those questions, it seems unknown to the readers as well.

First, let us see the plot of *Augie March*, which has a clear quest line throughout the text. Augie March, the protagonist, is a Jewish guy born in Chicago. From 12 years on, everyone around him tries every conceivable means to dominate or influence him. The first one is a tenant Granny Lausch, who becomes the real king at last in his family. She constantly teaches him how to lie and to be a decent gentleman. "Coached by Grandma Lausch, I went to do the lying. Now I know it wasn't so necessary to lie, but then everyone thought so..." (Bellow, 2007, p.2) A second one, who tries to manage and govern Augie, is William Einhorn, No. 1 local broker of real-estate in the district. He often teaches Augie that all human beings are ranked and functioned differently, but he, with a special mission, is set in privileged group; Augie, belonged to an inferior one to him. And he would condescend himself to direct Augie to be the most outstanding guy in the privileged. Besides Einhorn, Mrs. Renling, the owner of a saddle shop, is willing to adopt Augie as well to arrange his life and future just because he is a sort of adopted boy, who could be treated and trained as her "perfect image". Actually, her would-be adoption is only to prove her construction of the world and her power. And even Simon, Augie's older brother, hopes Augie to follow Mrs. Renling. Simon told him that it is a fact that he should put selfishness and jealousy before anybody's death only if he could benefitted. He said,

"...you wise up to fact that first comes all the selfish and jealous stuff, that you don't care what happens to anybody else as long as you get yours, you start to think such things as how pleasant it would be if somebody close to you would die and leave you free. Then I thought it would be all the same to the somebodies if I die." (Bellow, 2007, p.213)

And the last one to guide Augie is his girlfriend Thea, who also wishes him to believe her power, and to live the life she yearns for. To all of the advisors and teachers, in Augie's words, they exhausted their tether to distinguish themselves from others, to enlist others to give performance, support their imagined world, and serve them.

However, Augie is never willing to be obedient to the leaders, who always want to control or alter his life. He is a natural rebel, and has a tendency to say "No" to the dominating forces around him. Once he found the danger to be dominated or assimilated, he would struggle to fight against them to defend his own idea. Thus, Augie is determined insistently to seek for his own independent fate so as to escape from others' restraint and control over his fate. Apparently, Augie's search for his fate has left his footprints over Europe and America, whose purpose is merely to live a life he desires, so he is an actual picaroon, whose search is different from Joseph's spiritual one. From Augie's quest, he is embodied a "meaningful, unique and noble" quality. After reading *Augie March*, we hold that the novel corresponds with the novel narrative of quest, because "a picaresque novel represents a traveling plot of on-the-road by adopting the style of adventures, or wanders" (Yang Jingjian, 2006, p.122).

A third one of Bellow's novels to employ the quest narrative is *Seize the Day*, which tells us a day about Tommy Wilhelm, the central character. During the single day, Saul Bellow weaves brilliantly many plots back and forth in the novel, including Tommy's reminisce, changing name, going to Hollywood to learn producing movies, resigning his jobs, asking for help from his father, Dr. Adler, divorcing against his wife, capital investment, etc.; in the end he joins a stranger's funeral parade, follows them into a synagogue, and begins to comprehend his life after listening to the music. And the story ends surprisingly. As far as all series of the plots are concerned, the author of the thesis holds the view that they are representations of the hero's struggle or quest for his life goal though failed. First, Tommy Wilhelm's changing name signifies to seek to gain his identity and recognition in the host society. He regards his old name Wilky as too Jewish flavor and has altered it into "Tommy", which sounds American. Nevertheless, he struggles to be an actual "Tommy" and never feels he is "Tommy" in the least indeed, because the "Wilky" is still dominating his whole soul and mind. He has to comfort himself and find excuse, i.e., perhaps the new name "Tommy" is not accepted just because he has not found the tangible success. In the meanwhile, the readers think Tommy is too childish, immature, and unrealistic for his changing name. Tommy should bear it in mind: it is impossible for somebody to gain foothold or recognition, or to achieve his success without hard work. Second, Wilhelm quits his schooling to learn to produce a movie in Hollywood, which shows he is ambitious and idealistic at his youth. As a college student, he is worthy of others' praise for his ambition or ideal. Unfortunately, What Wilhelm is doing is only to catch up with the Jones; he doesn't calm down to analyze the business, and design his future journey of life according to his own situation; he is too stupid to reject the sweet words of movie directors from Hollywood. As a result, Wilhelm is involved into a trap, for he seems to ride a blind horse as a blind. Third, as to the divorce, the author thinks that Wilhelm breaks the ethics of Jewish family to run for a fresh love. Also, some scholar of Saul Bellow studies claims that the plot has something to do with Bellow's divorce (Zhou Nanyi, 2003, p.130). That is why Bellow can give us a realistic description of it. Fourth, because of the cold hard surroundings and Wilhelm's fragility, we can say he is timid, irresolute and indecisive, which

leads him to his being fired of his job, which he is promised to be promoted. The embarrassment forced him to ask for help from his father, a millionaire. If we take a further analysis of the plot, we can see Wilhelm is very emotional for he still thinks of his father to rely upon at the critical time. And his intended dependence on his father is a clear signal to look for fatherly love. Unexpectedly, the father refuses to give him a single buck, which makes Wilhelm feel depressed and disappointed with his father. Dr. Adler cried, "Go away from me now. It's torture for me to look at you, you slob!" (Bellow, 2007, p.110) Even the father is barbarous. And so Wilhelm has no relatives to turn to for help; he is forced to ask Dr. Tamkin, a fake doctor and speculator, to put his final 700 bucks into a stock market, in which he wishes to earn a little more. Yet the final ray of hope is broke; Dr. Tamkin elopes away with the capital investment. At the moment, Wilhelm is in a dead dark lane. Lost and puzzled, standing in the street, he is carried away and involved into a funeral parade in the dusk in a cold afternoon. In a synagogue, he seems to seize the essence of his life. The novel is finished here, and we can see Wilhelm struggles to look for happiness, love and ideal, he fails again and again in this world; fortunately, he understands something in a church unconsciously. Does it indicate that Bellow points out the last redeemer of God for Wilhelm?

The fourth novel adopted the quest motif is *Henderson the Rain King*, another influential work appeared in 1959. The story depicts Henderson, a millionaire, set his foot over the world to look for his inner cry for he has the cry "I want" in heart. From American continent throughout African tribes---Arnewi and Wariri, there are full of his footprints to search for the cry. His quest is both sincere and funny, and the end is comic and annoying. Henderson thought he should have found the truth of life by reading the books of his father's heritage only to find countless notes and currency inserted in the books; he wants to live a life of peace; yet his wife---Lily is out of way and just goes to the contrary; he had intended to help out the tribes to get rid of the disaster of drought and frog, but to commit a horrible crime. Perhaps the most ridiculous thing he has undertaken turns him into the idol for the mass peoples in Wariri, i.e. the Rain King, who is admired by the tribe. He can hardly accept that the dignity and wisdom can be established and gained in a throng of lions so as to release from the spiritual shackles.

As to the quest undertaken by Henderson, the author thinks that it is really valuable in two dimensions. On one hand Henderson is seeking for something tangible and visible, i.e. a real object; on the other he is looking for a spiritual prop, a belief or something like that. There are some scholars who stick to all kinds of interpretations; they hold that what Henderson wants is love, forgiveness, or a peaceful life and the like, anything but to escape from alienation. Nevertheless, we are sure that why Henderson cried "I want!" in his chest for his empty life, lack of foothold in the world or for endless demands. As a matter of fact, we readers are not available to understand his idea. Yet recently, there is a comment, which says Henderson is undertaking a spiritual conversion and freed from modern scuffs. Of course, it is reasonable, but the opinion itself probably has a restriction upon other possible explanations to the quest. Hence, the author prefers that his quest is uncertain and changeable. Moreover, Henderson's comic behaviors, sublime or stupid, bring us to the image of Don Quixote, the "comic and mad" knight, who is devoted to carrying out justice and fighting against the evils. Henderson and Don Quixote have something in common. So we see the shadow and ghost of Don Quixote after over a thousand years. Don Quixote is here again but not in the Dark Ages---the Middle Ages. The story provides the readers with much to thought indeed. And we have to ask such a question: "Is the world out of order or are we human beings mad?" Probably both, if so, which is a hazard and emergent to resolve.

The final one which uses the quest motif is *Herzog* (1964), a representative work of Saul Bellow, "representing the middle class, especially the intelligentsia's perplexity and puzzlement in modern society, *Herzog* is a bridge of Bellow's works in his whole writing career." (Song Zhaolin, 2002, p.3) The story describes what happens to Moses Herzog, the core character, within only five days. Anxiously, Herzog seems to be on the constant move to look for something, but in the end taking paining-efforts for nothing. The plot is simple enough: After his divorce with the second wife Madeleine, Herzog always writes to relatives, friends, celebrities, the known or unknown, the dead or living, God and even himself without ending, yet he has never sent. In the meantime, he is reminding of his past, experience, families, parents, brothers and sisters, lovers and friends and the like. He is thirsty for true and perfect love. His first wife Daisy is very nice to him, who thinks she is too traditional; and he lost his head and is divorced with Daisy. The second wife Madeline, open and pretty, has adultery with his best friend Gersbach, which Herzog is forced to be estranged and divorced with Madeleine. He is strong, but has three women around as mistresses for quite a long time, and is not married one of them. His attitude or behavior to love is either playing a game or an endless quest for a perfect lover. From Herzog's letters and reminisce, we can witness clearly he is filled with chaos and perplexity, which is resulted not only from his broken marriages but also the messy reality, for which has led him to be lost. In the reality there are his friends' betrayal, relatives' estrangement, political plots, and etc., which are a series of performances. Thus, Herzog, a humanist and Romanticist, can't find his foothold to survive, and becomes a dangling man like Joseph of *Dangling Man*. By quoting Herzog's words, Saul Bellow interprets the chaos:

*"And why? Because he let the entire world press upon him. For instance? Well, for instance, what it means to be a man. In a city. In a century. In transition. In a mass. Transformed by science. Under organized power. Subject to tremendous controls. In a condition caused by mechanization. After the late failure of radical hopes. In a society that was no community and devalued the person. Owing to the multiplied power of numbers which made the self negligible. Which spent military billions against foreign enemies but would not pay for order at home. Which permitted savagery and barbarism in its own great cities...."* (Bellow, 2007, p.201)

In 1950s~60s of the last centuries, American society is what Herzog sees; there are more details to describe the situation, i.e., individualism is destroyed, humanism is degenerated. Faced the worsening situation, Herzog can hardly accept it, for he is an intellectual harboring a noble ideal. Therefore, certainly he feels a stranger and hurt. To our console, Herzog never abandons his ideal to look for and reflect upon himself frequently. He struggles to find a solution to the ailing society. Herzog's quest, according to Liu Hongyi, a scholar of Jewish literature, calls it a spiritual exile (Liu Hongyi, 1995, 187). And so, the author regards it as a spiritual exploration. Though Herzog put himself into thinking and reflecting, and nothing visible is come up for our reference. Consequently, Herzog is only a thinker, not a practical doer; *Herzog* is a narration of Herzog's spiritual quest for foothold, though his quest is not systematic and available to find a final answer.

Besides the long stories, Bellow's short ones also follow the quest motif to organize the narration. The most typical one is *Looking for Mr. Green* (1951), an earliest short story. First we can judge the story is the kind of quest from the title. Then, we are convinced to see the plots. During the Depression (1929-1933), the hero, Grebe, is offered a junior post after his utmost efforts. On his first day to work, he is sent to dispatch relief fund to a black community. Mr. Green is one of the fund takers. Despite of the extremely bad weather, Grebe goes to deliver the aid to him. The obstacle to find Mr. Green is he seems to be invisible, because his neighbors are reluctant to talk about or to contact with him; they all tell Grebe, "They don't know him" or "They have never seen him." In the end Grebe finds Mr. Green's house, and is sure of his staying at home; nobody answers his knocks when Grebe knocks at the gate; so Grebe has to hand the relief check to a drunken naked black woman. The quest plot is simple indeed. Some scholar holds that the quest is both spiritual and physical (Bach, 1999, p.73~74). Physically, Grebe's quest is to find Mr. Green, an average human being; spiritually, it symbolizes universal love and care.

After all, if we take the above-mentioned texts into account together, we can see there are some connections among the stories. In the first, they have similar plots, either spiritual or practical quest; in the second, the main characters share some things in common, they have similar character, i.e. Joseph, Grebe and Herzog, they are a kind of somber, Henderson and Augie, open and optimistic. The author of the thesis holds that *Dangling Man* lays the foundation for Bellow's whole writing, a parent's text, which foreshadows Bellow's tone, style and genre.

### III. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF BELLOW'S QUEST

Bellow's narrative type of quest, from the author's viewpoints, is associated with Jewish tradition and culture first; second, they are the products of the modern and post-modern times; the last and the most important factor to create the novels comes from the appeal of "the conscience of society" arising from an intellectual, of course, i.e. Bellow's observation and reflection. It is known to us that Bellow's families are Jewry for generations, whose grandparents were nobles in Russian Tsar's reign. And the family started to descend till Alexander II was assassinated in the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century, which resulted in persecuting and driving out Jews as scapegoats. For the worsening situation in Russia, Bellow's parents moved their families to Canada in 1913. According to Bellow's memories, he began to study Judaist texts as Orthodox adults in Old Times. He is immersed into learning *Old Testaments*, from then on, so he is quite familiar with *Genesis* and even takes it for granted. He is too absorbed into the stories to tell them from the world (Kramer, 2007, p.10). All the facts prove that Bellow is in command of the Jewish culture and tradition. We know that human beings have set foot on the quest for a way home since our ancestors Adam and Eve privately ate the forbidden fruits and were driven away from the Garden of Eden by God. Arnold Toynbee(1898-1975), an English historian, remarked, once Adam and Eve were driven out of the Garden of Eden, they have been longed for the Garden, which is a symbol of paradise; they begin the journey to look for the way home. In *Genesis* there are recordings of Jewish forefather, Moses leads their Jewish tribes to return to homeland—Canna, a Promising Land by God after 40-year-exile in Sinai Desert. In fact, if we take a historic look at the Jewry's development, the Jewry is doomed to look for its homeland in the birth of Jewry. As the loyal followers of Jehovah, the Jewry is led by Abraham to leave for Canna to fulfill God's Promise. But, they are driven away by aliens and become wanders over the ends of the Earth, which is called Diaspora; they are marginalized and murdered by other ethnics; they are regarded as strangers. During World War II, they are at the edge of racial extinction because of the Final Solution. The Jewry as a nation has not gained its foothold until the establishment of Israel in 1948. Historically, to find a foothold is an ethical mission for the Jewry; the Diaspora of nearly 2,000 years had demonstrated that. Therefore, the quest motif is one of the most primary literary ones throughout the Jewish culture, which is adopted by Jewish writers. Saul Bellow, as a banner-bearer of Jewish literature, influenced by the Jewish culture, it is no wonder to find the quest motif in his creative products.

Second, the Bellowian texts are affected by the times, i.e., the 1940s, 50s and 60s, which leave the prints in the writings. During the mid-1940s, World War II is just over; the whole world is still hidden beneath heaps of the ruins. Faced the world, the majority of the mass people are lost to what to do. And in the United States, a kind of despair is prevailing. Calvino, an Italian novelist, describes the times:

*When we have found the imperial power, which was used to be taken as a complex of miracles, and now, a wasteland of chaos, filled with corrupted maggots here and there, even the Holly Stick of human beings is powerless to cope with, the victory achieved by fights against enemies has turned the human into the offspring of destruction, it is a moment of despair indeed* (Calvino, 1998,p.221).

The quotation is an illustration of Americans' despair about the country and the world as well an indication of the

outlook to the world spread in American literary stage. Up to 1950s, American government advocates suppressing policy against the East, i.e., the Communist countries; from President Truman, McCarthy till Eisenhower, they are pioneers to anti-communism, who have waged a Cold War between the West and the East for over half a century; in 1960s, there are Civil Right movements full play, including anti-Vietnam War, Feminism and counter-culture, and so on, which bring up riots and threats to civil safety and security, people feel uncertain and begin to lose beliefs. At the time Saul Bellow is not satisfied with the situation, so he struggles to find the foothold for human beings in the crippled society, which is a historic act and duty for a Jewish intellectual. And Bellow doesn't believe the phenomenon; he says that the kingdom of value and fact will never be separated ([http://www.nobelprize.org/nobel\\_prizes/literature/laureates/1976/bellow-lecture.html](http://www.nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/literature/laureates/1976/bellow-lecture.html), 8/16/2014). It tells us that he is convinced that the value kingdom exists in the world. Consequently, his protagonists are trying to find a small patch of firm foothold, i.e. the value kingdom or spiritual prop. That is why we agree that his works are echoes to the times and the answer to the call of his conscience.

Bellow's Jewish background helps him create the quest models with Jewish flavor. First, the protagonists to carry out the quest are intellectuals with Jewish origin, some of whom have even attended higher education; Augie, with the least schooling, had been to night class of a college in Chicago for two years. The adoration for wisdom and knowledge is rooted in the Jewish culture. From the story of *Old Testament*, we know there are two trees in the Garden of Eden, one is the tree of life, and the other is the tree of knowledge and wisdom. The Garden is the dwelling place for God, so everything in the Garden is holy. Hence, it is evident that the wisdom and knowledge are part and parcel of the Deity. And if we read Jewish classical texts, there are too many scripts in Judaist texts, for instance, the most popular one, "The fear of God is the beginning to have knowledge." (Proverbs, 2004, p.1029) Anybody can find such praise of the wisdom and knowledge in *Proverbs*, which is a book, and composed of the praise and respect for wisdom and knowledge. A third way to prove the adoration is that Jewish parents always teach their children to learn *Holy Bible*, *Talmud*, *Torah* and the typical texts of Judaism, which benefits the children to inherit the Jewish culture and tradition as well to learn knowledge. Furthermore, even the Jewry is in the course of the Diaspora, being slaughtered by aliens, they also set up various schooling institutions so that the poor are available to attend school with little or no payment.

It is recorded in historic documents that the Jewry has almost eradicated the illiterate; which demonstrates the Jewry has paid much attention to education. That is why they are called the nation of A Book. Second, essentially, the quest is spiritual. Whoever, like Joseph, Wilhelm, Herzog, Augie or Henderson, they are spiritual picaroons for their heart has no place to hold, or they have no sense of belonging to something, which leads them to spiritual crisis. Joseph's dialogues with alternative ego and Herzog's letters are expeditions in kingdom of thought, which are comparable with the psychological descriptions written by Dostoyevsky. In fact, the mentality in Bellow's works is connected with Judaist ethics and morals. To interpret it, we have to trace back to the birth of Judaism. In its baby stage, the followers of Judaism are poor, which is called the religion for the poor. So Judaism strongly sticks to the justice, takes sympathy to the fragile and exploited; the Ten Commandments are also basic principles to for an average person; *Deuteronomy* is a book talking about the importance of law and moral as well. So actually, they are spiritual beacons for people. In the old times of Israel, many famous prophets, a special group of intellectuals, stand out to criticize the errors or immoral behaviors of the times, and they are called the conscience of society. Saul Bellow, as an intellectual who has inherited the Jewish tradition, creates a series of heroes to find the spiritual ground for modernists to express his ideas because he thinks the modern times must get something wrong, Bellow's writing is reasonable. Third, the quests in Bellow's novels are endless and have no definite end, which result in a kind of irony. For instance, Joseph's final cry, "Long live the regimes!" is just an ironic escape from the alienation; he is cheerful to lose his liberty; and Augie's questing footmarks are left over Europe and America, whose purpose is to live an independent life without others' control or restraint, which sounds to be a daydream; Herzog, a higher intellectual, returns his old dilapidated house in the countryside, for he is contend with no message with others, which is hard to understand; etc., all the final acts after quests are open to imagine, they have no certain definite answers. All the protagonists are unfortunate in their life; each one performs a kind of individual tragedy, which foreshadows the collective tragedy of Jewish race. As to the irony, it is a natural product when the Lord Almighty chooses the Hebrews and promises them a piece of land flowing with milk and honey; the chosen people have not enjoyed any bliss and bless given by God but endless disasters; the land is not the so-called but filled with wars, troubles and bullies, the gap between God's promise and the reality is too wide to bridge, which forms an irony of fate to the Jewry. In a word, the irony is indispensable in Jewish literature.

#### IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Though the quests are infinite and uncertain, it doesn't mean they signify nothing meaningful. On the contrary, it opens a new phase in American literature. On one hand, Bellow has changed the style of tough guys written by Earnest Hemingway (1899-1961); traditionally, the tough guys are calm, brave and resolute, who are accepted as heroes. Yet, Bellow's characters are hen-picked, cuckolded, divorced, and family-broken and marginalized, they are small statures or a sort of clowns, though they are intellectuals; in Hebrew language they are called the figure of nebbish and schlemiel (Wade, 1999, p.4), which is universal in modern literature, especially in Jewish literature. They are not heroes but anti-heroes. On the other hand, the caricature of the intellectuals, laughed and shown off, as the writing subject, Saul Bellow tries to arouse people's care, concern and attention to them; and we can see his sympathy and irony to the little



wretched man under his writings. Bellow makes good use of the quest motif in Jewish culture, tradition and history, with his focus on the little man; his writings have provided us with colorful insights into the times, who has become an organ to the intelligentsia in contemporary America. Universally speaking, the quest motif belongs to not only the Jewish ethnics but also every nation over the Earth, from the perspective we say Bellow is global, because everyone is on his move to quest for whatever he wishes.

## NOTES

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# Application of Reading Strategies: A Comparative Study between Iranian and Indian EFL Students

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**Abstract**—Reading as an important skill among the other four language skills, received high attention by the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century and a large number of researchers devoted their research papers to different aspects of reading. However, one of the important issues, over the last few decades, has been strategic reading. Early research in this field considered native language (L1), but in the last three decades the emphasis was on second language reading (L2). Despite the wealth of the studies in the area of reading strategies, there was a comparative dearth of research in the comparison of L1 and L2 reading strategies. In line with these facts, this paper attempted to examine whether L1 and L2 readers use the same reading strategies while reading. Using a Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, quantitative data were collected from 30 EFL Iranian and Indian students. The obtained results indicated that while "social strategy" was the most prevalent among different strategy types between natives; non-natives applied "memory and cognitive" strategies more. Transfer, learning environment, and knowledge of the two languages were among influential factors in the use of strategies by the two groups of respondents.

**Index Terms**—strategic reading, second language strategies, transfer, memory and cognitive strategies, social strategy

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, research on reading strategies has become quite sophisticated thanks to the work of a number of researchers (Singhal, 2001; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Phakiti, 2003; Kong, 2006; Cromley & Azevedo, 2006). Among the four language skills, the ability to read academic texts is considered as one of the most important skills that students of English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) need to acquire. As Sheorey & Mokhtari (2001) stated that reading whether in L1 or L2, is a cognitive phenomenon which is the result of the interaction among the reader, the text, and the context of reading. Moreover, to comprehend the text successfully, the reader must utilize metacognitive knowledge and use conscious and deliberate strategies. Research on effective reading in foreign (FL) or second (SL) language learning located the importance of comprehension problems into two sources. First is the traditional view which emphasizes lack of either specific skills or hard work among poor readers and the second approach emphasizes the reading styles and strategies (Amer & Khoussam, 1993).

Strategy can be explained as a conscious repair. It implies some procedures that are used deliberately to achieve some goals, so it can be used intentionally to help one achieve some ends. In his paper, Singhal (2001) made a distinction between strategies that help learners to acquire the materials more effectively, in contrast to strategies that develop comprehension. The first group referred to a group that learn the learning strategies in the second language literature while comprehension or reading strategies indicate how readers apprehend and comprehend a task, how they understand what they read, and what they do when they don't understand. These strategies help learners increase reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures. Reading strategies according to Amer and Khoussam (1993) can be explained as decision processes that lead one to carry out reading skills. They can range from bottom-up strategies, like looking up a word in a dictionary to the more comprehensive actions, like relating what is being read to the readers' background knowledge. Birjandi (2001) claims that there are a set of well-established reading strategies used by second/foreign language learners which help them to process a text actively, to monitor their comprehension, and to connect what they are reading to their own knowledge and other parts of the text. According to Hudson (2007) reading strategy can be defined as any interactive process that has the goal of obtaining meaning from connected text. They can help facilitate comprehension processing of a text.

Although more and less proficient readers know the same strategies, they apply strategies differently. Those who are more proficient use different types of strategies in different ways compared to less proficient ones. Hence, strategic reading is a matter of using appropriate strategies not just knowing them. In Kong's terms (2006), reading or understanding written symbols requires readers to be strategic and use their linguistic knowledge and their knowledge of the topic under discussion. In their paper, Cromley and Azevedo (2006) point out two main bodies of evidence that support the importance of strategies for reading comprehension: descriptive research (including correlational questionnaire studies and think-aloud studies) and experimental intervention studies in which students are taught how to enact specific strategies. Following these claims, the present study made an attempt to explore whether L1 and L2 (native and non-native) readers use the same strategies, as well as to determine which reading strategies are used more by native and non-native readers while reading.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Early research in the field of strategic reading considered native language, such as Feng (1998) in a research project examined the strategies used by native speakers of Chinese while reading easy and difficult expository passages in English and Chinese. The result of the study showed that the subjects were aware of some of the reading strategies while they were reading English and Chinese texts. In addition, the use of strategy in their think-aloud reports showed that reading strategies were used more frequently in English than in Chinese and more frequently for difficult texts than for easy texts where there were differences. In a study, Rao (2006) investigated Chinese students' use of language learning strategies, and then interpreted the data from cultural and educational perspectives. The researcher found some similarities in Chinese students in the use of learning strategies. Results revealed that these similarities could be related to three factors as their cultural and educational background: their cultural views and values, their traditional education pattern of Chinese, and English language as Foreign Language (EFL) setting.

However, in the last three decades the emphasis changed toward L2 interactive reading, in which readers interact with the text using their prior knowledge and cultural background, and on the strategies used by proficient readers. Bimmel, van den Bergh, and Oostdam (2001) established that a great number of strategic reading activities are valuable and useful for L2 reading comprehension that can be trained: 1. Use of the learners' prior linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge. For this group appropriate strategic reading activities are: predicting the content of the text based on the title, pictures and legends, inferring meaning of words based on the hints and clues in the context, and elaborating. 2. Use of the elements of the text which have high information value. The appropriate practices for this group are: skimming, finding the key fragments in the text, taking notes, questioning, outlining and summarizing. 3. Use of the elements that are as structure-marking elements in the text, such as *in summary*, *because*, *in contrast*; furthermore, this is also about connecting words such as *therefore*, *but*, *whereas*, *etc* (p.511).

However, in Sheorey and Mokhtari's (2001) terms, studies on the reading strategies of advanced learners or studies comparing the strategies of such learners with those of native speakers is almost nonexistent. So, some recent studies contributed to a comparison between L1 and L2 reading strategies. Birjandi (2001) investigated the degree of relationship between the reading strategies adopted in the first language and in the foreign language. The results showed that out of 17 strategies classified as positive reading strategies, 6 were used frequently in Persian and English and 10 were used moderately in both languages. However, out of 8 negative strategies, 6 were used moderately in both languages and two other strategies were used relatively infrequently in both languages. Another attempt has been done by Belet and Gursoy in 2008. They explored the possible similarities and differences of strategy use in L1 and L2 reading comprehension by the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. The obtained results from the study showed that although there are similarities in students' strategy use in L1 and L2 reading and strategy groups they involved such as cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive and social strategies, the percentage of the reading strategy they used are different.

A second or foreign adult reader has knowledge and experience of reading and reading strategies in his/her first language which is limited in second language. This issue raises some questions: what strategies a second language learner uses? Does he/she transfer L1 reading strategies into L2? Is a good first language reader also a good second language reader? What is the relation between L1 and L2? (Kong, 2006). Finding answers to these questions can be very helpful in L2 learning and teaching and can help learners in better understanding of L2 texts. According to Upton (1997) transfer from L1 to L2, access to first language (L1) as reading and using it as a strategy to help comprehend an L2 text, can be regarded as an important strategy in reading comprehension. Regarding the relationship between L1 and L2 readings, researchers suggested different hypotheses to explain the process of second language reading. In this regard, Kong (2006) points out two hypotheses. One is the "short circuit hypothesis" proposed by Clarke in 1980. He maintains that limited control over the language 'short circuits', causing readers to use poor strategies while reading a difficult or confusing task in the second language. Clarke (as cited in Kong, 2006) believes that there is a difference between a good reader's system and a poor reader's system when good readers try to use larger chunks of text to fill in cloze test blanks than the poor readers and when they rely more on the semantic clues rather than syntactic ones. On the contrary, another hypothesis proposed by Kong (2006), suggests that higher level L1 strategies can be transferred to a second language reading situation and can act alongside lower processing strategies. Thus the L2 reading process is interactive which takes the readers' background knowledge into consideration (Kong, 2006). To examine the

relationship between L1 and L2 readings, in a study Yamashita (2002) investigated the contribution of first language ability on second language proficiency to L2 reading comprehension. The results of the study confirmed compensation of weak L2 reading strategies by L1 and vice versa.

As mentioned earlier, rarity of studies on the reading strategies of advanced second language learners or that comparing the strategies used by these learners with those used by native speakers (Birjandi, 2001; Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001) impelled the researchers to find answer to the following questions: (Birjandi, 2001; Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001) impelled the researchers to find answer to the following questions:

- What reading strategies are used more by native readers?
- What reading strategies are used more by non-native readers?
- Do native and non-native readers use the same strategies?

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### Participants

Fifteen students majoring in English literature and teaching were recruited as non-native language learners from Ilam University. Nine students were MA student of teaching and the remaining six students BA students of literature. The other group of learners regarded as native speakers were fifteen students of Jawahr Nehru University (JNU) in New Delhi-India. Eight students were females and the rest males.

#### Instrument

The instrument employed in the current study was adapted from Rebecca Oxford's (1990a) 80-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The questionnaire, which is a self-scoring survey, included 80 statements divided into six categories: memory strategies (items 1-15), cognitive strategies (items 16-40), compensation strategies (items 41-48), met cognitive strategies (items 49-65), affective strategies (items 66-71), and social strategies (items 72-80). Subjects asked to report the frequency of the learning strategy they used, in a multiple-choice method through choosing one of the five Likert-scale options for each strategy they applied, the options are: never or almost never true of me, generally not true of me, somewhat true of me, generally true of me, and always or almost always true of me. Besides, the reliability of various forms of SILL was quoted by Oxford as being between 0.93-0.98.

#### Data collection and analysis

The data upon which the study is based were derived from a questionnaire called strategy inventory for language learning (Appendix 1). The questionnaire consists of eighty items with five alternatives for each item and six main parts. The main parts are remembering more effectively, using all mental processes, compensating for missing knowledge, organizing and evaluating learning, managing emotion, and learning with others. Students asked to read each statement and choose the number that uses for them, representing the frequency of the reading strategy they used in the statement. Thus the higher the number they gain, the more frequent it shows that they perceived how to use the specific strategy.

Following the data collection, the analysis involved frequency analysis and independent *t-test* procedures. Descriptive statistics were used to obtain mean of overall strategy use and mean of each individual strategy. Independent *t-test* was used for each item and category in order to determine significant level of data.

### IV. RESULTS

The results of the quantitative data that aims to determine the use of reading comprehension strategies of native and non-native readers of English given in the following tables. First, students' responses in terms of the individual items along with *t-test* results were examined in order to determine if there was any significant difference between two groups of participants. The obtained results shown in table (3.1) in appendix A. After that the mean strategy used in each of the six categories across the entire SILL was shown in table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2.  
TOTAL MEANS FOR NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE READERS FOR SIX PARTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND OBTAINED RESULTS OF *T-TEST*

Parts	mean natives	mean Non-natives	t-test results
Memory	2.91	3.19	.07*
cognitive	3.19	3.45	.03*
compensation	3.29	3.58	.28
meta-cognitive	3.56	3.80	.31
affective	2.95	3	.90
social	3.62	3.12	.04*
total	3.25	3.34	

\*= statistically significant ( $p < .05$ )

Firstly, total mean for each individual item along with *t-test* results was calculated for two groups of participants. In the first category of the questionnaire, i.e. items 1-15, *t-test* results demonstrated that significant results were not obtained for any individual items. Total mean in this part, i.e. memory strategies, is 2.91 for natives and 3.19 for non-natives (see table 3. 2). The results of *t-test* showed that the discrepancy between the two groups was significant ( $p = .07$ ) in favor of non-natives. By looking at table 3.1, it can be said that from among fifteen items, item twelve was rarely used both for L1 and L2 readers.

In the second part, among the total items of twenty five, significant *t-test* results were obtained for items 31, 35, 36, 38, and 39 (for items, see Appendix B). Total mean was 3.19 for natives and 3.45 for non-natives. Obtained significant *t-test* result in this part ( $p=.03$ ) showed that non-natives outperformed their native counterparts. Evidently, in the second part, item 21 for natives and 35 for non-natives received the lowest mean.

In the third part, i.e. compensating for missing knowledge, *t-test* results were significant for four out of eight items. Total mean for natives was 3.29 and for non-natives 3.58. In this part, unlike the two previous parts, the difference between the obtained total means was not significant. Items 42 and 43 received the lowest mean for natives and non-natives respectively.

In the next part, metacognitive strategies, which consists of seventeen items, significant results were obtained for four items, 49, 62, 63, and 65. Total mean was 3.56 for natives and 3.80 for non-natives which the difference was not significant. In this section, items 58 and 65 were used by less number of students.

In the fifth section, affective strategies, one out of six items (item 68) was significant. Total mean was 2.95 and 3 for natives and non-natives respectively. The lowest means belong to items 68 and 71 for natives and non-natives.

The last part of the questionnaire, social strategies, consists of three significant results (items 69, 72, and 75). Total means was 3.62 for natives and 3.12 for non-natives. As demonstrated, in this part significant result obtained in favor of natives, i.e. natives outperformed non-natives. Based on the results, it can be claimed that natives obtained the lowest mean in item 80 and non-natives in item 73.

Secondly, six parts of the questionnaire examined separately in order to determine which categories used more by two groups and *t-test* results deployed to see whether the differences between two groups of participants were significant. "To distinguish how frequent each learning group uses the reading strategy, Oxford (1990) determines a mean of all participants in the range of 3.5-5.0 as high use of that specific strategy, 2.5-3.4 as medium use and 1.0-2.4 as low use" (Rao, 2006, p. 498). All means for the six strategy categories (table 3.2) fell within the range of 3.25-3.34 for natives and non-natives, which indicated that the subjects used strategy categories at medium frequency. One reason can be ascribed to the issue that the subjects in the study were not exposed to these strategies in classroom teaching and as LLS needs to learn these strategies through continuous practice and reinforcement (Rao, 2006), we cannot expect that these students use the strategies they have not been taught. Thus, it can be concluded that infrequent use of some of the strategies may be due to the infrequent occurring of those strategies in the learning experiences of the learners.

Besides, the findings showed that category F, social strategies, used most frequently by native speakers whereas category D, metacognitive strategies, was the most frequent used strategy by non-native speakers. Another special characteristic in the students' use of strategy categories was that category A, memory strategies, and category E, affective strategies, were the least frequently of all for natives and non-natives, respectively. This result was in opposition to the findings obtained by Rao (2006), where the affective strategies category was reportedly used the most frequently.

Moreover, according to Rao (2006) classification of the least and the most popular strategies was done by three levels suggested by Oxford (1995) in the case of the participants who answered 4 or 5 ('generally true of me' or 'always or almost always true of me'):

- (1) If 50% or more of all participants answered 4 or 5 for a strategy, it was categorized as frequently used at all proficiency levels.
- (2) If 20-49% of all participants answered 4 or 5, it can be concluded that the strategy was categorized as moderately used at all proficiency levels.
- (3) If less than 20% of all participants answered 4 or 5, it can be indicated that the strategy is categorized as infrequently used.

It was found that the least prevalent strategy was item 21 (I use idioms or other routines in the new language) among natives and item 71 (I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings and concerning the language learning process) for non-native readers.

## V. DISCUSSION

In this study, the writers wanted to explore whether there was any significant difference in the use of reading strategies between native and non-native readers of English. When we looked at the research results there were several conclusions that we can draw upon: First of all, non-natives used "memory and cognitive strategies" more than natives.

Secondly, as mentioned in the results section the strategy group that used by more students among the natives was "social strategies". One reason for not using cooperation strategies among Iranian students can be attributed to the lack of cooperation in Iranian culture. Iranian educational system relies more on competition rather than cooperation, hence students prefer individual activities than cooperation strategies.

Thirdly, using more strategies by non-native readers can be attributed to the factor of transfer and knowledge of their native language, i.e. "L2 learners use their L1 as a resource to understand an L2 reading text" (Belet & Gursoy, 2008). Proficient non-natives can use strategies of two languages, their first and second languages, and transfer them from L1 to L2. As a result of transfer, non-natives can use strategies more frequently than natives.

The findings of this study have far-reaching implications for teachers and students of English as a foreign language (EFL). The findings suggest that EFL reading teachers should be made aware of the key role of strategies in EFL

reading instruction and consider ways to incorporate them into their syllabi in order to enhance the efficiency of their teaching. In the case of students, we need to help learners become efficient readers and improve their reading ability. They need to be independent and rely more on certain strategies rather than teacher.

The purpose of this study was to determine the strategy difference between native and non-native readers of English. To this end, obtained information was studied and significant findings were resulted. Although significant, some limitations may intervene. One limitation can be attributed to the limited number of students. Further research in this area should consider this limitation and include more subjects. Another avenue of research can include comparison of reading strategy among students with different cultural background and in different contexts. Further studies can also include students with different proficiency levels. Low proficiency students may act different from high proficient readers.

## APPENDIX A

TABLE 3. 1.  
RESULTS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

Items	Native Mean	Non-native Mean	Sig
1	2.60	3.25	.17
2	3.73	3.60	.69
3	3	3.26	.20
4	3.40	3.06	.35
5	2.86	2.66	.46
6	2.20	3.46	.80
7	3.20	3.4	1
8	2.60	3.26	.1
9	2.50	2.8	.66
10	3.40	3.26	.50
11	3.06	2.26	.78
12	2.33	2.26	.20
13	3.26	3.53	1
14	2.7	3.2	.58
15	3.26	3.73	.33
16	3	4	.23
17	3.4	3.1	.50
18	3.53	3.53	1
19	3.26	3.40	.72
20	3.20	3.60	.35
21	2	2.80	.65
22	3.2	3.46	.30
23	2.86	3.20	.68
24	3.86	3.26	.66
25	3.13	3.20	.68
26	4	3.20	.91
27	3.6	3.60	1
28	3.46	3	.88
29	3.4	3.53	.80
30	3.33	3.60	.51
31	3	4.20	.012*
32	2.93	3.73	.27
33	2.36	3.26	.68
34	3.53	3.80	.32
35	3.66	2.73	.042*
36	2.53	3.66	.004*
37	3.53	3.73	.56
38	2.80	3.53	.047*
39	3.40	4	.007*
40	2.93	3.13	.42
41	3.73	3.60	.54
42	2.13	3.33	.02*
43	3.33	3.73	.05*
44	3.26	3.33	.85
45	3.46	3.8	.26
46	3.46	4.06	.05*
47	2.80	3.06	.54
48	4.20	3.53	.08*
49	3.26	3.93	.03*
50	4.1	3.80	.37
51	3.53	3.73	.62
52	3.8	3.46	.35

53	3.20	3.26	.81
54	4.20	3.73	.20
55	4	6.66	.31
56	3.86	3.73	.68
57	3.23	3.46	.36
58	2.60	3.20	.20
59	3.93	3.80	.62
60	3.40	3.62	.44
61	3.60	3.20	.43
62	2.733	3.80	.006*
63	3.13	4.26	.004*
64	3.80	4.04	.48
65	4.26	3	.005*
66	3.53	3.93	.33
67	4.06	3.93	.78
68	1.66	2.73	.021*
69	2.86	2.86	1
70	2.33	2.33	.72
71	3.26	2.26	1
72	4.80	3.66	.001*
73	3.3	3.06	.84
74	3.64	3.33	.40
75	3.60	2.66	.06*
76	3.46	2.33	.02
77	3.73	3.20	.16
78	3.46	3.53	.85
79	3.36	4	.26
80	3.26	3.26	1

\*= statistically significant (p<.05)

#### APPENDIX B

##### Strategy inventory for language learning

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Generally not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Generally true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

##### Part A

When learning a new word -----

1. I create association between new material and what I already know.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I place the new word in a group with other words that are similar in some way.
4. I associate the sound of new word with the sound of a familiar word
5. I use rhyming to remember it.
6. I remember the word by making a clear mental image of it by drawing a picture.
7. I visualize the spelling of the new word in my mind.
8. I use a combination of sounds and images to remember the new word.
9. I list all the other words I know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show the relationship.
10. I remember where the new word is located on the page or where I first saw or heard it.
11. I use flashcards with the new word on one side and the definition or other information on the other.
12. I physically act out the new word when learning new material.
13. I review often
14. I schedule my reviewing so that the review sessions are initially close together in time and gradually become more widely spread apart.
15. I go back to refresh my memory of things I learned much earlier.

##### Part B

16. I say or write new expressions repeatedly to practice them.
17. I imitate the way native speakers talk.
18. I read a story or dialogue several times until I can understand it.
19. I revise what I write in the new language to improve my writing.
20. I practice the sounds or alphabets of the new language.
21. I use idioms or other routines in the new language.
22. I use familiar words in different combinations to make new language.
23. I initiate conversations in the new language.
24. I watch TV shows or movies or listen to the radio in the new language.

25. I try to think in the new language.
26. I attend or participate in out of class events where the new language is spoken.
27. I read for pleasure in new language.
28. I write personal notes, messages, letters, or reports in the new language.
29. I skim the reading passages first to get the main idea, then I go back and read it more carefully.
30. I seek specific details in what I hear or read.
31. I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.
32. I take notes in class in the new language.
33. I make summaries of new language material.
34. I apply general rules to new situations when using the language.
35. I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word in to parts which I understand.
36. I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.
37. I try to understand what I have heard or read without translating it word for word into my own language.
38. I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.
39. I look for patterns in the new language.
40. I develop my own understanding of how the language works, even if someone I have to revise my understanding based on new information.

### **Part C**

41. When I do not understand all words I read or hear, I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find.
42. I read without looking up every new word.
43. In a conversation I anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.
44. If I am speaking and cannot think of the right expression, I use gestures or switch back to my language momentarily.
45. I ask the other person to tell me the right word if I can't think of it in a conversation.
46. When I can't think of the correct expression to say or write, I find a different way to express the idea.
47. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.
48. I direct the conversations to a topic for which I know the words.

### **Part D**

49. I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know.
  50. When someone is speaking the new language, I try to concentrate on what the person is saying and put unrelated topics out of my mind.
  51. I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example, I focus on the way native speakers pronounce certain sounds.
  52. I try to find all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking to others about how to learn.
  53. I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.
  54. I arrange my physical environment to promote learning; for instance, I find a quite comfortable place to review.
  55. I organize my language notebook to record important language information.
  56. I plan my goals for language learning; for instance, how proficient I want to become or how I might want to use the language in the long run.
  57. I plan what I want to accomplish in language learning each day or each week.
  58. I prepare for an upcoming language task (such as giving talk in the new language) by considering the nature of the task, what I have to know, and my current language skills.
  59. I clearly identify the purpose of the language activity; for instance, in a listening task I might need to listen for a general idea or for specific facts.
  60. I take responsibility for finding opportunities to practice the new language.
  61. I actively look for people with whom I can speak the new language.
  62. I try to notice my language errors and find out the reasons for them.
  63. I learn from my mistake in using the new language.
  64. I evaluate the general progress I have made in learning the language.
- ### **Part E**
65. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about using the new language.
  66. I make encouraging statements to myself so that I will continue to try hard and do my best in language learning.
  67. I actively encourage myself to make wise risks in language learning such as guessing meaning or trying to speak even though I might make some mistakes.
  68. I give myself a tangible reward when I have done something well in my language learning.
  69. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that might affect my language learning.
  70. I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning.



71. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings and concerning the language learning process.

#### Part F

72. If I do not understand, I ask the speaker to slow down, repeat or clarify what was said.

73. I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly.

74. I ask other people to correct my pronunciation.

75. I work with other language learners to practice or share information.

76. I have a regular language learning partner.

77. When I am talking with a native speaker, I try to let him or her know when I need help.

78. In conversations with others in the new language, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show I am interested.

79. I try to learn about the culture of the place where the new language is spoken.

80. I pay close attention to the thoughts and feelings of other people with whom I interact in the new language.

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# A Study of Chinese Second-year English Majors' Code Switching Phenomenon in Comprehensive English Course from the Perspective of Interlanguage

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**Abstract**—The paper analyzes functions and influencing factors of second-year English majors' code switching in Comprehensive English Course on the basis of the interlanguage theory and other SLA (second language acquisition) models, i.e. Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis and Affective Filter Hypothesis, Long's Interaction Hypothesis and Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis.

**Index Terms**—interlanguage, SLA, learners' code switching in EFL classroom, functions, influencing factors

## I. INTRODUCTION

Code is a neutral form, and it refers to the linguistic sign of any type. As Hudson states, code switching is to switch lingual varieties in bilingual or multilingual contexts. And learners' code switching in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) class is the phenomenon that learners insert phonetic forms, vocabulary, phrases, sentences of MT (Mother Tongue) into English-dominated expressions or the activity that learners consciously or unconsciously inlay speech segments of MT into the grammatical system of English in the conversion between the two languages.

There are many features of previous learners' code switching in EFL class. Firstly, current classroom code switching studies are mostly conducted in primary schools, middle schools and non-English majors' EFL classes in universities. And merely a few of them concentrate on code switching phenomenon in the specified courses for English majors. Therefore, it is of necessity to analyze code switching conditions in English majors' Comprehensive English Course (CEC). Secondly, a large percentage of scholars detect classroom code switching by the lights of pragmatic theories: Vershueren's Adaptation Theory (Verchueren, 1999), Sperber & Wilson's Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson, 2001), and Richard Dawkin's Memetics Theory (Dawkin, 1976) and their derivative models: Yu Guodong's Adaptation Model (Yu, 2004), Yangping's Relevance-adaptation Model (Yang, 2001), Memetics-adaptation Model, Zhuyan's Relevance-adaptation-memetics Model (Zhu, 2013) etc.. And current pragmatic researches of classroom code switching are rarely based on interlanguage theory. Thus, it is of significance to build the theoretical basis of interlanguage theory for classroom code switching analysis. And the thesis conducts analysis on functions, and causes of English majors' code switching in CEC based on the theoretical framework of interlanguage theory and four hypothesis models (Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis and Affection Filter Hypothesis, Long's Interaction Hypothesis and Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis) of SLA (second language acquisition) theory.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The thesis detects learners' code switching in CEC based on the theoretical foundation of interlanguage theory and four hypotheses of SLA. Through classroom observation and qualitative analysis, the thesis explores functions, and causes of English majors' code switching condition. On the basis of Zhang Xiaofang's Interlanguage—SLA model (2012), the thesis makes some alteration, and the renewed theoretical model is as follows:

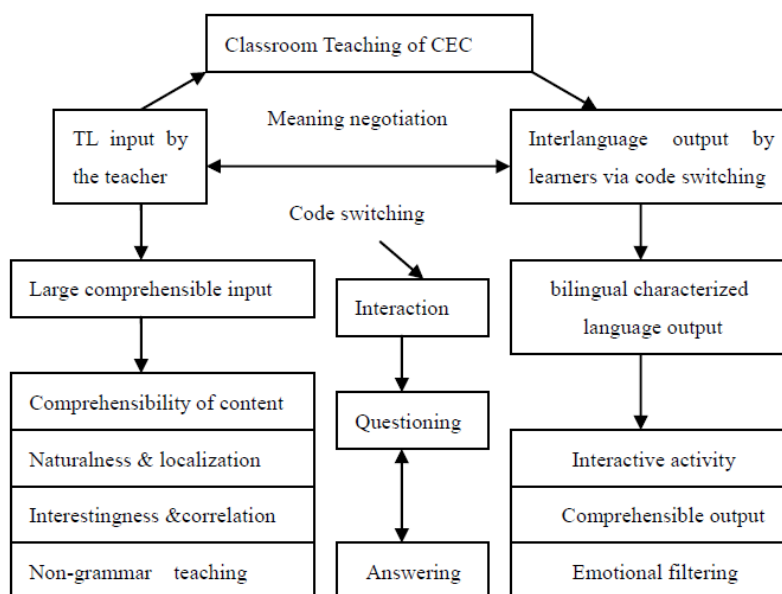


Diagram 1: Interlanguage-SLA Model

SLA originates from 1960s and 1970s. And four hypotheses are included: Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, Affective Filter Hypothesis and Interaction Hypothesis.

In 1980s, American linguist Krashen puts forth the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, which stresses that teachers' comprehensible TL (Target Language) input is irreplaceable in learners' SLA. For learners, current language level is "i", and the advisable TL input should be of "i+1" level, which is a bit more difficult than their present language competence. When learners acquire "i+1" leveled TL input, they could automatically form the new interlanguage linguistic structure based on the thorough understanding of TL input's meanings. Thus, teachers' TL input should be of a bit more difficulty than learners' present learning competence. Teachers are supposed to make their classroom English expressions natural and idiomatic. Their teaching doesn't have to follow the traditional grammar-oriented teaching procedure, and their teaching content must be aimed at interestingness and correlation.

Comprehensible output is of equal importance. Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, listed by Swain in 1985, states that learners have to acquire large quantities of comprehensible TL input and to output bilingual characterized interlanguage codes through code switching. The output process is actually an interactive activity, namely, learners offer their TL hypothesis, collect feedbacks for testing the accuracy and comprehensibility of their own interlanguage grammatical system, and then improve their current interlanguage competence.

Learners' output process is also the process of emotional filtering. As Krashen points in Affective Filter Hypothesis, from time to time, learners have to filter teachers' input emotionally. If the filter is higher than the average level, it will be more difficult to internalize TL input; if the filter is lower, it will be easier for learners' input internalization.

Moreover, meaning negotiation plays a vital role in Long's Interaction Hypothesis. Meaning negotiation is the adaptation of strategies like repeating, rearranging, clarifying, checking, verifying for the sake of avoiding and mending communication interruption. And meaning negotiation makes the bidirectional communication in SLA possible. That is, learners fail to absorb the relatively complicated TL input by teachers, they would tell their teachers randomly to accelerate teachers' input modification and learners' knowledge assimilation. Also, the lingual forms of two sides are major concerns for learners, who try their best to narrow the gap between their own produced interlanguage system and TL system.

### III. INFLUENCE OF IL ON LEARNERS' CODE SWITCHING

The intermediate state in children's language learning and learners' SLA is a kind of reasonable lingual system, which is called interlanguage by modern applied linguistics. The concept of interlanguage is firstly proposed by American linguist Larry Selinker in the thesis of Language transfer in 1969. And in the Interlanguage thesis of 1972, he further expounds the definition of interlanguage and reinforces the essential role of interlanguage in SLA. Interlanguage is not only a kind of transitional language which perfectly combines MT and TL in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, sentence structure, context coherence, cultural communication and so on, but also refers to the whole dynamically changed interlanguage system, namely, interlanguage continuum. It is a language system with dynamism and non-continuity, and it is definitely adaptation to new hypothesis of TL by gradually altering the transitional lingual system. Through lingual subsystem of MT, learners build linguistic forms of TL within their own interlanguage system; at the same stage, learners' interlanguage proficiency basically agrees with the main difference in their learning experience; learners change linguistic system of interlanguage gradually to apt to new hypothesis of TL.

It is applicable to employ interlanguage in classroom code switching researches. Firstly, interlanguage derives from SLA theory, and could be used to guide SLA. The code switching phenomenon in EFL class is that learners switch lingual codes (languages, dialects, styles, registers etc.) in the specified SLA process. Secondly, learners' output in class is definitely a type of interlanguage. Learners imbed vocabulary, sentences and paragraphs of MT into English dominated expressions for sake of adaptation to lingual reality, social conventions and psychological consideration. And their bilingually characterized output is a kind of interlanguage with both MT feature and TL character. Thirdly, excessive code switching in long periods would probably lead to interlanguage fossilization. If learners largely rely on classroom code switching, their fossilization state would possibly arrive earlier. Owing to too much code switching, learners' lexical and grammatical system shape into incorrect form, which stops the TL approaching process. Fourthly, both the classroom code switching and interlanguage are of characteristics of sustainability, permanency and expansibility. Firstly, interlanguage is the unavoidable and dynamic language continuum in SLA for learners can hardly obtain the same TL level as native speakers. Therefore, learners' interlanguage system approach TL subsystem incessantly. Code switching, one category of interlanguage, is also consistently developing and changing. With learners' TL skills improved, frequency and types of their classroom code switching would be greatly reduced. All in all, interlanguage and code switching are closely linked and deeply permeated.

#### IV. EMPIRICAL STUDY OF ENGLISH MAJORS' CODE SWITCHING IN CEC

To collect data for analysis on functions and causes of learners' code switching, an empirical study is conducted in the thesis. The thesis chooses 55 English sophomores from Foreign Language Department of Guangdong University of Petrochemical Technology. Of the 55 students, 26 are from Traveling English class and 29 from Normal English class. All the students are English sophomores who are going to participate in TEM4 (Test for English Majors) in April, 2015. Thus their English level has been sharply raised owing to preparations for the coming test. The researcher is about to conduct classroom observation of the two classes by means of tape recording and table filling. The researcher records CEC of the two classes by audio-recording pen. To ensure the authenticity of recorded data, none of CEC has been pre-informed. Meanwhile, the researcher would observe frequency and categories of code switching through notice taking, which is very helpful to remedy the unclear records in the latter record transcription. In all, the research intends to investigate functions and reasons of code switching in CEC through qualitative analysis.

#### V. FUNCTION ANALYSIS OF LEARNERS' CODE SWITCHING IN CEC FROM TL ANGLE

English majors are not encouraged to switch codes frequently in class, for once they arrive in fossilization state, their English learning would be dramatically influenced. However, if they conduct moderate code switching, adaptation to linguistic reality, social convention and psychological state could be attained perfectly. In the following, the thesis summaries common functions of learners' classroom code switching via data gathered from the above empirical study.

##### Translating sentences and passages

Translation is widely used when the learners are required to do exercises on sentence and paragraph translation. In the case, learners switch to native language to clarify meaning of the sentences and passages. Owing to particularity of the translation instruction, learners would consciously switch to relevant expressions which are congruent with MT linguistic rules in the psychological cognitive level. For learners' English level is not very high, their translated versions are undoubtedly of interlanguage form, which combines FL codes and IL grammatical subsystem.

Take it for example. In CEC, the teacher interprets usage of the word "inaugurate", and asks students to translate the following sentence afterwards.

**Example 1:** T: inaugurate: v. open a building or start an organization, event, etc. for the first time.

Look at the sentence here. "A research rocket was launched to inaugurate the first home-built space centre of the country," How to translate it?

S: 研究火箭的发射为建立这个国家的第一个航天中心举行了开幕典礼。

Learners only have a vague understanding of "inaugurate" meaning, which includes "to hold an opening ceremony, to have a swear-in ceremony, to set up for the first time" etc.. Therefore, learners are inclined to apply other contextual meaning and translate the sentence into a "S+V+O+Adv. (Pre.+V+O)" structural one. In the translated version, for its adverbial modifier, learners create a "pre.+v+o" framework, which is different from both English and Chinese. And learners' linguistic production "为建立这个国家的第一个航天系统" is actually a "pre.+v.+o" interlanguage structure. But if learners acquire large quantities of TL input constantly and continuously, such usage of IL lingual structures would be greatly reduced.

##### Explaining grammar rules

As shown by classroom performance, most students' English skills are of low and average level. They are lacking in TL knowledge storage. So when asked to explain certain sentence structures and some grammatical points, learners have an inclination for MT codes and IL linguistic form.

**Example 2:** T: The front garden was a gravel square; four ever-green shrubs stood at each corner, where they struggled to survive the dust and fumes from a busy main road.

To analyze the structure of the complex sentence.

S: The complex sentence is divided into two parts by the.....分号. Before the 分号 is a simple sentence. After it is a sentence with .....定语从句. The subject of 定语从句 is four ever green shrubs.

In grammar expounding, learners are asked to employ a lot of grammatical terms, like attributive clause, main clause, sub-clause, antecedent, semicolon etc.. For English sophomores from an ordinary second ranked university, their terminological accumulation is far from adequate, so their preference of interlanguage set is unavoidable. Learners would mix the complex sentence structure in MT and TL unconsciously when asked to do sentence pattern analysis. In the example, learners have confused antecedent concept in English attributive clause with the subject concept in Chinese sentence. In Chinese grammar, the subject often lies in the beginning of the sentence. And in English, the antecedent, served as a component of the attributive clause, is located in front of the guiding word. The learners here have mistaken the main clause subject “shrubs” for the antecedent of the attributive clause “where they struggled to survive the dust and fumes from a busy main road”. And finally the learner gives an interlanguage shaped answer, for she insert MT codes and mix grammatical rules of FL and TL unintentionally.

#### Expounding key words and phrases

When required to expound word meaning, learners would automatically borrow interlanguage expressions, which often lead them to cognitive barriers and the dilemma of conveying convey messages accurately.

**Example 3:** T: On March 25th, 1616, fifty-two-year-old Master William Shakespeare signed his will leaving the famous legacy of his “second best bed and furniture” to his wife and the greater part of his estate to his married daughter.

Would you paraphrase “legacy”?

S: legacy is after someone died, his money and house is left to the relatives, 遗产吧。

Learners find that they can't explain meaning of the word “legacy” clearly and fully by means of paraphrasing. Paraphrasing is to explain the same object in a different way. And from time to time, those complicated and specious English-English explanations can't trigger learners' knowledge Lenovo mechanism. Thus, to switch to MT codes for supplementary explanation would make up for English paraphrasing deficiency.

#### Citing examples

In illustration of TL cultural information, learners would embed ML shaped codes in later English dominated expressions, either in small amounts or in large blocks.

**Example 4:** T: The chunnel is a work in progress. The concrete wall awaits final installation of the power, water, and communication lines that will turn it into a transport system. White dust fills the air. The train screeches painfully.” Makes you appreciate British rail”, someone jokes.

Would you please say something about British rail?

S: British Rail stands for British railway. In the English-French chunnel, the train made loud noise because it hit rocks from time to time. It seems that the train is processing a painful dilemma process. Just as it shows by the double-arrow symbol of English railway station, whether to come forth or go back, and whether to be privately owned or nationally owned.就是英国的铁路总是变来变去, (students laugh) 一会私有, 一会属于国家所有, 人民也因此抱怨大, 感觉变来变去很痛苦, 就像英国火车站的双箭头标志那样, 犹豫不决、进退两难。

Here the learner is a top student who wins the 1st grade scholarship twice. She has a comparative good command of English, so she succeeds to give a systematic illustration of British railway in the first half of her response. But when she goes deeper into the TL culture explanation and illustration, she gets the cognitive pressure for being unable to cover so many attached cultural points. The learner switches to ML form subconsciously in the second half of her response. From the first half to the second half of her answer, there is a considerably large span in code choosing, which induces audiences' resonance in understanding and causes laughter in class. So the learner's answer is a type of interlanguage which is very close to TL linguistic form, such as in genre, syntactic structure, vocabulary application etc.. And her answer belongs to advanced interlanguage system for barely being affected by FL negative transfer.

#### Making up for influent TL expression

In new chapter introducing, oral training concerning the theme of every unit would be conducted. Learners have to do role play and interaction activity. They have to set on a given topic for less than five minutes.

**Example 5:** T: the best play/ film I have ever seen

Pair with your partner, tell him or her about the best play/ film you have ever seen. Your partner may ask you what is about and why you like it so much. You can concentrate on the following items:

Main idea of the play/ film
Plot
acting
Music
Costume

S: My favorite film is the slumdog millionaire, which is about how a young man win the 200 million rupees prize in the Indian TV program who wants to be a millionaire. Jamal was very luck, because he has answered the first 19 questions correctly, however, on answering the last question he was arrested by the police for they .....怀疑 he was cheating in the program.....I like what women wear in the film, it is the traditional 沙丽。

Undoubtedly, many multi-dimensional contents like culture, economy, society etc.. are involved in long time presentation. Learners would step into TL cognitive blind areas frequently while conducting long talk in TL. They are apt to switch TL code in the interlanguage set, avoiding influent TL expression.

#### VI. CAUSE ANALYSIS OF LEARNERS' CODE SWITCHING FROM TL ANGLE

As shown by qualitative study, there are six influencing factors of learners' code switching in CEC. The thesis would discuss the affective elements from the interlanguage-SLA model. Even though many elements are involved, the absolute premise of code switching is the adaptation to lingual reality & psychological requirement, and filling the cultural gap.

Firstly, learners' code switching is affected by their TL level, which largely depends on their interlanguage frequency in SLA. If learners frequently employ interlanguage system, their TL level can't be very high. Interlanguage is the lingual continuum in SLA, and owns a set of unique linguistic system in phonological, lexical, grammatical and contextual aspects. And especially in the elementary and intermediate stages of SLA, learners prefer to produce and comprehend TL with the help of interlanguage lingual rules. But excessive code switching in SLA would possibly lead to earlier arrival of fossilization state, which hinders TL acquisition and accelerates TL corrosion.

Secondly, learners' code switching is influenced by social emotional elements, in which learning motivation and TL cultural identity are included. According to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis, from time to time, learners have to filter teachers' input emotionally. If the filter is higher than the average level, it will be more difficult to internalize TL input; if the filter is lower, it will be easier for learners' input internalization. Thus, learners with stronger learning motivation of TL and stronger TL cultural identity will switch codes less frequently as they curb the impulse of using interlanguage. Interlanguage, the linguistic system with dynamism, has a difficult development from simpleness to complexity and from FL to TL because of learners' improvement on TL level and TL cultural input. In the middle period of SLA, learners are suggested to decrease the usage of code switching and interlanguage since their TL competence and TL cultural storage have been raised greatly. Besides, culture and language are deeply interpenetrated and closely linked. Language learning and cultural learning are unseparated. (Ni, 2007) If there is always a psychological distance between learners and TL culture, learners would switch to FL code forms intentionally or unintentionally. So they produce a new type of TL cultural variety to avoid criticism from fellow people or to adapt to the cognitive psychology of the fellows. If learners fail to shorten the psychological distance between TL culture and themselves, they couldn't necessarily empathize with TL culture acquisition. In all, learners are supposed to trigger their latent psychological structure (Selinker, 1972) to strengthen their learning motivation and to enhance cultural identity of TL. And the interlanguage fossilization state can be put off by resisting long lasting and excessive code switching.

Thirdly, learners' code switching relates to their contact way with TL. The contact ways between learners and TL fall to be two kinds: contact in natural state and contact with human intervention. The thesis primarily concentrates on SLA in natural state. As Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis states, SLA is actually an "i+1" input process. Firstly, for learners to cross from "i" stage to "i+1" stage, the comprehensible input by teachers is a necessary condition but not sufficient. If the input is too easy or too difficult, it won't work very well. Secondly, teachers' TL input is supposed to be natural and original English expressions, and their teaching should be interesting and topic related. Lastly, teachers should be able to offer as much TL input as possible. Amounts and categories of embedded MT codes can be sharply reduced by quantitative TL input. And the approaching process from interlanaguge to TL would also be quickened by inputting large amounts of TL. This is because the interlanguage-TL approaching process is repeated and circular, and the errors which have been corrected would appear regularly and repeatedly.

For example, learners are likely to switch codes in forgotten lingual points and to employ interlanguage set when being away from reinforcement learning for a certain while. As a result, to conduct English immersed class, to choose naturally expressed teaching materials and to increase interestingness of EFL class are of significance for eliminating unnecessary code switching and reducing occurrence of interlanguage.

Fourthly, learners' code switching is under the influence of their learning strategy. Long's Interaction Hypothesis states, that learners would adjust TL output, conversational structure, information content when they have difficulty in TL input comprehension. Long points, it is very important for speaker to negotiate meaning to get the essence of TL input. Through the interaction modification, learners understand even the complicated input. Some students turn to familiar FL codes and interlanguage structures once they encounter difficulties in SLA. Learners are ensured that such switches won't have bad impacts on mutual communication, while improper code switching would reduce the validity of SLA. Their meaning-dominated and simply formed switches are highly likely to cause interlanguage fossilization. Therefore, learners are advised to confront errors in SLA and to no longer depend on substitution of FL codes.

Fifthly, learners' code switching is related with TL types. Rectz Kurashige thinks if MT and TL bear more similarities in language dialects and pragmatics, learners' foreign language competence would be more easily maintained, otherwise, learners would encounter TL disturbance and corrosion. That is, the more similar that MT and TL are, the more simpler code switching is, and the shorter interlanguage period is; otherwise, the more frequent code switching is, the more negative transfer affect on TL and the longer interlanguage continuum is. Take Chinese and English for example. Chinese, belonging to the sino-tibetan language system, is a ideographic language set. While English, one branch of the Germanic language system, conveys meaning by letters. So Chinese and English belong to

totally different language dialects, and that explains why Chinese students switch codes more frequently than German students in learning English.

Sixthly, from the aspect of learners' reading and writing capability. Hansen thinks, learners' TL reading and writing competence is a decisive factor in code switching condition. Reading is the input skill and writing is the output capability, and combination of reading and writing covers almost every key function in SLA. If learners are excellent in reading and writing, they tend to switch to FL code forms at low frequency; if their reading and writing skills are poor, they tend to employ FL lingual forms and interlanguage structure with high frequency. So it is advisable for learners to do more training in English reading and writing for lowering code switching times and improving interlanguage system.

## VII. CONCLUSION

The moderate application of code switching would benefit EFL learning and reduce unnecessary code switching for learners. However, it would possibly lead to excessive code switching conversely. Therefore, strategies like to strengthen learners' learning motivations, to intensify their TL culture identity, to increase teachers' comprehensible TL input, to abolish error avoiding learning mode, to improve TL level etc.. should be put into practice. Learners are supposed to improve their EFL learning through interlanguage standard and code switching frequency.

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# Allegorized Subaltern: Subjectivity and Death in the Works of Bahman Ghobadi

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**Abstract**—The aim of the present study is to explore the reflection of the subaltern in the works of Kurdish filmmaker, Bahman Ghobadi. In order to do so, three periods in the development of the works of Ghobadi is analyzed. These periods include the time prior to the invasion of Iraq by United States and its allies when *A Time for Drunken Horses* (2000) and *The Songs of my Homeland* (2002) appear. The second phase is at the time of the invasion of Iraq including *Turtles can Fly* (2004), and the third period is after the invasion with *Rhino Season* (2012). These works deal with the neglected minority within Kurdish ethnicity and look through the ways in which there might be a possibility for this group to attain a sense of identity. Facing internal and external oppression, minority-within-minority section of the Kurdish society finds no way for resistance other than death where the power structures that are in a tacit concurrence in its subjugation are challenged and as a result, a space is created where the subaltern can speak.

**Index Terms**—subaltern, Bahman Ghobadi, minority, identity, death, resistance

## I. INTRODUCTION

The metaphor of the flight of the turtles is central to the works of Bahman Ghobadi. The significance of this image is revealing in the story about a turtle who wishes to fly; unable to do so, he asks two swans to take him to the sky. They consent on the condition that he would not open his mouth as he bites on a stick on which they take him up. While flying in the sky the turtle wishes to voice his enjoyment by saying some words that would result in his fall and death. These turtles are the long oppressed subalterns for whom the presence of colonization, due to long duration and forceful implementation of oppression, has led to a fractured existence. In such a context, the flight of turtles creates a paradox-negation of colonialism and oppression is equivalent to the destruction of the self. In the context of the life of the Kurdish ethnics, this image depicts the status of the subjects who confront the fall of the oppressor regime (and in this instance the dictatorship of Saddam Hosen) by the swans (the U.S and its allies). Therefore, such a flight to freedom is a combination of life and death with the colonized subject who wishes to gain Subjectivity and inevitably must embrace both. Ghobadi's attempt is to confront the cultural paradox of internalized oppression and the possibility of resistance. The question that remains in this regard is "Can [Kurdish] Subaltern Speak?" Is it possible for her/him to voice the resistance against the oppression that has affected her/his existence to an extent beyond the fall of the dictators? Or her/his newly gained freedom is just a change of the style of oppression in a situation that the old dictatorial regime has been transformed into a more subtle form against which the oppressed can't embrace any hope of freedom.

The present study attempts to answer the abovementioned question in the context of the works of Ghobadi. These works vacillate between the Subject's attempt to gain her/his rights, and simultaneously look through the way that she/he copes with the internalized sense of alienation in the period of moving away from official colonialism. As Shohat (1997) maintains in the context of the postcolonial cinema, "[these works] call attention to the fault lines of gender, class, ethnicity, region, partition, migration, and exile. Many of the films explore the complex identities generated by exile – from one's own geography, from one's own history, from one's own body—within innovative narrative strategies" (p. 14). Thus, the paradox that has torn the psyche of the Subjects apart and has become latent because of the greater fear of immanent death at the time of colonialism's military presence, is foregrounded when it no longer exists. There is no possibility for the subjects to resist such an intricacy; the links between the past, present and future is demolished and there is no possibility of voicing one's subjectivity. Resistance, in such a situation, must negate all the preconceptions that the cultural system and the external forces rely upon. The willed death of the subject creates such a link. The concept of death, prevalent in Ghobadi's work, puts up resistance that protects and recreates subjectivity while subaltern faces old and new forms of oppression. As a result, regarding the question of the possibility of the voicing Subaltern's identity, the answer takes a positive shape. Death of the subjects in these works is an optimistic restatement of *Sati* that in addition to the rejection of the internal and external oppressors goes a step further in creating a "minority space" (Bhabha, 1994, p. ix) and a balance where the voice of the subaltern can be heard.

## II. METHODOLOGY



The main critical approach used to study the works of Bahman Ghobadi is postcolonialism. The critical analysis is based on the concepts that explore the situation of the subjects in the periods of transition from colonialism to postcolonialism. Accordingly, the present study analyzes internal colonial structures, external representation of the subjects and the native dominating structures, which are in the same context in oppression of the Kurdish subaltern. Among the theorists in the context of postcolonial studies, the present paper benefits from Hamid Nafici's the concept of self-othering which plays a key role in exploring the inter-relationship of the mentioned oppressive structures. In addition, this study benefits from the theoretical framework that Bhabha presents in his exploration of the state of the subalterns who face layered levels of oppression. Regarding the death of the protagonist in the works of Ghobadi, the present study applies the concepts that Spivak presents in her analysis of the self-willed suicide of the subaltern that resists the layered oppressive systems. Bill Ashcroft's analysis of the postcolonial culture has also been applied to the cultural space in which the works of Ghobadi appear.

Based on the mentioned argument, the first section of the present study identifies the social group that Ghobadi targets in his representation of the subaltern. The second part analyses the status of the subaltern in his works and maintains that the borderlines shift from physical to psychological along with the shift of the status of the Subjects from colonial to postcolonial (prior to the invasion of Iraq to post-invasion period). The third section argues that death is the ultimate resistance that leads to creation of a space for the subjectivity of the subaltern and deconstructs the overall cultural and psychological status of the subjects and results in creation of a new space in which there would be a possibility of Subjectivity.

### III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

#### A. *Minority-within-minority: Subalterns among Kurdish Subalterns*

The bulk of Ghobadi's works "focuses attention on the 'dispossessed' – the peculiar form of agency, subjectivity and modes of sociality (such as customary laws and practices) ignored or 'subjugated' by colonial and imperialist institutions, as well as by the universalizing and legitimating modes of historiography and political theory that accompanies them" (Iverson, 1997, p.3). Therefore, the question would be, are all the segments of the Kurdish society hailed as oppressed subjects? In opposition to such a vision, these works are an acute disillusionment "with the (national-bourgeois) state of the...Third World" (Ahmad, 1992, p. 68). Situated on the physical and psychological borderlines, these works do not represent a coherent body called the Kurdish subaltern. As a result, *A Time for Drunken Horses* (2000), *The Songs of my Homeland* (2002), *Turtles can Fly too* (2004), *Half Moon* (2006) and *Rhino Season* (2012) as "post-colonial cultural expressions are based on the experiences of people and communities, rather on the master narrative of the nation state. They foreground questions of cultural and social identity rather than direct [sic] struggles for political power. They are pragmatic, immediate, and non-ideological seeking to change life but putting force no single blueprint for future" (Lipsitz, 1994, p. 31)

The harsh reality of smuggling goods in return for a little money for poor Kurdish residents in *A Time for Drunken Horses* is a great opportunity for the others who pile up wealth and benefits. Unlike the powerful sector of the society, the poor face death every day; and even if they succeed in smuggling goods, they do not get but a meager share of the interest. In *Turtles can Fly too*, although the social structure is severely damaged by the reality of enforced displacement and genocide, groups like arm dealers are the beneficiaries. Even the people, in whose village the refugee children have found a temporary shelter, use them to collect mines from their fields that results in killing and maiming of many of the children. It "[reminds] us of the generations of migration and genocide whose burden clings to the Kurds like the keratinous armor of the turtle" (Sadr, 2006, P. 287). Moreover, in the context of the last phase the serene atmosphere of the *Rhino Season* attests to the recalcitrance of the social structure for change because of the possibility of the loss of the gains that is accumulated during the period of social stability.

As a result, the main target of representation in the works of Ghobadi is the minority within the Kurdish society: a minority-within-minority. They are invisible, silent by-products of colonialism that, at its best, non-sympathetic Subjects have represented them or if being represented by native subjects, the most powerful sectors have done so and simply neglected them. A revealing example in the context of the works of Ghobadi is Agrin the female protagonist of *Turtles can Fly too*. The fact that she is among the first that feel the presence of the army of Saddam Hosein, which results in killing of her parents, brothers and sisters, makes her the embodiment of the subordination by the direct colonial force. On the other hand, the fact that she has been raped and begotten an illegitimate child, makes her the target of severe stigmatization of the social structure, resulting in her alienation and double oppression. From his first work to the last, the main preoccupation of Ghobadi as a filmmaker concerns this group. These characters are left in the borderlines of identity both physically and psychologically; they are colonized and at the same time not included among members of the colonized society. In the context of the works of Ghobadi, "[once] the liminality of the nation-space is established...The national subject splits in the ethnographic perspective of culture's contemporaneity and provides both a theoretical position and a narrative authority for marginal voices or minority discourse" (Bhabha, 1990, p. 302).

#### B. *Minority-within-minority and Borderlines*

In Ghobadi's works before the fall of Saddam Hosein, the main challenge that the subjects face is the vicissitudes of being on the geographic borderlines. These subjects live along the border between Iraq and Iran. In *A Time for Drunken*

*Horses*, the “story [depicts] the courage of orphaned Kurdish children, forced to support themselves under the harshest of conditions” (Sadr, 2006, p. 245). This is the main subject in *The Songs of my Homeland* in which a Kurdish musician searches for his wife at the time when Iraqi Kurds are attacked by Saddam Hussein’s army. “In these films the narrative is driven by its characters’ attempts to cross the border between Iran and Iraq, but the landscape gradually dissolves into disconnected spaces, ‘border’ ceases to be an identifiable, recognizable place and instead signifies a nightmarish unstable zone of inexplicable military atrocity” (Chaudhuri & Finn, 2003, Pp.10-11). As a result, the borderline which is the main challenge regarding the consciousness of the subjects is shaped as the physical border between Iraq and Iran. This is the main reason behind the fact that in this period the characters are mainly types rather than actual Subjects. In such a context the schoolchildren, the toiling parent, the girl who is married off without her consent and the old singer who is searching for a lost wife in a wasteland tormented and torn up by the threat of war can be anyone. In other words, the types merge into the body of nation that is stagnated and oppressed for its sustenance.

The second period is the time when the international forces led by the U.S. are at the brink of the invasion of Iraq. While in the first period the contradictions surrounding the characters are left behind the representation of a group afflicted by threat of war and concerned with maintaining basic requirements, in this period the individuals are due to speak and different voices emerge. Now the fact of being under the colonization of Iraq’s regime shows its psychological effect on the individual level, the characters face the traumatic effect of a long period of oppression. While living on the geographical borderline remains intact, the traumatic experience of being war victims is added to their psychological reality. They live in a world that every aspect of it is in a limbo and everything is disconnected. None of the major characters is bodily and mentally complete. Agrin, the underage mother, who has been raped and has begotten an illegitimate child, has lost her honor. Hangaw, his brother, has lost his arms because of the explosion of a mine; and Rega, the illegitimate child, has lost her eyes while being born. The three characters can make one soul if they unite; but there is no possibility of it because of the trauma of oppression, and the cultural stigmatization that regards Rega as illegitimate.

The Physical/psychological limbo that dominates this work extends into the symbolic structure of signification and consequently decenters everything related to the subjects. The pond from which in the past people would take water and has been regarded as a source of life changes to a symbol of death and disaster. The gold fishes, which are believed to have the power to cure the blindness of Hangaw, become the symbols of death and disappearance of hope. In the scene that Agrin lets Rega to be suffocated in the pond, he transforms into a dead fish. None of the elements in the symbolic context of the *Turtles can fly*, fishes, turtles, and the disjointed working bodies, have the capacity to rejoin to make a coherent body. Here, the physical and psychological limbo coincides.

Rega, the illegitimate child of Agrin, is the most obvious embodiment of this coincidence. He is the symbol of love and hate; he is beloved for his mother and is hated by her because he is the symbol of death and oppression. In words of Ashcroft (2001) he is:

The colonial subject [which] is both inherently evil and potentially good, thus submerging the moral conflict of colonial occupation and locating in the child of empire a naturalization of the ‘parent’s’ own contradictory impulses for exploitation and nurture. The child, at once both other and same, holds in balance the contradictory tendencies of? with enlightenment, debasement with idealization, negation with affirmation, exploitation with education, filiation with affiliation imperial rhetoric: authority is held in balance with nurture; domination Living on such a paradoxical boarder. (pp. 36-7)

He comes into the world blind. His blindness signifies the loss of orientation and emptiness of signification. He is the symbol of the point where the oppression of colonialism reaches into the domain of the relation between the subject and the surrounding world; thus, he is the embodiment of oppression. His search for father, as a point of reference and signification is shown in his incessant shouting inside the empty bombshells in vain; the temporality of oppression has become a permanency in his existence. He is the son of oppression and death, a symbol of innocence begotten by sin. This leads to the fact that Rega, the “illegitimate” child of rape and tyranny, can be situated at the center of the chaotic world of psychophysical boundaries in *Turtles can Fly*. Rega is not only being created by a paradox, he also embodies the paradox.

The third period of the works of Ghobadi contains the psychological limbo created from the pressures of a destroyed past whose effects penetrate into the present state of the characters. This period, which includes *The Rhino Season*, creates a symbolic world where the elements oscillate between present and past. The protagonist of *Rhino Season*- a poet imprisoned for three decades of his life, when released from incarceration finds society much changed. After finding his family, he cannot unite with them because the harsh reality of the past is still alive in his mind. Like the previous period, the symbolic elements presented in this work are in a state of limbo. Rhino as the subject of the book written by the protagonist, simultaneously symbolizes strength and weakness: strength to injure years of imprisonment and weakness to embrace reality. Turtles, another powerful symbol in this film, fall in the same domain. They depict endurance, but at the same time, paralysis and inability to move. The children of his wife are the result of a sense love and hate which both are unfulfilled. The incidents are set in a city in Turkey, a foreign land and a foreign language, a land where the characters have taken refuge for many years. Therefore, at the same time, it is a homeland and a foreign land. The sea gives a sense of freedom with its vastness; on the other hand, it signifies confinement by being situated between the foreign land and the homeland. In the extreme case of the *Rhino Season*, everything becomes mute and

language is paralyzed. The characters, who in the aforementioned works, would look for a chance to voice themselves now rarely even speak out a word. The physical limbo, in which the characters are situated in the previous works, cedes into a complete pure psychological paradox of existence. The hybridity of existence that is luxuriously bestowed upon subject who contain a duality of something of the both as Bhabha mentions, now is changed into the point of negative hybridity, which in contrast contains elements of nothing of the both. The voice of the inmates of the boarders which began in *Time for the Horses to be Drunk* with a schoolgirl talking in broken sentences now cedes to a resentful silence where the signifiers look helplessly for a signified and find nothing, nothing to hold on to, nothing to recreate.

### C. Borderlines, Resistance and Death

The inaction of the colonized originates from alliance of three structures; these three power systems are the political pre-invasion, the post invasion, and the native social systems that are active in the subtext of colonial and post-colonial structures. In their façade, these groups seem to be in opposition to each other. The Ba'ath party's ideology is based on insolation, negation and obliteration. As a result, Kurds essentially function as Others who would find no way to the venue of the Same. They are liable to be captured and their lands to be occupied. On the other hand, for the western occupiers, in the context of the works of Ghobadi, Kurds are subjects whose freedom is an accidental historical by-product of a war with an aggressive regime. They are set in a historical conjecture where a war not fought for their sake, makes an incidental freedom. The third group, which is in tacit consent with the other two structures, is the Kurdish stratum of power for which the fact of being subaltern is the least perceptible because of the power and wealth that is under its control.

At this point, it would be useful to analyze the mechanism of relation between these three poles of power structure in the context of the Kurdish colonial/postcolonial era and analyze the mechanics based on which they collude to oppress the subaltern. A key term in this context is the concept of self-othering introduced by Hamid Nafici (2000). In his paper "Self-Othering: A Postcolonial Discourse on Cinematic First Contacts," he defines the concept as such "[lacking] a significant local film industry, the Third World people could not narrate their own stories in the new medium—stories in which they could explore, find, and assert their own identities. As a result, they tended to define themselves vis-à-vis the way the West was defining itself and imagining them by means of the new medium"(p.3). Although Nafici explores the relation between a dominant system of power in the context of the binary relation between West and its other as the Iranian audience, his concept of self-othering can be extended to the political relation between three dimensions of power introduced at the beginning of this study. It can be argued that the effect of self-othering does not stay at the space between the colonizer and the colonized; it creates a mechanism of self-othering in which the alienated nation in its multiplicity projects the structure into all the layers of ethnic and social stratum. Thus, facing the "epistemic violence and representation crisis," (ibid, p.4) the power structure projects this sense into the other social strata, which are less powerful ethnicities or minorities. The higher social status attempts to escape from the position of alienation by attempt to be situated at the same statues as the colonizer- a subject, which can claim an Other for its existence. As a result, the colonial structure and the internal system of power reach a common point, which although unrecognized, plays a central role in the power dynamism of the relationship of different players in the social system. The structure of self-othering reaches deep into the social structure of the colonized in which every distinguishable power structure projects the sense of self-debasement into its nearest less strenuous. This process can be called cross reflecting self-othering. As a result, because of the layered system of power in the colonial structure, the main players in this context would be the external colonial regime, the internal most powerful power structure and the higher stratum of the minority structure, which based on such a process, exist in a tacit concurrence. Moreover, by maintaining that the concept of minority is relative and fluid rather than essential and identical, one can claim that the self-othering transforms into a mechanism of formation of minorities in which the minority-within-minority is the last layer that does not have the power of projecting the mechanism into any other social sector. In such a context of multi-layered oppression subaltern lapses into invisibility- a blank space. In addition, whenever there might be an opposition through voicing her/his identify "[her/his] speech...[is] appropriated by these superior forms of authority" (Das, 1989, p. 5).

In such a state of none-representability in which the ultimate position for the subaltern is misrepresentation, the question in the context of the works of Ghobadi is "if the oppressed under socialized capital have no necessary access to "correct" resistance, can the ideology of *sati*, coming from the history of periphery, be sublated into any model of interventionist practice?" (Spivak, 1988, p. 43). This question can be better understood by recognizing the fact that any possible form of resistance would be blocked by the tacit alliance of the structures that deeply affect the existence of the subaltern. As a result, death would be the only way through which there can be a possibility of resistance in which "[an] *anti-dialectical* movement of the subaltern subverts any binary or sublatory ordering of power and sign" (Bhabha 1994, p.55). Death, in these works, creates a negative resistance through non-representation. It is a restating of the Subaltern, a "cultural difference [whose] aim is to re-articulate the sum of knowledge from the perspective of the signifying *singularity* of the 'other' that resists totalization – the repetition that will not return as the same, the minus-in-origin that results in political and discursive strategies where adding-*to* does not add-up but serves to disturb the calculation of power and knowledge, producing other spaces of subaltern signification" (Bhabha, 1990, p.24). This issue subverts the hopelessness, which Spivak states at the end of "Can the Subaltern Speak?" In works of the Kurdish filmmaker, death of the subjects makes coherence where the subjects refuse to be appropriated by the external or internal factors. Although the case of *Sati* reappears in a work of art, the effect is the same. It "would challenge and deconstruct [the]

opposition between subject (law) and object-of-knowledge and mark the place of “disappearance” with something other than silence and nonexistence, a violent aporia between subject and object status” (Spivak, 1988, p.46).

In the first period, death is concomitant with the material reality of existence around the characters. It does not enter into their own subjectivity and remain in the space between the subject and the social reality. In *A Time for Drunken Horses* and *The Songs of my Homeland*, the subaltern faces the harsh physical reality with death as an intertwined part. *A Time for Drunken Horses* is the panorama of death of the people who live on the border between Iran and Iraq. Being left on their own, the oldest son of the family tries to replace the position of his murdered father. Based on the physical dominance of the first period, the threat of death is intertwined with the reconciliation of the character with the harsh reality in which he is situated. In *The Songs of my Homeland*, the concept of death does not penetrate the subjective reality of the main subjects. On the other hand, it becomes an inseparable section of their lives; ultimately, the death of the estranged wife of the artist, results in the recreation of the unity between Barat the singer and the woman with whom he has fallen in love. In the context of the first period, death as the final stance of the existence of the subjects in the material stasis, acts in two ways. It thwarts the movement of the subjects in the first stance, and when enforced on their reality of the existence, recreates the space through which there might be a possibility of the creation of a new order. As a result, both of the works in the first period conclude in a new stance for a beginning in which the physical borders are negated and are opened for of recreation and reconstruction.

The state of subjectivity in the second period is manifest in the character of Agrin- the protagonist of *Turtles can Fly* who is oppressed by both internal power structures. The ferocious Ba’ath party, which has regarded her as an object and at the same time less ferociously, but more prolonged, the traditional Kurdish social structure with its stigmatization of the raped female subjects and their “illegitimate” children. Here, the resistance of the subaltern is in its rejection of the dominant systems by anti-traditional and anti-constitutional suicide of the female subject.

In the third phase, death of the protagonist in *Rhino Season* reinvigorates a senseless world. In opposition to the previous periods where death constitutes a rejection of a system of power in combination with a psychological resistance, here, death contains pure psychological revolt which empowers the Subjects for a reunification with an origin. Therefore, “[this] surplus is the effect of the radical alterity of the other, whether as ‘face’ or as death, which prevents the totality from being constituted as such. As might be expected, it is the possibility of this absolute otherness, and the ability to exercise all violence in the relation with it” (Young, 1990, p.16). This can be best witnessed at the end of the *Rhino Season*. While the family of protagonist return to the land which they have long abandoned, the protagonist, Sahel, rejects the passivity of his state and lives in a timeless world which exists in a third space away from life and death. Such a poetic presentation of the subaltern attests to the fact that as long as the physical pressure of subalternity is not cast away, the psychological structure that has been created in long periods of oppression proves an intransitive obstacle. In this state death goes beyond its physical signification; it develops into the death of the symbols, which are being created in the process of oppression, “[it] is a historiography of the subaltern that displaces the paradigm of social action as defined primarily by rational action... [it] enables the historian to get away from defining subaltern consciousness as binary, as having positive or negative dimensions. It allows the articulation of the subaltern agency to emerge as relocating and reinscription. ... The synchrony in the social ordering of the symbols is challenged within its own terms, but the grounds of engagement have been displaced in a supplementary movement that exceeds those terms. This is the historical movement of hybridity as camouflage, as a contesting, antagonist agency functioning in the time lag of sign/symbol, which is a space in between the rules of engagement” (Bhabha, 1992, p.19). Therefore, it is a recreation of the subject, in which “[the] illegal alien, the colonized, the okhcha – [who] they are all exposed to violence; they do not engage in conversation, they are not ‘reduced’ to ‘signifiers’, and so symbolic exchange alone cannot remove them” (Wagner, 2012, p.15). Therefore, regeneration becomes possible in a newly created space free from the oppressing systems of power.

#### IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Ghobadi's works are situated in the center of Kurdish self-consciousness as the subaltern of multilayered structures of oppression. These works join the narrative with documentary genre in an attempt to represent the subaltern in a tangible world of change and constant regeneration. By being in the status of the social and diasporic Subject, Ghobadi's attempt is to re-present and resist the oppressive structures both in the context of the Same and the Other. In the words of Ashcroft (2001), this kind of re-imagining of the minorities is a counter discourse “which is not a separate oppositional discourse but a tactic which operates from the fractures and contradictions of discourse itself” (p.102). In addition, by depicting the fluidity of such a stasis at a time that the political structures, Kurdish or non-Kurdish, claim a state of identity which either passes through absolute non-representation or mis-representation as a result of politico-social benefits, he attempts to “use the camera less as revolutionary weapon than as a monitor of the gendered and sexualized realm of realms of the personal and the domestic, seen as integral but repressed aspects of national history. [He displays] a certain skepticism toward metanarratives of liberation but do not necessarily abandon the notion that emancipation is worth fighting for...” (Shohat, 1997, p. 26). These works represent a resisting cinema in which the subaltern is allegorized, and the attempt is to create a space in which the world can be a just place in which all can live and be equal. The present study is at the same context; it can be an allegory of the state of subaltern through studying a layer of signification, which is the works of Ghobadi. Thus, the subjectivity of the writer that is among the natives comes into

the context. On this level, the object of study goes a level deeper. In other words, this paper is a resistance against the structures that are on the façade paradoxical and antagonistic, but in reality complicit in their oppression of subaltern.

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# Social Psychology of Auspicious and Ominous Cardinal Numbers in Oriental and Occidental Cultures and Their Translations\*

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**Abstract**—Ethnic culture, religious belief, legends and tales have made a great impact on numbers and they are endowed with cultural connotation. People from different cultures look numbers as auspicious or ominous ones which are favourite in a race or taboo in the other. Connotation and associative meaning of the numbers have gestated peculiar digital cultures in different countries. By comparison between Chinese and English numbers in connotation and denotation we may understand the English and Chinese social cultures better and avoid the conflicts and misunderstanding in cross-cultural communications, which can be of help in translating numerical idioms. Translation criteria of numbers are discussed.

**Index Terms**—number cultures, social psychology, numerical languages, fuzzy languages, numerical translation

## I. INTRODUCTION

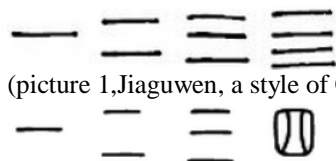
In mathematics, cardinal numbers, or cardinals for short, are a generalization of the natural numbers used to measure the cardinality (size) of sets. According to Huinan Bao(2001), the ideas of numbers originates from the nature and were found by people in observing and exploring the world, and Jinzhi Su(1991)explained that, while human beings acclimatized themselves to the demands of social production ,with the development of human thinking and the need of human practice numbers in the forms of symbols generated. Numbers belongs to a particular field of linguistics, and functions of numbers applied in science are enumeration, and if the numbers work out problems precisely, orderly and demonstrably, they are real numbers. When the numbers are applied in the field of social psychology, they refer to the semantic meanings. Bingqin Wang(1998) stressed that some numbers had been apotheosized as abstruse, nihilistic, and natural ones which contain connotation and denotation.

People around the world live in different regions and countries, or even an ethnic group different from the others, therefore, the same cardinal number may have a different association meaning in their cultures. Those cardinal numbers take on new symbolic meanings beyond a language. Some Chinese cardinal numbers have the same meaning as them in English even though some are different in the two cultures. The variety in semantic reflect the cultural psychological differences between Chinese and English.

## II. ORIGIN OF NUMBERS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF COUNTING SYSTEM

The ancient Indian invented the numeric symbols such as 0、1、2、3、4、5、6、7、8、9, and then the numbers were passed down to Arabia and from Arabia to Europe. The European thought that the Arabian created those digits by mistake which were called “the Arabic Digits” afterwards. Currently the Arabic numbers are worked in all around the world.

As to the origin of Chinese digits, there are different ideas sharply. Moruo Guo, the historian, literati, poet, and Jiaguwen<sup>1</sup> (inscriptions on bones or tortoise shell) expert argued that the ancient Chinese people conveyed the concept of numbers with their hands and in this way that they found the expressions about numbers. He further pointed out that the idea of numbers are from their hands ,the Chinese characters:一(one), 二(two), 三(three), 四(four). As follows :

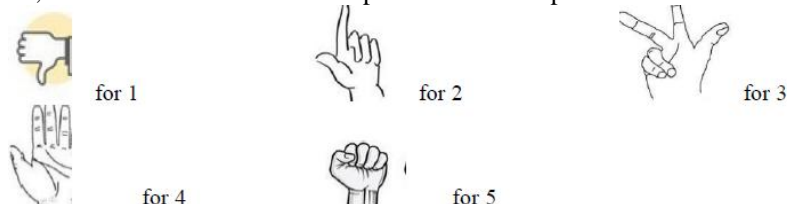


\* This paper is one of researches of 2013 Teaching and Research Project for Wuhan Municipal Universities entitled the Application of English Corpus-based Translation Teaching in English Majors of Chinese Universities. The Project Number 2013017.

<sup>1</sup> A style of Chinese character produced in about BC 3000, Shang dynasty. Characters were written on bones or tortoise shells.

(picture 2, Zhuanti Character, another style , produced in about BC 2500, the Pre-Qin Dynasty which was called the Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States Period)

The Chinese numeric shapes of 1, 2, 3, 4 are like fingers. But why are the strokes written horizontally? In the ancient China, the Han Chinese ancestors expressed the concepts with their hands as follows:



Those pictures show us the numeric meanings horizontally, that is the reason. The Arabic digits were introduced to China in about 13th century, but they were not adopted. It was not until the 20th century that the Arabic numbers came into use in the cultural field and daily life.

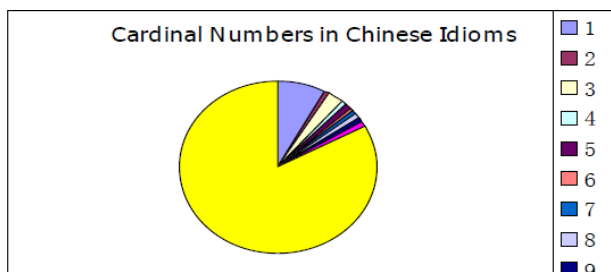
### III. CARDINAL NUMBERS IN CHINESE IDIOMS

Xinchun Su (1995) considered that a language is a philosophy and tool with which a people observe the world. National cultural nature is agglomerated in a language. The connotation of a word is a reflection of cultural contents.

Cardinal numbers have been widely used in our life and they get involved in our languages. Numbers are regarded as a special cultural memory stored in every culture. According to the Great Chinese Dictionary<sup>2</sup>, compiled by the Chinese Dictionary Committee, there are a large amount of idioms contained numbers from one to nine. The following table is a statistics according to Chinese Idiom Dictionary<sup>3</sup>. The total is 15,000. When cardinal number idioms(1 to 10) are picked out, the data presents as following:

idiom quantity	Cardinal Numbers										Non-Cardinal Numbers
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Quantity(in Chinese idioms)	1197	138	358	147	147	82	111	154	107	133	12426
Total	2574										

More numbers, such as 0, hundred, thousand, 万 (10 thousand), 亿 (100 million), are not included in the above statistics , the proportion will be larger if all numbers are counted.



Even members are Chinese preference in all walks of life. The idioms contained number 2, 4, 6 and 8 are from The Chinese Idiom Dictionary. The following 2, 4, 6, 8 idioms are commendatory ones.

Commendatory idioms:

2(shuang, liang, dui)	4	6	8
二龙戏珠 二人同心, 合二为一 一清二楚 一身而二任 一身二任 一石二鸟 天下无双、国士无双、德艺双馨、举世无双、一箭双雕、比翼双飞、双管齐下、一语双关、绝世无双、双喜临门、文武双全、福祿双全、双宿双飞、福慧双修、才貌双全、智勇双全、成双成对、名利双收、盖世无双、 福寿双全、双栖双宿、当世无双、海内无双、才貌双绝、成双作对、绝世无双、两小无猜、两全其美、两袖清风、两情相悦、一举两得、两肋插刀、忠孝两全	四海一家、四海为家、志在四方、四平八稳、四通八达、四面八方、四海之内皆兄弟、四海升平、放之四海而皆准、扬名四海 四方之志、囊括四海	六朝金粉、六尘不染、六根清静、六合之内、六畜兴旺、三茶六礼、三宫六院、三媒六证、三十六计、三十六行、三头六臂、身怀六甲、五亲六眷、五颜六色、五脏六腑	八拜之交, 眼观六路, 八斗之才, 八方呼应, 八方支持, 八方支援, 八九不离十, 半斤八面, 八面玲珑, 八面威风, 八仙过海, 各显神通, 才高八斗, 二八佳人

<sup>2</sup> Edited by Zufeng Luo, and compiled by the Chinese Dictionary Committee in November, 1986, 22,700 Chinese characters, attached 2000 illustrations,12 volumes. The first volume was published in 1986, and was completed in November, 1993.

<sup>3</sup> Edited by Xiaoping Xie, 15,000 idioms, in September, 2010, Shanxi People's Education Press, Xi'an.



## IV. SEMANTIC FUZZY IN CARDINAL NUMBERS

The principal function of cardinal numbers is counting. But when they are used in literature or idioms, the meaning of a number is fuzzy. L.A. Zadeh (1965), American scientist, pointed out that the process of human being's aesthesia and thought is fuzzy, and the essence of a descriptive language is vague in *the description is usually a summary of complex conditions* (D.Dubois,1980:2). Complexity is in inverse proportion to accuracy. That is, when the matter gets more complicated, it is less likely to analyze or describe accurately. It is not a tragedy when our thoughts can work out the complex *problems without the accurate analysis* (Paul P.Wang, 1980:129). When many words (Chinese characters) defined nowadays definitely are explored the derivation, it would be found that the meanings are vague (Tieping Wu, 2000:337).

Precise numbers are not always precise, they are sometimes vaguely used in discourse, which inevitably brings difficulties to translators.

Cardinal numbers used in Chinese are very common, and what they refer to are fuzzy, such as “1 xin 1 yi(concentration)”, “1 qiong 2 bai(very poor)”, “3 peng 4 you(close friends)”, “5 yan 6 se(colorful)”, “7 shang 8 xia(very nervous)”, “9 niu 1 mao(many, much)”, etc.

In English, ten, twenty, hundred, thousand, a hundred and one, a thousand and one, million, billion are fuzzy language, too. More examples:

- (1) He has warned me against pickpocket twenty times.
- (2) I have a thousand and one things to do before we set out for our holiday.
- (3) A cat has nine lives.
- (4) A stitch in time saves nine.

Expressions like in two twos, two-to-two shop, three-bottle man, third dimension, four square, on all fours, four-lettered words, five-star, five and ten, etc.

## V. A COMPARISON BETWEEN AUSPICIOUS OR OMINOUS NUMBERS

Pythagoras, the ancient philosopher, mathematician, considered that one, granted by the God, was an impartible entity. One is both a cardinal number and a pronoun. It means “one” and “somebody or something”. “the Holy One” refers to the God, “the Evil One” the Satan, “One and only” the love(lover), “Number One”. Han nation sing high praise for one all the time. One symbolizes the beginning, origin, and ancestor of something and implies “independent, alone”, Dingzhang Wang(2009), in *Popular Chinese Customs*, described that if a girl was engaged, the girl's family would receive a gift-note attached a giving list in details before their marriage. Every gift with a dainty description would come in even number. It is believed that God can be alone, but people cannot.

In Russia, one is treated as the omnipotent and perfect number. It is as perfect as God or the Infinite (Мифынаро-довмира1992:630):

Ты ,Господи,один,  
Один,ни-ктоизвас,  
Какспуховыхгорбин

Всиньгорнююрвалась. «Когда же,Господи...» (Цветаева1994-2:126)Ибостранник — Дух,/ И идетодин.  
«Нотесновдвоем...» (Цветаева1994-2:139).

In these verses, “один(one)” refers to the God, the spirit.

Two is the first even number in cardinal ones with the meanings of “double”, “more” in Chinese. Chinese have the passion for two, and people wish their good lucks, fortunes will come two by two. There are some expressions about two in Chinese, such as “hao shi cheng shuang (Good things come in pairs..)”, “shuang xi lin men(Double bliss visit you. )”, “liang quan qi wei( to satisfy the both sides)”. Many Chinese parents and grandparents name their children with “shuang(two)”, or “dui(two)” for the purpose of propitiousness. Meanwhile some idioms contained two are derogatory, such as “er sha zi (fool)”, “er lai zi (hooligan)”, “er bai wu (idiot)” (*New Word Dictionary,1993*)

But two does not make a good impression on the westerners as it to the orientals. In English, two is an ominous number, and it comes from the plural form —dicel of die, and death isn't welcome. The ancient Romans sacrificed Pluto, King of the Underworld, in February and the dead on the 2nd , February. Since mining digs up wealth from under the earth, Pluto came to be associated with the Underworld, and he became associated with Hades. The name Pluto is more common in Roman mythology, so it is sometimes said that Pluto is the Roman version of the Greek god Hades. Pythagoras also considered that two carried change, disorder. Consequently, it is an odd number (any other but 13) in a bunch of flowers as a giving in the western culture.

To the Russian, two represents —departure and unity|.

Ирекой ,разошедшейсянадве— /Чтобы островсоздать — июбнять.(Цветаева1994-2:338)

Поканепоздно,хочешь,скажем/Впоследнийразстихивдвоем.../...Носердценадварасколосось./И общийпуть — наразных два./Когданадлесоминадподем/Всенебесазамрутвзвездах,/

Двенеразлучныхкразным долям/Помчатсявразныхпоездах.(Цветаева1992-1:168)



Three is one of the Chinese favourite numbers due to its meanings— “many, much” in Chinese culture. Lao tzu<sup>45</sup>, the founder of Taoism, pointed out that the divine law is the beginning (Dao gives birth to one), and one gives birth to two, and two to three, and three to all the things in the universe—from nihil to existence and to infinity. In the changing process three is the key. We always talk about “san yang kai tai (three Yangs make good fortune)”, the implied meaning is “All things go well!” and “Good luck!”. The quotation spoken in the coming new year is from *Changes*<sup>6</sup>, and it conveys the meaning of the next year’s beginning. Yang (positive force) is the most powerful material, and the first, second and third trigram of the nine ones are mighty compared to Yin (negative force), therefore the force of three Yangs is beyond compare.

It could be figured out by the structures of Chinese characters that three expresses the primary meanings of “more” such as: “淼(three Chinese characters 水, it means “more water”); “森(three 木, more trees, forest)”; “焱(three 火, very hot)”; “晶(three 日, very bright)”; “磊(three 石, more stones)”; “众(three 人, more persons, crowd)”.

Pythagoras considered three as a perfect and harmonious number and a changing unity. Three equals trinity, and trinity = 1(unity)+ 2(diversity), it presents the philosophical development periods(beginning—development—end) in a matter. In the early Christian doctrine (tenet), three refers to the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit. People who believe the Trinity teaching say that each of these three persons is said to be equal to the others, almighty, and without beginning. The westerners uphold three not only for its sanctity and propitiousness but for its traditional elements, as the world is threefold (earth, sea, and air); man is threefold (body, soul, and spirit); the enemies of man are threefold (the world, the flesh, and the devil); the Christian graces are threefold (Faith, Hope, and Charity); the kingdoms of Nature are threefold (mineral, vegetable, and the animal); the cardinal colors are three in number (red, yellow, and blue)(Brewer's Dictionary of Phrase and Fable, London: Cassell & Company Ltd. 1963).

There are different ideas about three in British folk customs. It is said that fortune and doom are threefold, two is followed by three, and if the evildoings visit you twice, they will come for a third time. Russians prefer three to the others. We can infer from the Russian idioms: Помнитридела: молись, терпи, работай, Безтроицы домнестроится.

In *Changes*, Taiji (great supreme) give birth to Liangyi (two rituals), and Liangyi gives birth to Sixiang (four directions), so four symbolizes the world. Four also refers to “si fang (the east, north, west, and south)”, “the earth (the front, backward, left and right)” But four is not popular with natives in Hongkong, Guangzhou, and Taiwan because of its pronunciation similar to death in Chinese characters. In the south China dialect, the pronunciation of fourteen is similar to “实死(really dead)”, people try to avoid to use it.

In Japan, there is no number 4 or 9 clinic or ward. In Japanese, four has the same pronunciation as death[死(し)], and nine as hardship[苦(く)], surely the patients are unacceptable. 42 is pronounced as “死に(しに)”, correspondingly there is no number 4 park in the park lots or room in the hotels. Some telephone numbers like 4219 (しにい(死に行く)) and 9683(くろうはさん) are avoided in Japan.

Pythagoras considered four, the first square number, as a perfect number. Four, thought as “unity”, “diligency”, and “stabilization”, represents missionaries in Christian doctrine, idioms as “the four corners”, “the four corners of the earth”, “the four letter word”. Four conveys the meanings of “directions or unity” in Russian, such as безчеты-рехугловизбанстановится.: Благословляю вас навсе/Четырестороны; Положителя/ Промеж четы-рехдорог; ... удачетырехветров.

What about five and six? Five is neither derogatory nor commendatory. It is neutral. People always read “wu gu feng deng(Wish the five cereals (rice, two kinds of millet, wheat and beans) productive.”, or “wu fu lin men(May the five fortunes approach our doors.)”. wufu refers to “long life”, “wealth”, “health”, “an ethical life”, and “a peaceful death”. The five principal definitions in the ancient Chinese philosophy are the five elements (Jin, Mu, Shui, Huo, Tu). Confucians think that five is the Golden Mean. Pythagoras took five as a natural and artistic number. The Jesu’s scars were five in the Christian doctrine.

Six that has the meanings of “prosperity” and “safety” is also one of the Chinese favourite numbers as two with the same pronunciation of “禄 (Chinese character, it means wealth.)”. People prefer 66,666, or 6666 to the other numbers as their telephone numbers or license plate numbers. Pythagoras saw six as justice and the early Christians thought that God created the world in six days. In western countries, six is a devil number in the Bible.

In the north China, because of the homophone with “起 (it means “rise”).”, seven is popular with the natives. Most Americans are interested in 777 due to the numerical permutation and combination in the gambling slot machines as well as Black Jack (21). In English, seven is holy and mysterious. It has a great influence on the British culture as well as the whole world. God created the world in seven days in the Christian’s belief. There are many expressions such as the Seven Sages of Greece, the Seven Bishops, the Seven Virtues, the Seven Deadly Sins, the Seven Gifts of the Spirit, etc.

Seven is holy, mysterious and supreme in Russian. There are many idioms contained seven: наседьмомнебе, Семероодногонедут, Семьразотмерь, одинразотрежь, семипядейволбу, засемьверсткиселяхлебать,

<sup>4</sup> Er Li (600 BC. - 470 BC.), Chinese ancient thinker, philosopher, and founder of Taoism in the Spring and Autumn Period.

<sup>5</sup> Chinese ancient classic philosophy works, written in about 3000 BC., Zhou Dynasty.

<sup>6</sup> Edited by Xu Shen, in 100 A.D.- 121 A.D., Chinese Donghan dynasty, one of the most archaic dictionaries, and the first dictionary compiled with Chinese character components in china.

сгонять семь потов, семь верст донес, семь потов сошло с лица, за семью замками, книга за семью печатями, etc. in those idioms, seven is a fuzzy language.

Eight, in Chinese “八”—apart, which was expressed in Analytical Dictionary of Chinese Characters<sup>8</sup>, isn't a hieroglyph. People always appoint the date which there is an eight number (the 8th, 18th, 28th) as the ceremony day. Eight is similar to the pronunciation of “发 (Chinese character)”, and it means “get rich”. Most have the passion of choosing an eight number or more eights, if possible, and the more the better, as their house, room, telephone numbers and account number. In the south China, people would spend much money in earning the privilege of “518 (I will get rich.)”, “918 (It will be prosperous.)” “888 (to get rich all the time.)” in the business.

In Europe, it is a sign of stability and harmony. According to Bible, eight persons escaped from the Flood, so eight means luck. Jesus's brother, Jacob had 8 children, and the vertical 8, which looks like two rings, symbolizes a happy marriage. The horizontal 8“∞”, is an infinite sign which means abundance, longevity, well-being, and posterity. In Matthew, Jesus preached his pupils and talked about the eight events, and eight became the gospel number.

Nine was titled the kings or emperors in ancient China as “九五之尊(imperial throne)”. It is regarded as the largest positive number which symbolizes the powerful force. There are some expressions about nine in China, such as “jiu chong xiao(the farthest sky)”, “san jiao jiu liu (all walks of life)”, “jiu si yi sheng(a narrow escape)”, etc. Nine is also a mysterious number in western culture. The Nine refers to the Muses who was in charge of art and science in Greek mythology. A cat has nine lives in English idioms. It is said that the sight of nine pied magpies would bring you bad lucks. “To be dressed up to the nines” means that someone dresses daintily and tidily. And “to the nines” refers to “perfect”.

## VI. SUGGESTIONS ON TRANSLATIONS OF NUMERICAL LANGUAGES

Cultural accumulations have come from the political events (Watergate scandal, the Gettysburg address, etc.), cultural influence (the ancient Greek mythology). What is culture? It is defined as the totality of beliefs and practices of a society. A language is the carrier of culture, and it is conveyed and communicated through the media of a language. Therefore, to understand the differences between the oriental and occidental cultures is the key to communicate and translate successfully.

Suggestions:

1. Numerical languages reflect a certain culture.
2. Numerical languages have its vocabulary and is the sign of cultural focus.
3. Numerical languages are an emotional expression.

Eugene A. Nida, American translator and theorist, thought that: —For truly successful translating, biculturalism is even more important than bilingualism, only by being in the countries in which a language is spoken can one acquire the necessary sensitivity to the many special meanings of words and phrases.”(Eugene A. Nida, 2002:82)

Based on the cultural differences between English and Chinese, we may adopt some translation strategies to numerical idioms in cross-cultural communication activities:

1. literal translation: such as “hao shi cheng shuang(好事成双)”——Good things come in pairs. “liang quan qi wei (两全其美)”—— to satisfy both sides.
2. free translation: such as—jiu si yi sheng(九死一生)——a narrow escape.
3. note translation: “er lai zi (二百五)”——a hooligan, “er bai wu (二赖子)”——an idiot.

The command of both source language and target language is a must for a qualified translator, but a better understanding of two cultures or more is essential for an excellent translator. Numeric languages are present everywhere and play an important role in our life. Option of auspicious cardinal numbers is human's natural and normal activities and they are only human being's wishes for their life. It would be absurd if everything fortunate or unfortunate is associated with numerical numbers. Hengli Li, chairman of the International Taoism Fund, claimed that there is no necessary consequence between numerical numbers and fortune. The association meanings of the digital numbers are an emotional expression and experience to the real society.

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# Conflict of Philosophies of Education in Public vs. Private School Discourses: An Investigation of English Language Teachers' Teacher-room Talk in Iranian Context

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**Abstract**—The purpose of this study is to uncover the cultural beliefs and values that underlie the public school and private language institute teachers' representations of their professional identities and figured worlds, through examining discourses that manifested themselves in their teacher-room talks with their peer teachers. The data was collected by means of video recordings of the teachers' natural and face-to-face interactions. Using a multi-layered approach, we analyzed the two groups' speech patterns: 'I-statements', 'narrative lines', 'act sequences and schematic move structures', 'tenses of verbs', 'pronouns', 'hedging vs. boosters', 'topics of talks', 'in-group insults', 'teasing humor', 'mentoring talk', 'professional humor', 'phatic communion and social talk vs. core business talk', 'everyday vs. technical vocabularies', 'laughter', 'lexical density', 'pacing of talk', 'repetition and dramatization', 'the amount of English language used and code-switching' and non-linguistic factors like 'tools', 'objects', and 'bodies' as identity-markers used by the two groups. The findings revealed that speech patterns of the two groups of teachers differed dramatically. The most pervasive macro-speech patterns among public school teachers were 'narratives' and 'social dispute arguments' and that of English language institute teachers were 'work and professional talk with code-switching from Turkish to English' and 'mentoring and viewpoint-giving arguments'. The school teachers' narratives, and social phatic communion talk, in the form of mainly gossip, depicted a 'master dispute figured-world' against authorities, whereas mentoring, viewpoint-giving arguments, work negotiation, and work experiences told by institute teachers were a sign of their 'master work and success figured-world'.

**Index Terms**—philosophy of education, teachers' room talk, macro-discourses, speech patterns

## I. INTRODUCTION

In an excellent discussion on how the practice of language teaching can be influenced by the dominant philosophy of education, Widdowson (2003) talks about two [macro-discourses] which co-occur with some [micro-discourses] of language pedagogy including the roles of participants (teachers and learners), the way learning ends are to be defined and selection of E (Externalized) vs. I (Internalized) conception of language. In one philosophy of education, which he calls a retrospective philosophy, education is conceived as the initiation of students into an established culture of knowledge and belief, a continuation of heritage. In this view, the dominant philosophy is past-oriented and dedicated to the maintenance of traditional social values on the assumption that they will be of continuing relevance. However, in alternative view, which Widdowson calls a prospective philosophy of education, the focus is on future, on initiative rather than initiation; this view anticipates change by representing education as the means whereby individuals are prepared to cope with unpredictable eventualities. Widdowson argues that a retrospective philosophy of education usually co-occurs with emphasis on teacher authority (in assigning roles to participants), code knowledge (in characterizing learning outcomes), and an Internalized conception of language (in prioritizing a philosophy of language and communication), whereas a prospective philosophy usually co-occurs with emphasis on learner autonomy, communicative knowledge and an Externalized conception of language. Of course, here we understand Widdowson's conservative voice in the use of the verb "co-occur" by which he is trying to avoid and also prevent any implicational interpretations since in that paper he is encouraging language teachers to move beyond pre-determined educational structures and take initiatives and have their own voices in resetting the existing parameters. However, the fact is that the relationships here are constitutive: retrospective and prospective philosophies of education should be regarded as macro-discourses which inevitably construct and are reconstructed by micro-discourses. Hence, in our argument, we have avoided any representationalist conception of discourse and have rather adopted a constitutive one (for a detailed discussion on the difference of these, see Shi-Xu, 2005). We believe that all types of academic discourses (including teacher-room talk which is the focus of the present research) produced in educational institutes can be regarded as

reliable sources of understanding where the policy-makers desire to push the outcomes: are they dedicated to reproduction of values that belong to past or are they preparing the learners to deal with unpredictable eventualities.

It should, of course, be mentioned that teacher-room talk is not an uncharted land in applied linguistic research, but what is missing in the literature is the constitutive interpretation we have adopted in the present study.

From among the studies which have followed a similar tendency, we can refer to Vasquez (2007) who explored two types of workplace narratives – reflective and relational narratives – produced by a group of professionals who were non-experts: in this case, novice language teachers. Specifically, the study illustrated how the moral stance that a novice constructs within a narrative may be formulated in uncertain terms, may be destabilized by the primary narrator, or may be subject to revision by other participants. Finally, the study highlighted the relationship between the narrative dimensions of moral stance and teller-ship, and suggested that participant structure, participants' role relationships, and institutional power asymmetry were especially relevant factors to consider in any further analyses of novices' workplace narratives.

Ignatieva (2010) studied the cultural beliefs and values that underlie American and Russian teachers' representations of their professional identities and their understanding of power in education in the context of globally disseminated education reforms, through examining discourses that manifested themselves in their talks. Only some pronouns as linguistic features and social dominant discourse models manifested in teachers' talks and interviews in two countries were analyzed and discussed in this study.

Irwin and Hramiak (2010) in an investigation of trainee teacher identity in online discussion forums state that teacher education involves an identity transformation for trainees from being a student to being a teacher. This study examined the online discussion board communications of a cohort of trainee teachers to better understand the situated identities of the trainees and how they were presented online. Their discussion board posts were the primary method of communication during placement periods and, as such, provided insight into how the trainees situated their identities in terms of being a student or being a teacher. During the analysis, the community boundaries, language and culture were explored along with the tutor's power and role in the identity transformation process. This involved looking at the lexis used by the trainees, the use of pronouns to refer to themselves and others such as teachers and pupils, the types of messages allowed in the community and the effect of the tutor's messages on their communication.

Gee (2010) reports a project where a university history professor (Dr. Vogel, not her real name) wanted to work with middle-school teachers to have their students engage in oral history to collect information about the history of their neighborhoods and the city in which they live. There were historic tensions between the university and the city and, in particular, tensions between people who taught at the university and people who taught in the public schools, tensions over status and commitment to the city.

We believe that studies like the ones quoted above have contributed to our understanding of many dimensions of teacher talk, but we find our unique in indicating the embeddedness of such talk in the dominant values of educational philosophies. What adds to the value of such research is the juxtaposition of these conflicting philosophies in a single context. English is taught in two different educational systems in Iran (public school system and private language institutes) and the fact is that these two systems operate with totally different approaches to language, learning and interaction. In what follows a detailed description of the context of the study is provided.

## II. METHODOLOGY

The present study was conducted in Naghadeh (also known as Sulduz), a small town in western Azerbaijan province of Iran. The participants of the research were teachers of a public high school and a private English language institute. They spoke a local variety of Azerbaijani Turkish as their mother tongue.

Using a multi-layered approach, in the present study we analyzed the two groups of teachers' talks in terms of the following features: 'I-statements', 'narrative lines', 'act sequences and schematic move structures', 'tenses of verbs', 'pronouns', 'hedging vs. boosters', 'topics of talks', 'in-group insults', 'teasing humor', 'mentoring talk', 'professional humor', 'phatic communion and social talk vs. core business talk', 'everyday vs. technical vocabularies', 'laughter', 'lexical density', 'pacing of talk', 'repetition and dramatization', 'the amount of English language used and code-switching' and non-linguistic factors like 'tools', 'objects', and 'bodies' as identity-markers used by the two groups.

The data were recorded from *the teachers' room talks* at their break time between their classes. Nearly four and a half hours of their talks were recorded at different intervals and in different sessions. As the school teachers' rest times were relatively longer than institute teachers' break times, from 4.5 hours of data collected nearly 3 hours belong to the school teachers and about 1.5 hours to institute teachers (this difference in the amounts of data also is due to, in part, long unhurried narratives of the school teachers). This amount of data were collected in 24 sessions (13 sessions for the school and 11 sessions for the institute). The public school consists of different teachers teaching various kinds of content subjects like: Biology, History, Sociology, Chemistry, Mathematics, English language, Arabic language, and so on (a heterogeneous context). But the English language institute consists of only professional English language teachers (a homogeneous context).

For more than three decades there has been a sort of political and personal tensions between the teachers of public schools, between the Fundamentalists and the Reformists. The two groups were fighting (and still they are fighting now) against each other for occupying the top status-chairs of the educational office of the town. These conflicts have caused

great damages to the process of education and teaching children in the public schools so that most of these teachers have forgotten their teaching careers and have been seeking the higher status of manager-ship in whatever way possible. At the public high school in which I have collected my data, most of the teachers have been teaching for more than fifteen years on average. English language teachers at the institute are all young energetic teachers with no more than eight years of teaching experience in the private language teaching center. Most of them had been the students of the institute before getting their teaching diplomas.

#### *A. Analysis of Two Excerpts from Public High School Teacher-room Talk*

All school data in this research is in Turkish language. The teachers are teaching in different subject areas and the context is heterogeneous but they all speak Turkish, their mother tongue. The most pervasive discourse strategy among school teachers is narrative and storytelling which is a cue showing their dispute and interactional figured world.

##### *School data - excerpt (1)*

Zein is telling a social story which happened to him last year (The names of the teachers have been changed. Zein is a Mathematics teacher. Behi is a theology teacher. They are talking in Turkish.):

**Zein:**(1) (Turkish) bildir..elabilan haman...bu ruze moalem uchin tagdir eliyanda..bu..bu nezami gardashdarimiz birini bizim familardan da, galmishdi bir yerda mitdanirdi, “vallah! yarim sa”at dir bu moalemlara gura..allaf oldikh...flan behman.” O adamda gardashi etifagan moalemidir, oda bir ikidana suz dedi ki az galdi dura gacha.

(English) last year ..perhaps in that...this, the teacher’s day for thanks-giving them..this..this, one of our **military guys** from our relatives had come somewhere saying that, “oh God! it was half an hour for the sake of these teachers ..we wasted our time”...this or that. that guy’s brother ,by chance, was a teacher. That person told him one or two things that the guy was nearly to get up and run away.

**Behi:** (2) (Turkish) yakhchi! diyardin, “san niya garnagrisina tushisan. sanin adamnigin moalemin sayasinda...”

(English) well! you might have told him, “ why you get stomach-ache[cursing]. Your becoming a human being [cursing] is because of the teachers’ **helps**...”

In this story, Zein mentions a military person who, he thinks, has treated the teachers rudely saying that in Teachers’ Day, the teachers have wasted his time. Zein, Behi, and other teachers in the school know that most of the military persons have got their diplomas by the “teachers’ **help**”. The teachers have given the military persons high scores in their exams without even answering the questions of the exams. Now most of those military persons have higher ranks, status, and salaries in the town. So Zein’s story puts forward the discussion on an obvious breaking of the educational law, i.e. scoring. In line (2) Behi, in a reaction to Zein’s story, calls this breaking of the law as “teachers’ **help**”. Behi reveals their own beliefs and values in terms of scoring the students. In their view, giving scores to the students without their studying and pain-taking is considered to be “**help**”. This and other problems which we talk about in the other excerpts have damaged the system of public education in this town to a great extent. Here the teachers are guilty of breaking the law. They see the source of the problems outside themselves in the others. Behi uses cursing language twice in a reaction to the guy’s sayings quoted by Zein in line (2) (“why you get stomach-ache” meaning you get sick and “your becoming a human being” meaning your improvement). Zein’s hesitations and inconsistency in line (1) (that...this, ...this...this, ...this or that) and his use of indicators in his address terms (this guy, this or that) shows his being driven into his emotions, getting angry, using demeaning language, and reacting to what the guy had said about teachers. Some other features in this excerpt are: talking about past and expired things, long and elaborated language (giving the concrete details of what has been said or done), dramatization, i.e., talking both his own and others’ turns in direct speech, angry tone of voice, a cyclical schematic “Move Structure” (Swales, 1981, 1990; Kuhl, 2008) (in all the school teachers’ talks) which starts with Move 1 (posing a social problem, here the teachers’ status), leads to arguments about the causes of this problem in Move 2, then Move 3, giving some narratives and examples to prove this. This move structure is common both in overall school talk and in narratives. Narratives are repeatedly told between argument turns. This cycle goes on and on. The above narrative is just one part of the cyclical move structure. The function of all these features are demeaning and downplaying the authorities of the town.

##### *School data- excerpt (2)*

Behi tells a story which he has heard from one of his relatives:

**Behi:** (1) (Turkish) doctoraye shimi alanarin biri bizim familimizdi, uzi deirdi, deirdi, “aga daneshghadan bizi yoladilar getdikh beonvane bursiya doctoraye shimi alakh galakh Tehrana,” deir, “getdikh ustad orda danishir..bu alchanin turshashirin vadasidi..chagala vadasidi.” deir, “bakhdim gurdum ustad orda dars deir, manda bir naylon alchani goymusham burda bagalima..satli ashgalda bir az uzagtaydi ela burden...fiiiisht...deir, “o basketball atan kimi **veyiram** chagalnin..zadini atiram ordan..chovdainsi oraya.” san fikretilisan bu danishjoye doctoraye shimi ki ustad dars diadia chagala **tanagul eiliyer**..haha..gedib duzadigi shiaf darmani...dardi darman eilijag ya yokh!

(English) One of those who are getting their doctorate in chemistry is our relative, he was himself saying, he was saying, “sir, they sent us from university, we went as supported doctorate chemistry students to get our degrees and return to Tehran,” he says, “we went and saw the professor there speaking...it was the time of prune when it is sour and sweet, the beginnings of prune,” he says, “I looked and see the professor who is teaching there, and I have a packet of prune beside me, I am eating it...there was a bit away a rubbish bin, just from here I...**fiiiisht...[a sound like a missile]**,” he says, “like basketball playing I am eating prunes...and its what.. I throw its cores from here to there.” You

think this doctorate of chemistry student, while his professor is teaching, he is eating prune ... **haha...[laughing mockingly]** he goes and makes a drug, whether this drug will cure the diseases or not!

In this excerpt Behi talks mockingly about one of his relatives who had gone abroad to get his doctorate in chemistry. Behi quotes his relative's way of attending one of his classes; while his professor is teaching, the student is eating prunes and playing. Behi, using a teasing language, tries to mock this student and his authorities who sent him abroad. He uses "chagala" which is an everyday word instead of "alcha" for prune in line (1). In their culture eating "chagala" is a kind of diversion and recreation because it is the beginning of "alcha", so people use it for recreation. Behi says that as if the doctorate student has gone there for recreation rather than gaining knowledge. He uses the verb "tanagul eiliyer" instead of "yeyir" for "eating" to give the word a recreational tone and meaning because it is used when talking about a higher rank person eating something recreationally. Behi skillfully dramatizes the scene by using "...fiiiisht...[a sound like a missile]" and his gestures and body movements which we can see in video recordings. He also uses direct speech as speaking the other person's turns to dramatize the scene; he both talks his own and the other persons' turns. He laughs mockingly when talking about the student's behaviors. We see that Behi here uses all kinds of resources of his native language, i.e. words, verbs, and sounds and body movements and laughing and also the shared culture of his group and people to build a demeaning and teasing activity against authorities. We see these skills and resources as their patterns of speech in their talks in all other excerpts. These patterns build their "figured-world and identities" (Gee, 2010). In all the school teachers' talks we see this move structure and "act sequences" (Hymes, 1972): starting with argument about a social problem in short but sometimes overlapped turns (Move 1, past time), then relating something to this problem and accusing the authorities as being guilty of this (Move 2, present time), bringing some examples in narratives and stories to prove the existence of the problem (Move 3, past time). And this cyclical pattern (argument-argument-narrative one-argument-argument-narrative two-....etc.) goes on and on in order to demean the authorities. We do not see and hear any talk about their work or their desires for future work success (which is dominant in the institute teachers' talks). They remain in the present and mainly in the past, reacting to what others said or done and dramatizing them according to their own wills and purposes (i.e. positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation). The above excerpt is only one of those narratives in the overall pattern.

#### *B. Analysis of Some Excerpts from Private Institute Teacher-room Talk*

In all institute data in this research, teachers, who are all English language teachers in a homogeneous context, talk in English. "Code-switching" from Turkish into English is the most pervasive "discourse strategy" (Gumperz, 1982) among institute teachers and is a "contextualization cue" (Gumperz, 1982) showing their shared identities and work success figured world as English teachers.

##### *Institute data - excerpt (1)*

The English institute teachers have just come from their classes to the teachers' room. Miss Aliz, an English language teacher of the institute, talks about a thirteen-year-old girl she talked about in the previous class with her students. Miss Nas and Miss Ferra are other English language teachers of the English center. Miss Faz, my daughter (the researcher's daughter), is one of Aliz's students who was in her class discussion and now is recording the teachers' room talk for me. They are all talking in English:

- (1) **Aliz:** she is a thirteen-year-old girl, and now she is in university
- (2) **Ferra:** it is unbelievable!
- (3) **Nas:** where?
- (4) **Aliz:** in Tehran, I think. Was it Tehran?
- (5) **Faz:** yea
- (6) **Ferra:** is she from Nagad?
- (7) **Aliz:** no, no
- (8) **Ferra:** is she from Tehran?
- (9) **Aliz:** yes, she is just thirteen and she studies medicine. After eight years she will be a doctor, you can go to her, a nineteen-year-old doctor.
- (10) **Faz:** do you think she will be successful?
- (11) **Ferra:** yes, why not?
- (12) **Faz:** in that age?
- (13) **Ferra:** yes, she...she will be successful.
- (14) **Aliz:** I don't think so.
- (15) **Ferra:** why?
- (16) **Aliz:** because, you know, she is just a teenager, in our class I told that a teenager is a teenager and a child is a child and an adult is an adult, she must go to school, you know, university's atmosphere is different than school and she will go to class with boys and girls who are twenty, eighteen, nineteen, I think that would be different for her. do you think so?
- (17) **Ferra:** maybe, yes.
- (18) **Aliz:** maybe, yea.
- (19) **Nas:** she doesn't understand them, maybe.

(20) **Aliz:** yea, maybe.....but the students' reactions were really funny, you know, some of them said, "it is really good, and we want to be like her", some of them said, "no, it is not ok." .....I think, as a teenager, they like, they like to be like her.

(21) **Ferra:** they like to go to university with their classmates

(22) **Aliz:** yea...university is a very strange place

(23) **Ferra:** why... why strange?

(24) **Aliz:** well, you know, I am thinking it is a very strange place... [some of the students try to enter the room]... they are waiting for us to come to the class, but it is not the time. that were all my students, all the time they are here.

(25) **Faz:** well, how was your class?

(26) **Ferra:** I have very smart students, they are so motivated.

(27) **Aliz:** oh yea, I've seen them, they are perfect. Lucky you for having them, I wish I could go and teach them. they are smart, intelligent, they usually talk, laugh.

(28) **Ferra:** yea

(29) **Aliz:** How is their English? Can they speak?

(30) **Ferra:** good, yes, they can speak very well and they can talk with each other

(31) **Aliz:** don't you have problem with those who can not speak English?

(32) **Ferra:** no

(33) **Aliz:** because I know them... two of them are really naughty...

(34) **Ferra:** but they are.....

In this excerpt, in lines (1-24), the teachers are talking about a thirteen-year-old girl pursuing her doctorate degree in medicine and considered to be a successful model for the students in the institute. Mentioning this case in the class drives the students into their fidelities to persuade them talk about their feelings and to watch their reactions. In line (20) Aliz says "but the students' reactions were really funny..." and "...I *think*, as a teenager, they *like*, they *like* to be like her." In line (21) Ferra says "they *like* to go to university with their classmates" or in lines (10) and (13) Faz and Ferra say "do you think she would be *successful*?" and "yes, she...she will be *successful*". All these lines and others in the institute data show that they are nearly always thinking about their work and future success and this in turn build their work and success figured world and identities. They talk with each other in question-answer sequences of acts in relatively short turns compared with the public school teachers' long elaborated narrative turns. They also use reflective verbs as mitigators and softeners and hedgings as a sign of their indirect non-assertive knowledge-based talk. In lines (16), (18), and (20) Aliz says "I *think* that would be different for her", "I *think*, as a teenager, they like...", "*maybe*, yea" or in lines (16) and (20) she uses "*you know*" three times. "*You know*" as a mitigator and a discourse marker also means that the speaker and the hearer have a shared knowledge of the case at hand and acts as a bonding device in interpersonal relationships. In lines (2) and (20) Ferra and Aliz use the personal discourse markers "*unbelievable*" and "*really*" as devices to express their personal feelings. Institute teachers also use present and future verbs which show their desires and wills for future success and achievements (e.g. "they *like* to go..." in line (21), "she *will be* successful" in line (13)), compared with past verbs which the public school teachers use in their narratives and talks as a sign of their thinking about and dealings with what has gone away and what is outside themselves rather than their own work and success. In lines (25-34) they change the topic to their own students' levels of speaking. In line (25) Faz asks Ferra "*well*, how was your class?" Here the word "*well*" as a discourse marker is used for changing the topic of the talk. Before that in line (24) when Aliz was talking about the girl's case some of the institute's students try to enter the room which is used in their class after the break-time is over. Here a pause occurs in Aliz's turn "I'm thinking it is a very strange place...[students try to enter the room]...they are waiting for us to come to the class". This break in Aliz's turn also is a sign of topic change in their talk. The institute English teachers have a specific and linear move structure which is realized by a combination of linguistic, paralinguistic, and non-linguistic devices, features, and resources. In Move 1, they put forward a work-related problem like "a teaching point" from their textbook or "a successful educational case, in this excerpt". In Move 2, they negotiate and give their own viewpoints about the problem or the case one by one and with a relatively short turns. In Move 3, they try to reach at some results. In Move 4, they try to come to a decision about the problem. The linear move structure is: (negotiation-negotiation-negotiation-....-decision). They also use short and non-elaborated non-narrative turns and work-related negotiations as a sign of their short break-times and spending less time to talk about others' actions and sayings and more about their own teaching career, less attention to others' sayings and doings and reacting to them, not explaining concrete details of the things said or done, talking about abstract issues, using first person pronouns (e.g. we, I, me, us) to attach themselves to their colleagues as a sign of their alignment, the humorous, gentle, and friendly work-related jokes, gentle and friendly laughing, indirect language with more mitigators and softeners as a sign of their deferential and respectful language, their happy and satisfied tone of voice in nearly all of their talks, their non-hesitations and consistencies in their talks, with social meanings as a sign of their rational and knowledge-based talks, all these are the prevalent resources used by the institute teachers which I analyze in the other excerpts.

#### ***Institute data - excerpt (2)***



Mr. Delm, an English language teacher and the supervisor of the institute, wants to get some practical ideas from another English language teacher, Miss Jafa, about how to teach a particular point in his class. Jafa, once, was his own student:

(1) **Delm:** today's class, today I'm going to teach superlative adjectives, I was wondering if you have any ideas to make it more interesting for students, some more activities, for superlative adjectives.

(2) **Jafa:** superlative adjectives...emm...well, we can relate it to their own real lives, for example, I myself always use, for example, monsters for superlative adjectives.

(3) **Delm:** for all the levels or teenagers, ha?

(4) **Jafa:** yea, for teenagers and all levels, the most frightening, the most amazing...I don't know, using their language, it always helped me teach superlative adjectives better.

(5) **Delm:** is it a good idea to compare the teachers? the teachers of canon?

(6) **Jafa:** I have no idea to compare them, but they can compare themselves and their friends.

(7) **Delm:** so what do you think about the good idea for adults? you know, that one day I couldn't use most of the words.

(8) **Jafa:** as I remember you always used pictures on words.

(9) **Delm:** yea, last session I did it, for people, I draw them, persons, Peter, Jack, in boys' classes they usually compare cars, Ferrari, Station, Jian. I need some ways to make it something different, you know, I want to make it really different.

(10) **Jafa:** why don't you want their own ideas? Students will be happy to play teaching, suggest games, role-plays, or...even sometimes I can't teach the grammar with the vocabularies.

(11) **Delm:** what about the students who supposed to give lecture about superlative adjectives? They may speak mechanical and in school-time.

(12) **Jafa:** I guess they memorize it.

(13) **Delm:** I want to push them into their fidelities and then through that, inductively, teach this grammar.

(14) **Jafa:** I know always every student has his own pattern, as my students get photos...eh...some nice things to bring to the session to study between us.

(15) **Delm:** well, thank you very much, I got some nice tips, about their real life, for example, what is your most invaluable position? what is the most expensive thing you have? what is the cheapest thing you bought last year? good idea, thank you very much.

In this excerpt, in line (1), Delm says "I'm going to teach superlative adjectives..." which shows his desire for future work and success. In the institute, the teachers are, nearly in all the data, trying to improve their own teaching career, so they think and talk about their own work and have desires for future success in their work. In line (1) Delm also uses a formal indirect request "I was wondering if you have any idea to make it more interesting for the students". This indirect request is used as a softener and mitigator which is a sign of deferential and respectful talk and also a sign of their rational and knowledge-based talk, compared with the public school teachers' direct, assertive, emotional, and everyday interactional talk. They also use first person pronouns, that is, "I" and "we" together with reflective verbs and achievement statements about their activities, desires or efforts that relate to their achievements, accomplishments, and their distinctions. In line (1) Delm says "I am going to teach..." or in line (2) Jafa says "we can relate it to their..." or in line (13) Delm says "I want to push them into their fidelities..." and a lot of other instances. Also they use modal verbs as hedging (like in lines (2) and (6) Jafa uses "we can..." or "they can..." and in line (11) Delm uses "they may..."), "if-clauses" as polite requests, asking others' ideas, and thanking each other for their helps (Grice, 1975) all are signs of the institute teachers' work solidarity and attention to self, compared with the public school teachers' uses of third person pronouns, that is, "he" and "they" together with their direct dramatic talk with less mitigators and softeners which are all signs of their attention to others' sayings and doings outside themselves and their dispute figured world against authorities. Also they express their feelings by using personal discourse markers as a bonding device to make their interpersonal relationships stronger. In lines (9) and (15) Delm says "I want to make it *really* different" or "...*good idea*, thank you very much". In this excerpt the institute teachers also use technical language related to their English language teaching career. In line (13) Delm says "I want to push them (students) into their fidelities and then through that, *inductively*, teach this grammar". Here, Delm explicitly mentions the inductive method of teaching grammar within the students' real lives. Or in lines (11) and (12) Delm and Jafa talk and exchange ideas about the students' lectures on grammar points "...they may speak mechanical and in school-time" "I guess they memorize it". These and others in the data show their knowledge-based technical talks and their work success figured world. One noticeable thing in most of the institute video-recordings is that they always have their textbooks at hands and repeatedly refer to and discuss its different points which they are going to teach in their classes. As if the books are their partners and interlocutors. They are the "tools" (Jaworski & Coupland, 1999) of their identity makers. In line (1), as Delm turns over the pages of the Headway textbook, he requests Jafa about giving practical ideas to make the teaching point interesting. They also bend their bodies over the textbook as they discuss on its points; they use even their bodies as their identity builders.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The public school teachers in our data use language to fashion their identities in a way that is attached to a world of everyday social and dialogic interaction. But, the English language institute teachers use language to construct their identities in a way that detach themselves from everyday social interaction and orient more towards their personal work experiences and achievements defined by the norms of their institution. In addition, the institute teachers use the abstract language of rational argumentation to defer their quite personal interests and fears, whereas the school teachers much more commonly use a personalized narrative language to encode their values, interests, and themes. One way, among many, to begin to get at how the school and the institute teachers build different socially situated identities in language is to look at when they refer to themselves by speaking in the first person as “I”. We call these “I-statements” (Gee, 2010). We categorize different I-statements in terms of the type of predicate or “type of processes” (Halliday, 1994) that accompanies “I”, that is, in terms of what sort of thing the teacher says about him or herself. We will consider the following kinds of I-statements: Cognitive statements, Affective statements, State and Action statements, Ability and Constraint statements, Achievement statements.

TABLE 1.  
DISTRIBUTION OF I-STATEMENTS IN TEACHERS’ TALKS

Category	Public school teachers			Language institute teachers		
	Behi	Zein	Moha	Delm	Aliz	Jafa
Category(A)						
Affective	3	3	13	9	14	5
Ability/Constraint	0	3	0	7	16	26
State/Action	91	74	74	30	21	26
Sub- total(A)	<b>94</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>87</b>	46	51	57
Category(B)						
Cognitive	6	20	13	36	30	32
Achievement	0	0	0	18	19	11
Sub- total(B)	6	20	13	<b>54</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>43</b>

Table 1 above shows the distribution of different types of I- statements in terms of the number of each type out of the total number of I- statements the teacher has used in his or her whole talk in our data. In Table 1 I have sub- totaled and categorized the scores for Affective, Ability- Constraint, and State- Action I- statements, on the one hand, and the scores for Cognitive and Achievement I- statements, on the other. I call the first combination Category (A) and the second, Category (B). When we make such combination, we find something interesting and suggestive. The school teachers are high in category (A) and low in Category (B), while the institute teachers are low in A and high in B. It shows that Behi, Zein, and Moha have used the Category (A) I-statements **94, 80, 87** times, whereas Delm, Aliz, and Jafa have used Category (B) I-statements **54, 49, and 43** times, respectively. One other indication that the school teachers are more focused on the world of interaction than the institute teachers is the fact that they narrativize far more than the institute teachers. The school teachers dramatize within their narrations, i.e., they talk both their own turns and the others’ and talk about the concrete details of what the others said or done. The institute teachers devote most of their talks to negotiation, mentoring each other, assessments (of self and others), evaluations, and viewpoint giving and argumentative talk about their own career as English language teachers. The percentage of lines in each teacher’s transcript of his or her whole talk involved in narrative is given in Table 2 below (line here means micro-line, basically clauses or tone units).

TABLE 2.  
PERCENTAGE OF NARRATIVE LINES USED IN TWO CONTEXTS

Type of lines	Public school teachers			Language institute teachers		
	Behi	Zein	Moha	Delm	Aliz	Jafa
Argument	334	241	143	153	186	43
Narrative	196	71	175	30	43	8
Total numbers	530	312	318	183	229	51
Narrative(Percentage)	<b>34</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>16</b>

Building different identities in language always implicates different social languages, since it is in and through different social languages embedded in different discourses, that we enact, perform, and recognize different socially situated identities. The school teachers engage in narrative much more than do the institute teachers. As Table 2 shows, Behi, Zein, and Moha have used narrative lines **34, 23, and 55** percent out of their total number of their talks, respectively, but this is **16, 19, and 16** percent for Delm, Aliz, and Jafa. And this is part of the difference between the distinctive social languages the teachers are using in their talks. The institute teachers are focused on knowledge claims, assessment, evaluation, the movement towards achievement, and the relationship between the present and the future. The school teachers are focused on social, physical, and dialogic interactions. It is important to see that these teachers not only build different socially situated identities in language, they also build different worlds. The school teachers make “the material world” (Halliday’s Transitivity System, 1994) and the institute teachers “the world of abstracts and institutions”, which mean different things. The institute teachers’ language appears more technical and professional in large part because they distance themselves from everyday social interaction, and mediate everything they say through

their relationship to achievement and success in their work. They sometimes defer their material interests with abstract argumentative talk in which they fail to directly mention their own personal interests and concerns.

The school teachers use past-tense verbs more than present and future tenses, whereas the institute teachers use present and future verbs more than past tenses. This shows that the school teachers live in the past with what has happened and expired, but the institute teachers live in the present and desire for the future success in their career.

TABLE 3.  
THE PERCENTAGE OF VERB TENSES USED IN THE TWO CONTEXTS

Verb Tenses	Public school teachers			Language institute teachers		
	Behi	Zein	Moha	Delm	Aliz	Jafa
Present	30	11	7	89	124	22
Future	10	4	11	25	50	10
Past	110	40	115	39	48	9
Total	150	55	133	153	222	41
Present & Future Total	40	15	18	114	174	32
Present & Future (Percentage)	27	27	14	75	78	78
Past (Percentage)	73	73	86	25	22	22

As Table 3 shows, Behi, Zein, and Moha have used past-tense verbs **73**, **73**, and **86** percent of the total numbers of the verbs, respectively, whereas Delm, Aliz, and Jafa have used present and future verbs **75**, **78**, and **78** percent. The school teachers' uses of past-tense verbs show their interactional and dispute figured world, whereas the institute teachers' extensive uses of present and future verbs are the signs of their work and success figured world and their desires for the future success and achievement.

In this study we found that the analysis of the argument part and the narrative part of the school teachers' talks can mutually support each other, helping us to achieve validity in terms of criteria like coverage and convergence, as well as linguistic details, as we draw on a variety of different aspects of language. For this, first step is to look across the whole talks for themes, motifs, or "frames" (Goffman, 1974) that collocate with each other, that is, themes, images, motifs, or "macro-structures" (van Dijk, 1980) that seem to go together. Such related themes connect diverse parts of the talks together and give it a certain overall coherence, texture, "structure" (van Dijk, 1997). Using these motifs and themes, we form claims about some of their situated meanings and figured worlds, claims that we can then check by further consultation of different parts of the data.

As Table 4 below shows, school teachers use the pronouns: he, she, they, him, her, and them (Category A) more than the pronouns: we, you, and us (Category B). But the institute teachers use Category (B) more than Category (A).

TABLE 4.  
THE PERCENTAGE OF PRONOUNS USED IN THE TWO CONTEXTS

Pronouns	Public school teachers			Language institute teachers		
	Behi	Zein	Moha	Delm	Aliz	Jafa
Category(A) (he, she, they, him, her, them)	66	20	58	20	70	11
Category(B) (we, you, us)	13	3	7	42	70	14
Total	79	23	65	62	140	25
Percentage of Category(A)	84	87	89	32	50	44
Percentage of Category(B)	16	13	11	68	50	56

The percentage of Category (A) for Behi, Zein, and Moha are **84**, **87**, and **89**, respectively. And the percentage of Category (B) for Delm, Aliz, and Jafa are **68**, **50**, and **56**. This shows that the school teachers pay more attention to outside themselves and their group members, whereas the institute teachers pay attention to their work and their in-group members. Also, it is a sign of the school teachers' disalignment and the institute teachers' alignment among group members.

In Table 5 below, it is depicted that the school teachers use boosters (e.g. 'definitely', 'I'm sure', etc., as interpersonal certainty markers) more than hedgings (e.g. 'maybe', 'nearly', 'I think', etc., as interpersonal uncertainty markers).

TABLE 5.  
THE PERCENTAGE OF HEDGINGS AND BOOSTERS USED IN THE TWO CONTEXTS

Markers	Public school teachers			Language institute teachers		
	Behi	Zein	Moha	Delm	Aliz	Jafa
Hedgings	4	4	2	15	43	7
Boosters	13	9	8	8	20	4
Total	17	13	10	23	63	11
Hedging Percentage	24	31	20	65	68	64
Booster Percentage	76	69	80	35	32	36

Percentage of boosters out of the total numbers of these two interpersonal markers used by Behi, Zein, and Moha are **76**, **69**, and **80** percent, respectively. And percentage of hedgings used by Delm, Aliz, and Jafa are **65**, **68**, and **64**. This shows the school teachers' interactional, unacademic, and everyday practical knowledge, but the institute teachers'

rational, academic, and knowledge-based views of the realities.. As the Table 6 below shows, in school teachers' talks we can discern a specific schematic and cyclical move structure. CARS is a suitable move model for long and more complicated genres like our school teachers' move patterns. In Move 1, the school teachers establish a territory of problem: social, political, educational, economic, etc. In Move 2, they establish a Niche and relate that problem to something outside themselves. In Move 3, they bring examples by narratives and story-telling to render a positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation to occupy the Niche. This process occurs over and over and takes a cyclical shape. This move structure is common both in overall school talk and in narratives.

TABLE 6.  
SCHEMATIC MOVE-STRUCTURES IN THE TEACHERS' TALKS IN THE TWO CONTEXTS

School teachers(cyclical move structure)		Institute teachers(linear move structure)	
argument		negotiation	
+ argument		+ negotiation	
+ narrative (1)		+ negotiation	
+ argument		+ negotiation	
+ argument		+ negotiation	
+ narrative (2)		+ negotiation	
.		.	
etc.		decision	
(endless)		(end)	

Narratives are repeatedly told between argument turns. This cycle goes on and on. The function of this move structure is demeaning and downplaying the authorities. The institute English teachers have a specific and linear move structure which is realized by a combination of linguistic, paralinguistic, and non-linguistic devices, features, and resources. In Move 1, they put forward a work-related problem like “a teaching point” from their textbook. In Move 2, they negotiate and give their own viewpoints about the problem one by one and with a relatively short turns. In Move 3, they try to reach at some results. In Move 4, they try to come to a decision about the problem.

IV. CONCLUSION

After analyzing the talks of the two groups of teachers in different levels of discourse, i.e., functional linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural levels, and after working on different speech patterns, features, and resources of the talks, it was depicted that the school teachers, within a heterogeneous context and with different teachers teaching in different subject areas, have an interactional and dispute figured-world. They are challenging the authorities who are thought to be the causes of most of the social, political, and cultural problems in their town. The institute teachers, within a homogeneous context and with the same teachers teaching only English language, have a rational, work, and success figured-world. They are mainly dealing with their own language teaching career. These discourses manifested themselves in their actual behavior in reality of “classrooms” (Cots, 1995). In school teachers' culture a good teacher is one who controls and directs learners and who maintains a respectful distance between the teacher and the learners. Learners are the more or less passive recipients of the teacher's expertise. Teaching is viewed as a teacher-controlled and -directed process. In institute teachers' culture the teacher is viewed more as a facilitator. The ability to form close interpersonal relations with students is highly valued, and there is a strong emphasis on individual learner creativity and independent learning. Students are encouraged to question and challenge what the teacher says. The school teachers choose more bureaucratic and restricted teaching approach, while the institute teachers prefer more democratic and dialogic way. The outcomes of this study can be used in teacher education courses (both for English language teachers and other teachers in general) to transform their discourses to improve their teaching career and to make it more successful and effective. Within these courses teachers become familiar with discourse and its influence on teaching and learning processes.

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# The Effect of Task Frequency on EFL Speaking Ability Acquisition

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**Abstract**—Psychological researches indicate that human attention resources are rather limited. Accordingly it proves to be very hard for learners to simultaneously attend to both content and form in L2 learning. This study aims to examine the effects of task frequency on EFL speaking ability acquisition. Both instant test and delayed tests were given. 20 sophomores of Chinese English majors repeatedly retold the same story and the material was chosen from the national TEM4 (Test for English Majors-Band 4), a proficiency English test for Chinese undergraduates. It was found that participants' attention was gradually shifted from content to form so that the balance development of both content and form could be achieved in participants' EFL speaking ability acquisition. In addition, participants also made correspondent progress in various linguistic forms such as fluency, accuracy and complexity. The results revealed the positive effect of task frequency on appropriate use of attention resources and explored the effective means to the balance development of various aspects in linguistic content and form. There are important implications for the results.

**Index Terms**—effect of task frequency, speaking ability, content, form, attention resources

## I. INTRODUCTION

Human ability of dealing with information is somewhat limited. When people try to finish a complicated task, such as processing linguistic information, the completion of part of the task may require large amount of attention. Hence it is rather hard for their limited attention resources to attend to the other parts of the task and thus affect their overall performance (Carroll, 1999, p.54).

VanPatten (2004) once pointed out that it required large amount of attention resources to cope with linguistic input. Although form and content were not completely contradictory to each other, both of them did compete with each other with respect to the allocation of attention resources. In most cases, content prevailed. In other words, language learners firstly attended to the content of the information and then to the form only when their linguistic competence had already been gradually improved and even automated.

Similarly, Skehan (1998, p.73) believed that linguistic output also required large amount of attention resources and that to put too much emphasis on certain aspect of language expression would lead to the lack of other aspects. Fluency, accuracy and complexity were all the ideal goals of language learning and development, but they often competed with each other for attention resources in real communication so that they could not be developed simultaneously.

The limitation of human attention resources limits the overall development of learners' language ability and affects the realization of the ultimate goal for language learning. Skehan (ibid, p.43) suggested that the limitation of attention resources might result in the imbalance of language ability development, which would ultimately prevent inter-language from development and variation. It might be helpful for learners' sustainable development of language competence to pay sufficient attention to linguistic form. Accordingly it proves to be a great challenge and of paramount significance for language educators to make effective use of the limited attention resources and lead learners' attention to the ideal goal that is favorable for the development of their language ability.

Skehan (1998) and Bygate (1999) pointed out that task frequency was similar to pre-task planning and that each repetition could be regarded as planning for the next task. Planning could help learners become familiar with their learning tasks and reduce the pressure of processing instant information so as to attract more attention to realize the overall development of various aspects in their language ability.

The task frequency referred to in this research is a variation of frequency effects, namely the role of repeated contact and practice in language learning. Discussions about frequency effects have been one of the focuses in the field of L2 acquisition researches in recent years. According to the frequency theory, repetition frequency and amount of contact are the significant necessities for language learning (Ellis, 2008; Ellis & Collins, 2009; Wang 2012). Ellis (2002, p.144) once pointed out that frequency was the key factor for language learning and that good command of language knowledge did not depend on the abstract grammar rules but on the recollection of large amount of language instances that learners had had contact with.

Although the topic of frequency has been touched upon for a period of time, there have been no sufficient empirical researches that are relevant to the topic, in particular within China. Consequently this study intends to focus on the effect of task frequency on the overall development of Chinese university students' EFL speaking ability so as to

illustrate the effective role of task frequency in the allocation of attention resources.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Outside China there have been some empirical researches which touched upon the effect of task frequency on the allocation of attention resources. In Bygate's (1996) study, a participant retold the same story twice with his speaking ability evaluated by complexity, accuracy and fluency. Result indicated that the second repetition had been greatly improved regarding the overall performance and the three norms respectively.

Bygate (1999) increased the sample to 32 participants who finished retelling and dialogue tasks respectively. Pretest and posttest were compared and it was found that repetition could help learners make significant progress in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Based on the previous two researches, Bygate (ibid, p. 43) confirmed the positive effect of task frequency on the overall language ability. He observed that repetition of the same task could help learners make better use of the limited attention resources and make it possible for them to improve their overall speaking ability.

Gass et al. (1999) also confirmed the positive effect of frequency task on the overall performance of speaking ability. In his study, 103 participants were divided into three groups. The two experiment groups respectively retold the same story as well as different stories three times while the controlled group did not have to finish such repetition tasks. Results indicated that the experiment group who repeated retelling the same story outperformed the other two groups with respect to both the overall performance of speaking ability and the accuracy of syntax and the complexity of lexicon. Gass et al. (ibid., p.573) concluded that frequency task could be of help to learners to shift their attention since the shift of attention from linguistic content to form was favorable for the ultimate success of language learning.

In comparison, there have been much fewer relevant researches within China. Zhou (2006) took 16 sophomores of English majors as participants who were offered different input and output task frequency, or each group listened and retold the same story several times. Results revealed that both input and output task frequency proved to be helpful to the story retelling with respect to the content as well as the accuracy, frequency and complexity of the language.

From the above review it can be concluded that there have not been sufficient researches on the relationship between task frequency effect and speaking ability and that there are obvious drawbacks in current relevant studies which illustrated the help of repeated tasks to various aspects of linguistic form in learners' speaking ability. As for whether repetition can be of help to content, there have been no detailed discussions except in Zhou's (2006). According to the psychological theories on the processing of language information (Vanpatten, 2004; Carroll, 1999; Leow, Hsieh & Moreno, 2008), in the processing of L2 information, linguistic content and form compete with each other for attention, affect and restrict each other. Without either of them, it would be impossible to become aware of the whole process of L2 learning. Therefore there is need to take both of them into consideration.

What is more, the previous researches merely focused on the instant effect of repeated tasks, or the progress of language ability that was immediately elicited by repetition. The point is that whether the instant effect brought about by repeated tasks can be maintained some time later is of great significance for teaching practice and being well aware of task frequency. At any rate, the objective of teaching lies in the effect of task frequency on sustainable development of language ability, instead of the temporary progress or variation.

In view of the above, this study intends not only to examine task frequency effect on various aspects of language form but also to take both content and form into consideration, or focus on how repetition affects learners' overall performance of speaking ability. Research on the delayed effect may help realize the practical significance of repeated tasks for language teaching. Simultaneously detailed description of various variations in learners' speaking ability may reveal or illustrate the allocation and shift of learners' attention so as to deepen our understanding of the process of EFL oral expression and contribute to psycholinguistic researches on the allocation of attention resources.

## III. METHODS

### A. Questions

This research mainly discusses about the effect of task frequency on EFL overall speaking ability and the allocation of attention resources. The specific questions include the following three:

- (1) In which aspects does the instant effect of task frequency affect learners' EFL speaking ability?
- (2) Can the task frequency effect be maintained until some time later?
- (3) How does task frequency effect affect the allocation of attention resources?

### B. Participants

Participants in this research were 20 sophomores from a Chinese provincial university with the average age of 19.5, five males and 15 females. From the pretest it could be seen that their English speaking ability was of intermediate level and there was no significant difference between them ( $P > 0.05$ ).

### C. Material

The task involved in this research was story retelling or repetition and the material was chosen from the national

TEM4 (Test for English Majors-Band 4), a proficiency English test for Chinese undergraduates. The story was about the fantastic experience that Mr. Smith had had when he was on business and stopped at a hotel, covering 355 words, read aloud and recorded by native speakers of English. When listening to the story, participants were allowed to take notes and when retelling the story, they were able to refer to the notes. In addition, there was no limitation to the time for the repetition.

#### D. Data Collection

Data collection was not finished at a time. For the first time, 20 students were recorded in the sound lab one by one. They listened to the story once, retold, then listened to it and repeated it once again. The second data collection was done two weeks later. The participants listened to the same story and retold it once. In the data collections, 8 students via random sampling were interviewed after they had finished the story repetition. All the retelling and interviews were recorded, transcribed and analyzed.

#### E. Data Analysis

The data analysis in this research included analysis of content and form for each story repetition. The former referred to the idea units that participants could accurately recall. According to Kroll's (1977) definition of idea units (quoted in Foster, Tonkyn & Wigglesworth, 2000, p.358-360), the researcher divided the original story into 54 idea units. If a student could precisely retold an idea unit (the meaning was clear and grammar errors were not counted), he obtained 1 point. If he could only partly retold an idea unit, he got 0.5 point. If the expression was totally wrong, he got a zero.

This research refined linguistic form into fluency, accuracy and complexity (Skehan, 1998). Fluency was measured by speaking speed, namely the ratio of total syllables (after rejection), and the time (second) required for the production of the sample, and the result was multiplied by 60, denoting the syllable number produced per minute. The rejected syllables were not of help to understanding the elements of verbal meaning, including repair and repetition of phrases, words, syllables and filled pauses. As for the measurement of accuracy, this research used error-free T-units/T-units. Error types included grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, and complexity consisted of syntax and vocabulary. The complexity of syntax was measured by clauses/T-units while variety of vocabulary by type-token ratio.

Each repetition was further compared after being analyzed in terms of content and form so as to examine the instant as well as the delayed effect on task frequency.

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### A. Variation of Overall Speaking Ability

With the repeated task, participants' overall speaking ability varied in a sense. The following discusses about how task frequency affected the instant effect on learners' speaking ability as well as the delayed one two weeks later.

##### 1. Instant effect of task frequency

Table 1 listed the variations of various aspects in learners' speaking ability in the instant test, among them retelling 1 meant the repetition for the first time and retelling 2 referred to the instant repetition after the first one (see table 1).

From table 1 the instant effect of task frequency on participants' speaking ability can be clearly seen. After the repeated retelling, students' speaking ability was somewhat improved in both content and form, indicating the positive effect of task frequency on learners' overall language ability and validated the hypothesis that task frequency promoted the development of inter-language (Skehan, 1998; Bygate, 1999).

TABLE 1  
INSTANT EFFECT OF TASK FREQUENCY ON LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

Indexes	Retelling 1	Retelling 2	Wilcoxon Test		
			Z	Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)	
Idea Units	27.23	34.03	-3.848	.000	
Fluency	123.55	126.36	-1.812	.070	
Accuracy(%)	49.44	50.46	-1.836	.066	
Complexity	Syntax	1.26	1.28	-1.937	.053
	Vocabulary (%)	39.11	40.09	-1.371	.171

Note: The data listed in table 1 refers to the mean scores for the 20 participants and so does that in table 2 and 3.

From the comparison between content and form in their different variations, it could be found that idea units increased more significantly (Sig. <.05). For the first retelling, participants could only retold half of the original story (27/54) while for the second one, idea units increased about 25%, indicating the significant improvement. The progress mainly lied in the grasp of details. When listening for the first time, students could only get the main idea and failed to obtain the details. One of the students said, "If the whole story is regarded as 100%, I could only get 70% for the first time. So for the second time I just focused on the rest 30% and got 20%. For example, for the first time I simply retold that Mr. Smith liked to live in the hotel, and then 'the hotel is very cheap and clean'. For the second time I got the name of the hotel or 'Grand Hotel' and I got to know that the decoration aimed to 'make effort to live up to its name.'"

For the second retelling, although participants could grasp the content of the story more precisely and in more details, they failed to make obvious progress in form so that all the variations of indexes for linguistic form were not significant



(Sig.>.05). Obviously when listening and retelling repeatedly, students' attention mostly and consciously was focused on repairing the missed details and contents that they were not sure of. A student said that she merely got the main idea for the first listening and for the second listening she attended to the details that she had failed to notice so as to be able to retell the story more precisely. Another student reported that when retelling for the second time, he did not notice the tenses, the singular forms of pronouns such as 'he' or 'she', and set expressions, etc. and that he simply intended to make up for the content which he missed the first time he retold so that he failed to attend to grammar.

## 2. Delayed effect of task frequency

The delayed effect of task frequency can be seen from the comparison between retelling 2 and 3 in table 2. Retelling 2 referred to the instant repetition of the first retelling in table 1 while retelling 3 meant the second repetition two weeks later (see table 2).

TABLE 2  
DELAYED EFFECT OF TASK FREQUENCY ON LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

Indexes	Retelling 2	Retelling 3	Wilcoxon Test		
			Z	Asymp.Sig.(2-tailed)	
Idea Units	34.03	34.25	-1.394	.163	
Fluency	126.36	142.50	-3.923	.000	
Accuracy(%)	50.46	63.64	-3.923	.000	
Complexity	Syntax	1.28	1.46	-3.826	.000
	Vocabulary (%)	40.09	41.40	-2.479	.013

Table 2 revealed that task frequency effect still worked two weeks later. In other words students could not only maintain the progress but also make greater progress in their speaking ability, in particular in linguistic form.

From table 2 it can be seen that the increase of idea units were no longer significant (Sig. = .163 > .05), indicating that students' improvement in content retelling was not significant after one repetition and the increase for idea units was only about .22 points. When interviewed, a student mentioned that when listening to the story, the plot seemed to be familiar to her, so she did not intend to notice the details or write down everything that she had listened to since she had already got most of the content.

In contrast, progress in linguistic form proved to be significant. Compared with the first instant retelling, all the variations of indexes for the delayed second retelling was significant in linguistic form (Sig. < .05). As for fluency, syllables increased from 126 to 142, which could be considered as the result of language automation (Anderson, 1982, 1989, 1992). As repetition increased, information processing did not require intentional effort or large amount of attention resources any more so that the task would be finished in shorter time and more easily. The previous researches also confirmed the positive effect of task frequency on fluency (Zhang, 2010). This research further supported Zhang's conclusion. When interviewed, students claimed that based on the previous two weeks' practice, they could be able to organize the story better, and speak faster and more fluently.

Participants made significant progress not only in fluency, but also in accuracy (Sig. = .000). Via the two outputs and the third output two weeks later, students came to realize their linguistic errors in retelling and make correspondent correction. The improvement of accuracy absolutely conformed to Swain's (1985) output hypothesis which pointed out that output could increase learners' attention to the accuracy of linguistic form. A student mentioned that she did not do it very well in the first retelling, failed to notice tenses, set expressions, merely wanted to retell it and that two weeks later she intended to pay special attention to tenses, pronouns and try to do it better. Another student noticed the language points in more details. She said that when listening, she noticed that it was mainly the past tense used in the story and that she planned to use this tense in her retelling. It was evident that after repeated output, students realized their own problems and the gap between their retelling and the original story and hoped to intentionally notice the points that they had neglected, when being offered another chance to receive input. In addition, they claimed to make correspondent adjustments and improve the accuracy in their spoken English if they were given a second chance to output.

In addition to the significant progress in fluency and accuracy, the variation of complexity was also obvious. The complexity of syntax was greatly increased, the ratio of subordinate clauses and T-units increased from 1.28 to 1.46, indicating that participants had already began to notice the expressions and sentence structures in the original story and tried to use them in their own retelling. A student said that when she listened to the story once again, she noticed the expressions in it so that she could directly say them in her own retelling and need not think hard how to express them, thus she would not make any mistakes or speak arbitrarily. Another student said that he had noticed the sentence patterns, wrote them down and directly used them in his own retelling. Obviously, students not only attended to the expressions of content but also how to express them more effectively.

Although the variation of vocabulary complexity was statistically significant, but not as significant as syntax complexity. In other words, the type-token ratio increased from 40.9% to 41.40%, merely 1.31% more than previously. Although some students reported that they had noticed the words and expressions in the original story, and that the total number of types they used increased, the number of tokens would increase more quickly as the content of the story increased. In other words, compared with the increase of tokens, the increase of the number of types became unimportant. Hence the variation of the type-token ratio was accordingly not that significant. After all participants had

been repeating the same story whose content involved limited vocabulary, and impossibly the words that had nothing to do with the story itself. Therefore the variation range was comparatively limited.

### B. Adjustment of Attention

After the two repetitions which had two week's interval, students' speaking ability was improved in all aspects. Table 3 summarized the variations elicited by task frequency effect (see table 3).

TABLE 3  
TOTAL EFFECT OF TASK FREQUENCY ON LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

Indexes	Retelling 1	Retelling 2	Retelling 3	Friedman Test		
				Chi-square	Asymp. Sig.	
Idea Units	27.23	34.03	34.25	27.90	.000	
Fluency	123.55	126.36	142.50	30.90	.000	
Accuracy(%)	49.44	50.46	63.64	32.43	.000	
Complexity	Syntax	1.26	1.28	1.46	32.64	.000
	Vocabulary (%)	39.11	40.09	41.40	10.70	.005

It should be noted that task frequency produced positive effect on the improvement of learners' overall speaking ability. After the two repetitions, participants made significant progress in content as well as in linguistic form for their oral expressions so that their overall speaking ability was improved and all the indexes used for the evaluation of speaking ability varied significantly (Sig.<.05).

When the students tried to retell the story for the first time, their oral English was not only simple in content, but also broken, incoherent and had much room for improvement in linguistic form. As for fluency, there were many pauses, repetitions and repairs. For linguistic form, the accuracy was not ideal, the tenses for subjects and subordinate clauses did not accord with each other, correspondence between subject and predicate in gender, number and case was not taken into account. In addition, the use of syntax and vocabulary was also simple and even not sufficiently accurate. Nevertheless, after two repetitions, content became more detailed and coherent. What's more, participants made significant progress in linguistic form. They spoke more fluently and more accurately with less pauses, repetitions or grammar errors. At the same time, the sentence structures and words were more accurate and idiomatic.

The overall progress in learners' speaking ability was due to appropriate allocation and adjustment of attention. From the comparison between instant effect and delayed one, it could be clearly seen that students' attention resources shifted from content to linguistic form. Vanpatten (2004) pointed out that in the competition between content and form, language learners firstly noticed the content of information. From table 3, it could be found that when students retold the story for the second time, their attention was mainly focused on the expression of content, which was the reason why they made fast and significant progress in idea units. Comparatively, their progress in linguistic form was not obvious. However, from the second retelling to the later third retelling, students made more significant progress than before in linguistic form but much slower progress in content. Accordingly only when their attention resources were partly relieved from the content after repeated retelling would the students attach sufficient importance to linguistic form and make correspondent progress.

In the interviews, students also clearly described the shift and adjustment of their attention from content to form. A student mentioned that at the very beginning, due to the limited attention, it was impossible for her to pay attention to both content and form. Via repeated retelling, learners gradually become familiar with the task content and the pressure of online information processing began to be relieved so as to attract more attention for learners to develop their overall linguistic ability. A student said, 'When I did it for the first time, I merely grasped the main idea. But for the second time I focused on the words, phrases and sentences structures, totally different from the first time.' 'It seemed to be easier for the second time, since I paid special attention to what I had missed previously. I took more detailed notes, became more familiar with the story and retold it more fluently and accurately.' It was obvious that repetition offered students opportunities to make the most out of their attention resources and adjust them so as to attend to various aspects of spoken English and achieve the balance and coordinate development of the language.

## V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

From the above discussion and analysis, the following conclusions can be arrived at. *Firstly*, the instant effect of task frequency on speaking ability lied in the progress of content retelling. *Secondly*, the delayed effect of task frequency on speaking ability was mainly in the progress of linguistic form. *Thirdly*, from comparison between the instant effect and the delayed one, it could be found that learners' attention had been shifted from content to linguistic form and their overall speaking ability had been improved.

This research indicated the competition between content and form in the language information processing and the effectiveness of repeated task as a solution to the contradiction. Results revealed that task frequency might produce positive effect on the effective allocation of attention resources, promote the shift of attention from content to linguistic form and achieve the perfect uniformity between the two so as to achieve the ultimate goal of language development.

As far as language teaching is concerned, repetition has been an important and necessary phase (Cook, 1994, p.133). Traditional teaching method laid emphasis on the repetition and strengthening of tasks. With the rise of contemporary

communicative teaching method, language teachers began to doubt and give up the traditional concept. The result of this research confirmed the effectiveness of task frequency effect on the improvement of overall speaking ability. Hence language teachers ought to be well aware of the positive effect of task frequency on language teaching, make the most out of teaching resources and offer students opportunities of practicing and strengthening language knowledge in an all-around way and by all means. Only in this way can language knowledge that has been taught to them be internalized and utilized.

It ought to be noted that due to the small sample from the same university, it should be further validated whether the result of this research was representative or not.

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# The Comparison of the Prepositions /به:be/ in Persian and /په:pa/ in Balochi<sup>1</sup>

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**Abstract**—One of the most widely-used prepositions, /be/ in Persian and /pa/ in Balochi, in the two Iranian languages of Persian and Balochi was phonologically and functionally (morphologically, syntactically, and semantically) studied in the present research. The methodology of research was based on a comparative-descriptive manner. It was found that Balochi, rather than Persian, has better preserved the older forms of the word by the retention of the phonemes /p/ and /a/. Functionally speaking, there were 24 cases of similarities against 10 cases of differences from a total of 34 cases in a synchronic study (almost 70% of similarities vs. 30% differences respectively). Not only can the results be used to provide a pattern for the comparison of other words of the two languages in order to provide language maps, educational comparative grammars, and teaching these languages; but they reveal that a revision is necessary in the typology system of Balochi dialects; especially for the dialects neighboring Persian. It means avoiding absolute classifying of all Balochi dialects as west-northern Iranian; since some of these dialects display many characteristics of west-southern Iranian languages as well.

**Index Terms**—grammar, Iranian languages, Persian, Balochi, preposition, language typology

## I. INTRODUCTION

Typologically, both Persian and Balochi fall into the western group of Iranian languages in the primary classification. In the secondary classification, Persian is categorized under the west-southern and Balochi under the west-northern subgroups<sup>2</sup>. Being close relatives, these two Iranian languages have similarities and differences which can be studied from different aspects.

Based on the premise that every word has its own history and a certain word might change into different forms and meanings through the passage of time, one of the most prominent Iranian prepositions, /be/ in Persian and /pa/ in Balochi, which originates from Proto-Iranian language, is compared in this article, from *phonemic* and *functional* aspects.

At the present time, Persian is the most well-known member of the Iranian languages. Many Iranian and non-Iranian languages have already been compared with Persian based on different aspects. Since the linguistic comparison of each Iranian language with Persian can contribute to the comparative study of other Iranian languages, the above mentioned common preposition is compared in these two Iranian languages, Persian being one of them, based on this certain purpose.

Abolghasemi (2008) argues about the prepositions in Proto-Iranian Languages as “Proto-Iranian prepositions have agentive functions and each can almost be the agents of more than one case; and they come either before or after their own complements”(p. 28). He adds “Prepositions appear either in attributive or predicative positions of their complements in Middle Persian. In Dari Persian, ‘رأ’<sup>3</sup> is always in predicative position. Other prepositions come almost in attributive position” (ibid: 285).<sup>4</sup>

Regarding prepositions in Dari Persian, Meshkatoddini (1994) argues that “prepositions are special syntactic elements which usually appear only in front of the noun phrases in different syntactic cases except for the nouns in nominative, accusative, and predicative cases. These three syntactic cases define their syntactic structures with other syntactic elements. The grammatical relationship of the complement and the adverbial complement constituents are especially defined by the use of the prepositional phrases” (p. 221).

In what is observed today of such Iranian languages as Persian and Balochi, the legacy of the older Iranian languages seems to be much preserved, especially, in regards of prepositions. In other words, even today, each preposition, especially the above-mentioned one, is used in more than one case.

In new Persian and Balochi languages, the preposition ‘be/pa’ is a high-currently used preposition and appears as a complement agent or a part of a collocation with many other linguistic elements in initial or mid-positions.

<sup>1</sup> - Hereafter, through the article, only the transcribed forms of these two prepositions as /be/ and /pa/ are used.

<sup>2</sup> - The findings of this research and of some previous studies partly show that Balochi contains some of the characteristics of the Eastern and West-southern Iranian languages also. For more information, see (Jahani, 2001, p. 59).

<sup>3</sup> - ‘رأ’ as a postposition in Dari Persian is the agent of direct object.

<sup>4</sup> - Persian language has passed three steps in its historical course as Old, Middle, and New(Dari) Persian.

It is not possible to compare this preposition between these two languages diachronically, since there is a wealth of historical documents for Persian from Old to New Persian; whereas, Balochi is deprived of such an advantage. Consequently, a synchronic and comparative study of New Persian and Balochi is conducted in this article<sup>5</sup>.

The research can partly answer the following questions: 1) to what extent does this Iranian preposition in the two languages have functional similarities and have preserved the common legacy of the past? 2) How much functional differences does this Iranian preposition have in the two languages, and how wide is the gap left between them? 3) Does this study help providing independent or comparative grammar of Persian and Balochi languages, and the language typology maps of these two Iranian languages?

## II. COMPARISON

### A. Phonemic Comparison of 'be/pa' between Persian and Balochi

In some Old Iranian languages and the Sanskrit, the preposition appears in the following forms: “ *patiy* in Old Persian, *paiti* in Avestan, *pad* in Middle Persian, and *prāti* in Sanskrit ” (Hasandoost, 2004, p. 220).

As previously mentioned, this preposition is realized as /**be**/ in Persian and /**pa**/ in Balochi, respectively. A glance at the above documents reveals that Balochi has better preserved the Old Iranian phonemes of the word by the retention of the phonemes /**p**/ and /**a**/ than the existing Persian counterpart phonemes /**b**/ and /**e**/.

It is worth mentioning that in some of the Balochi dialects, especially those neighboring Persian, including Roodbari<sup>6</sup>, Bashagardi, Jaski, Lashari, Fanooji, Bazmani, and some others, the phoneme /**p**/ has also changed to /**b**/ and the preposition represents as /**ba**/. In addition, some rare cases of /**pa**/ forms can be heard as /**par**/, /**bar**/, and /**be**/ in some Balochi dialects.

### B. Functional Comparison of 'be/pa' between Persian and Balochi

#### 1. the application of /be/ in Persian Grammar

Here, firstly the applications of /be/ in three works on new Persian including *Persian Grammar* by M.J.Shari'at, *Persian Grammar* by M. Meshkatoddini, and *The Sokhan Great Dictionary* under the supervision of Hassan Anvari are presented.

Shari'at maintains that the preposition /be/ bears such meanings as *time, place, swear, arguing or causality, simile, companionship, helping, confrontation, quantity, direction, for, agreeing, purpose, order, a sign of object, and a start for talk* (a total of 15 cases) in New Persian. At times in the literature of the past, he adds, the preposition goes also hand in hand with such other words as /**andar**/ and /**andarūn**/ as in the example “ *be šokr andarāš mazīd-e ne'mat*<sup>7</sup>: With his thanks, benefits increase ” (Shari'at, 1992, p. 316-17).

Meshkatoddini (1994) states that the preposition /be/ denotes such grammatical relations as *complement and adverbial complement*, and the following meanings: *indirect object, swear, state, instead of, changing and exchanging, price, direction/side, amount/size, intention/aim, order, companionship, confrontation, result, destination*, (a total of 15 cases) in New Persian (p. 223-4). Some of these items are also exemplified by the author.

In *The Sokhan Great Dictionary* (2002), on pages 1071-2, a number of 29 cases along with examples are cited for the application of the preposition /be/ in New Persian which seems to be the most thorough of the three mentioned sources. It is considered, here, as the main source of comparison with Balochi for its comprehensiveness. Moreover, some out of the 29 uses of /be/ in this list are considered older or literary samples (18-29 cases). The 29 cases are as following:

- 1) arrival to a place/land, e.g. *be xāne rasīdam*: I reached home.
- 2) addressing someone, e.g. *be to mīgūyam bargard*: I tell you come back.
- 3) toward somewhere/something, e.g. *īn kūrerāh be deh mīrawad*: This byway goes toward the village.
- 4) costing the amount of/to be worth to, e.g. *īn qesse be yek bār xāndan namīarzad*: This book is worth to be read once.
- 5) a sign of swear, e.g. *be xodā qasam ...* : I swear God ...
- 6) to/for someone, e.g. *erādat-e man be ū rūz be rūz bīštar mīšawad*: My friendship to him is increasing daily.
- 7) on/upon, e.g. *bela 'xare be sandalī-ye rīyāsāt nešast*: Finally, he occupied the manager post<sup>8</sup>.
- 8) for/ for the sake of, e.g. *mā be tamāšā nešastaīm*: We were sitting here to watch [something].
- 9) getting help, e.g. *be nām-e xodā sāl-e tahsīlī rā āyāz mīkonīm*: We start the new school year, getting help the name of God.
- 10) /be/ placed between two consecutive words to state sequence or gradual performance, e.g. *hamī bord manzel be manzel be sar*: He/She passed the stages gradually.
- 11) according to/ in agreeable with, e.g. *be kāmetān bād*: I hope [everything] will be in agreeable with your desires.

<sup>5</sup> - There are difficulties in the synchronic comparison of new Persian and Balochi as well, since a substantial volume of the written works of the New Persian is available older than 1200 years, while the written Balochi works hardly exceed to 150 years ago.

<sup>6</sup> - Roodbar (locally called Ruəbār/Ruəbār Zamīn) is the general name for villages located alongside of Halil Rood River running into Hamun-e Jaz Murian, (an inland basin). Currently, a county called Islam Abad is the center of this area. The dialect of this area's people is one of the dialects placed on the isogloss separating the southern Persian dialects from the western Balochi. for further information, see (Motallebi, 2006, p. 3-4).

<sup>7</sup> - A part of a poem composed by S'adi, a famous Persian poet.

<sup>8</sup> - literally: He sat on the manager's seat.

12) conveying a contrast between two things, e.g. *tīm-e mā dar moqābel-e ānhā dah be yāzdah bāzī mikard*: Our team played with ten [players] in contrast eleven of them.

13) as a complement for some verbs in idiomatic meaning, e.g. *pardāxtan be ...* : to be busy with ...

14) collocating with some adjectives to form a complement, e.g. *monhaser be, mavkūl be, nazdīk be ...* : depended to, related to, Close to ...

15) before a noun to form an adverb, e.g. *be vīze, be garmī, be sor'at, ...*: especially, warmly, rapidly, ...

16) before a noun to form an adjective, e.g. *benīrū, bexrad<sup>9</sup>, ...* : powerful, wise, ...

17) /be/ placed between two nouns, mostly to form an adjective, e.g. *sar be zīr, pā be māh, ...* : shameful, ready to give birth a child, ...

18) indicating a location, e.g. *zabān borīde be konjī nešaste sommon bokm*: Sitting in a corner silently.

19) indicating part of a time, e.g. *dehqān be sahgāhān kaz xāne beyāyad, ...* : when in early morning the farmer comes out of the house, ...

20) by means of/with, e.g. *hadis az motreb o may gū o rāz-e dahr kamtar jūy<sup>#10</sup> ke kas nagšūd o nagšāyad be hekmat in mo'ammā rā*: Speak of the wine and the singer, and search for the secret of the world less; for nobody discovered and will discover this secret by wisdom.

21) to possess, e.g. *agar xāhī be āberū bāsi, āzarm piše kon*: If you want to possess dignity, observe modesty.

22) as/as a sign of, e.g. *kasī rā ke dānī ke xasm-e to ūst # na az aql bāšad gereftan be dūst*: If you find someone your enemy # it is not a sign of logic to choose him your friend.

23) from the aspect of, e.g. *ke degargūn šodand o dīgarsān # be nahād o be xūy o gūne o rang*: And that they transformed and changed their [characters] # from the aspect of essence, habit, and appearance.

24) in a manner, e.g. *be tāxtan az pas-e ū bešodand*: They followed him in the manner of [horse] running.

25) to the amount of/ with the scale of, e.g. *az bahr-e taskīn-e išān, be kolāh zar mībaxšīd o javāl jāme* : to mollify them, he gifted gems with the scale of hat and clothes with the scale of bag.

26) [going] to someone, e.g. *man baray-e in be to nayāmada'am*: I did not come to you for the sake of it.

27) the effect of, e.g. *āb gereftan lattaf afzūn konad # xār o xask rā be saman čūn konad*: We suppose the effect of water as softness # how will be the effect of thistle on flower garden?

28) of/with, e.g. *rāhhā be barf ākande būd*: The roads were covered with snow.

29) making a verb transitive and attribute complement to the verb rather than to 'rā', e.g. *be har yek az hayvānāt ke rasīdī, az rūy-e tahassor be ū didī o be sūyaš ešārat kardī*: When reaching to any of the animals, he observed it regretly and pointed toward it<sup>11</sup>.

## 2. the different applications of /be/ in Persian Grammar

The functional differences of /be/ in the three mentioned works are briefly as:

- Shari'at and Meshkatoddini don't distinguish the older uses from the current, while Anvari does it<sup>12</sup>.
- Shari'at mentions 'similie' and gives the example *lotfaš be bahār-e šādemānī st*: His kindness is like the happiness of spring, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Shari'at mentions 'companionship' and gives the example *be salāmat vāred šod*: He entered with safety, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Shari'at mentions 'a start for speech' and gives the example *be nām-e xodāvand-e jān o xerad*: [We start with ] In the name of God, the God of soul and wisdom, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Meshkatoddini mentions 'result' and gives the example *nabāyad be dāneš-e xod mayrūr šod*: Knowledge should not result in vanity, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Meshkatoddini mentions 'complement' in the form of *indirect object* and gives the example *man ketāb rā be ahmad dādam*: I gave the book to Ahmad, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Meshkatoddini mentions 'companionship' and gives the example *ū be sedāy-e sāz āhang mīxānad*: He sings song in accompany with melody, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Meshkatoddini mentions 'distinction and precision' and gives the example *tamām-e ketāb rā bāyad kalame be kakame xānd*: The whole book should be read word for word, while Anvari doesn't mention this item.
- Meshkatoddini mentions 'order' and gives the example *sarbāzān yek be yek az otāq bīrūn āmadand*: The soldiers came out of the room one by one, while Anvari doesn't mention this item in this meaning.

Generally, what are mentioned in the first two works, are not so different from that of Anvari's, except that some of the functions and meanings are differently named. For instance, in the first example of 29 cases *be xāne rasīdam*: I reached home, Anvari uses the title *attachment*, while Shari'at formulates it as *end* and Meshkatoddini prefers the title *destination*.

## 3. the application of /pal/ in Balochi Grammar in comparison with /be/ in Persian Grammar

### A. Similarities

<sup>9</sup> - In this certain case, /be-/ is written like a prefix in Persian spelling.

<sup>10</sup> - the # marker in this article indicates the separating point between the two parts of a couplet in a poem.

<sup>11</sup> - *be ū didī* equals *ū rā didī* : He/She saw him/ her. Here, the verb / didī / is made transitive by using /be/.

<sup>12</sup> - Here, by Anvari, it is meant the supervisor of The Sokhan Great Dictionary.

Here, similar uses of /pa/ in modern Balochi with their counterparts in New Persian based on the 29 above cases are presented. Because of the lack of access to documents from the historical era of Balochi language, as well as a comprehensive and authentic source of the modern Balochi grammar, the examples are randomly collected using field research of common people's speech in the central parts of Iranian Balochistan<sup>13</sup>. It is evident that further and more comprehensive research gives more examples of the usage of preposition /pa/ in other parts of Iranian Balochistan and abroad.

The framework for the presenting examples is as follow:

Firstly two examples of Balochi language for any item in their phonemic transcriptions, and then their English translations are provided. The numerical order of the examples is based on the number of the 29 cases appeared in (Sokhan Great Dictionary, 2002, p. 1071-2).

After giving two examples and the necessary explanations for each case, other possible equivalents such as اى ay, چه ča, چه če, شه ša, گون guən, وته wate, هوره huəre, مه ma, ته tah, در dar, ته ta, واستا wāstā, ار er, از ez, اش eš, وده wahde, کدر kadare, پانگ pānag, پانگ pānag, کَر kerr, گور gwar (a total of 21 cases) which can be used instead of /pa/ in those special contexts, will be presented<sup>14</sup>.

1) arrival to a place/land, e.g. 1-a) *Pa har molkiə ke rasete, hamuədān bejall* : Stay whatever land you arrive. 1-b) *pa tehrānī šahrā ke rasete, gwānkiə bejan* : Make a phone call when you arrive Tehran.

2) addressing someone, e.g. 2-a) *be taw-a šīn bergard* : I tell you to come back! 2-b) *be taw-a šīn buər* : I tell you to eat!

This is only seen, to some extent, in Sarhaddi dialect of Balochi language, with /p/ realized as /b/, the same as what is realized in Persian. In such cases, the preposition /be/ comes before the addressed pronoun, taking ‘-a’ as a suffix (see the two examples above). In Makkorani dialect of Balochi, the postposed ‘-ra’ is only added to the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular pronoun ‘ta’ (you), e.g. *ta-ra gwašon bergard* : I tell you to come back.

3) toward somewhere/something, e.g. 3-a) *pa kaš bowaps* : Sleep on your side. 3-b) *pa gwarā gwast* : S/he passed by a corner.

\*Some dialects use /a, ay, ča, če, ša, er, ez, eš/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

4) costing the amount of/to be worth to, e.g. 4-a) *man eiə ketāba pa panč hazār tomon zortag* : I bought this book for 5000 Tomans. 4-b) *ā zamānagān pasiə pa bākasīat* : Once, a sheep cost a matchbox.

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate, kadar/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

5) a sign of swear, e.g. 5-a) *pa hodāyī nāmā kasam ke mā uədān nabūtāgīan* : I swear to God's name that we weren't there. 5-b) *kasam pa zāt e hodā ke šīya mayāriə niəst* : I swear to God's essence that s/he is not guilty.

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

6) to/for someone, e.g. 6-a) *mana pa to hečč bada nayayt* : I don't feel any hate for you. 6-b) *tara pa man hečč waššī ma delā niəst* : You don't have any favor toward me.

\*Some dialects use /ay, ča, ša, če, er, eš, ez/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

7) on/upon, e.g. 7-a) *āyān pa sar dāra kaššant* : They carry firewood on their heads. 7-b) *āyān marīza pa galloka gardīanant* : They move the sick man on their backs.

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

8) for/for the sake of, e.g. 8-a) *šomā pa šāmā may mehmāniət* : You are our guests for dinner. 8-b) *pa hamīə neštāgant ke šomāra begendant* : They have stayed to see you.

\*Some southern Balochi dialects, especially those in the Makkoran of Pakistan also use /wāstā/ as a postposed addposition instead of /pa/ in this sense<sup>15</sup>. Here are a couple of examples: *yak nāmāyīə manī wāstā ātkag* : There is a letter for me. *šomā šāmāy wāstā may mehmāniət* : You are my guests for dinner!

9) getting help, e.g. 9-a) *pa hodā tawakkal kan, kārān wat šarra bant* : Trust in God and everything will be all right on its own. 9-b) *pa hodāyī kodratā dožmen may diēmā nahuəšīt* : Getting help of God's side, the enemy cannot bear our attack.

10) stating sequence or gradual performance, e.g. 10-a) *hormāgī sondāna pa red nečīan de* : Put the date bags in regular rows near each other! 10-b) *pa may bārīyā pahk čīzān halās būtant* : When it came to our turn, everything ran out.

In the second example, /bārīyā/ meaning ‘time, turn’ collocates with /pa/.

11) according to/ in agreeable with, e.g. 11-a) *pa delkašš kozūr kandehāra nabīt* : Kozoor does not turn to Kandahar according to one's wish<sup>16</sup>. 11-b) *enšālāh pa morād bāte* : I hope your affairs will be according to your wishes.

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

<sup>13</sup> - The author, himself, is a 54 years old speaker of this area. The farther from the central parts to the northern (Sarhadd) and southern (Makkoran) parts of Iranian Balochistan, the greater the data differences are. This study helps us know that if we are to take a step toward standardization of Balochi in future, it is better more attention should be paid to the data from the dialects of this area.

<sup>14</sup> - Hereafter through the article, we only use the transcribed forms of these prepositions as /a, ay, ča, če, ša, guən, wate, huəre, ma, tah, dar, ta, wāstā, er, ez, eš, wahde, kadare, pānag, kerr, gwar/.

<sup>15</sup> - It seems that the Balochi /wāstā/ is the equivalent for the Persian /vāse/ which is colloquially used to convey the same meaning (Sokhan Great Dictionary, 2002, p. 8148).

<sup>16</sup> - Kozoor is an old well-known village in the central district of Sarbaz, Balochistan, Iran. The dates grown in this village are especially famous among the people of Balochistan. One of the most prominent figures of the village was a poet called Haj Karimdad Kozoori.

12) conveying a contrast between two things, e.g. 12-a) *čār paseš pa čār mačč dāt* : They exchanged four sheep for four date palms. 12-b) *Yakkia pa lakkia* : One for one thousand<sup>17</sup>!

13) /pa/ is used as a complement for some certain verbs in an idiomatic meaning, e.g. 13-a) *mā pa omiat e hodā edān neštāgīan* : We stay here in the hope of God[’s help]. 13-b) *ā janiān pa sar e čokkia kaptag* : That woman gave birth to a child.

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

14) collocating with some adjectives to form a complement,

The preposition is not used in this sense in Balochi. For more information, see 2.2.3.B.1.

15) /pa/ is placed before a noun to form an adverb of manner, e.g. 15-a) *āyān pa rozwāyī zenda gwāziānant* : They live disgracefully. 15-b) *rayīs pa lahmī watī kārāna kant* : The head [of the office] deals with his affairs slowly .

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

16) /pa/ is placed before a noun to form an adjective, e.g. 16-a) *āyī pa sār nahent* : He is not aware/conscious. 16-b) *may brāhondag pa rāh nahent* : Our friend is not wise.

17) /pa/ is placed between two nouns, mostly to form an adjective, e.g. 17-a) *plānī dast pa kaš huštātāg* : Some guy is standing with folded arms. 17-b) *tay duast sar pa salāhiān mardia* : Your friend is a meek and mild man.

18) indicating a location, e.g. 18-a) *pa ed o uada gardiān, balkia darī giājīan* : We search here and there; we may find him. 18-b) *pa īngo āngo bečār*, *balkia dar kapūt* : Look for him/her/it here and there; he/she/it may be found.

\*Some dialects use /ma, ta/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

19) indicating part of a time, e.g. 19-a) *Pa šap e tahāriān ay eiā molkā rapt/ra* : He left here in a very the dark night. 19-b) *pa zend e wat ruāč e waššī nadūt* : He/she didn’t have even one happy day in his/her lifetime.

\*Some dialects use /ma, wahde, tah/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

20) by means of/with, e.g. 20-a) *tehrān rawag pa māšīn sahtent*: It is difficult to go to Tehran by a car. 20-b) *dārānī pa tapar pruāšt* : He broke the firewood with an ax.

\*Some dialects use /guən, huəre, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

21) to possess, e.g. 21-a) *māl pa sāhob waššent* : A property is valuable when it has an owner. 21-b) *mardom pa ābrū waššent, na pa biābrūyī* : A man possessing dignity (an honored man) is valuable, not a dishonored one.

\*Some dialects use /guən, huəre, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

22) of / a sign of, e.g. 22-a) *pa janiānī jāhā, čokkānī zabr dāštāg* : Although she was a woman, but she brought up her children well. 22-b) *pa brātīā, hamenka ham bāzent* : As a brother, the same amount[of favor] is enough.

23) by/from the aspect of, e.g. 23-a) *pa rang o sūrat hečč kammī niāst* : She lacks nothing from the aspect of facial beauty. 23-b) *mardom pa hiāl o tab jāh yāraga bīt* : One is known by his/her habits and nature.

\*Some dialects use /ay, ča, če, ša, er, ez, eš, guən/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

24) in a manner, e.g. 24-a) *yak apsswāriā ay ?edān pa tāč gwast* : A galloping horseman passed here. 24-b) *warnā pa maydān ?uādān rapt* : The young man went there on running.

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

25) to the amount of/with the scale of, e.g. 25-a) *hormāgāneš pa šāhiām sar bahr kort* : They divided the dates using scalepan. *dānāna pa čank bahr kaniāt* : Divide the grain with the scale of chank!<sup>18</sup>

\*Some dialects use /huəre, guən, wate/ instead of /pa/ in this sense.

## B. Differences

In short, functional differences are used here to say that the use of this preposition in the two languages of Persian and Balochi is not the same in *certain contexts*. In other words, it might be possible that Persian uses the preposition /be/ in a certain context while Balochi, in the same context, does not use /pa/ which is actually the identical preposition, and vice versa. Nine examples are provided here to clarify this subject into two separate categories as:

### B.1. Persian uses /be/, while Balochi uses other prepositions rather than /pa/.

14) collocating with some certain adjectives to form complements. For the Persian examples see the case No. 14 of the 29 items above.

In Balochi, the genitive case marker /-e-/ is used instead of /pa/ to convey the meaning approximation, e.g. *nazzik e sad dawāreš paym kortag*: They have nearly built a hundred houses.

26) going to someone,

/pa/ is not used in this sense in Balochi. The prepositions /gwar, pānag, pahnāt, kerr/ are used instead of /pa/ in this sense, e.g. *man pa hečč kāriā pāng e tawa nayāyon*: I don’t/ won’t come to you for anything.

27) changing into/ transform

/pa/ is not used in this sense in Balochi. /pa/ has no equivalent preposition or adverb in this sense, so the verbs *badal kanag/bayag, tagaliānag* meaning ‘ to turn into, to change’ are used along with the preposition /pa/, e.g. *āpā ke bāz bejuāšīāne, pa bāp badala bīt* : Water changes into steam if it boils too much.

28) of/with

<sup>17</sup> - This rhymed expression is mostly used by religious preachers who say that if one does a right deed in this world, s/he receives a reward 1000 times greater than that in the Hereafter.

<sup>18</sup> A unit of measurement equal to a volume of the two stretched hand palms attached together.



*/pa/* is not used in this sense in Balochi. The prepositions */ay, ča, če, ša, eš, er, ez/* are used instead of */pa/*, e.g. *hambārān ay čiz porrant* : The storehouses are full of goods.

29) making a verb transitive and attribute complement to the verb rather than with */rā/*

*/pa/* is not used in this sense in Balochi. */pa/* has no equivalent preposition or adverb in this sense. In this sense, the inflectional suffix ‘-a’ which is a sign of object, attaches to the object as an inflectional suffix, e.g. *har čiz-a ke gendūt, zūrītī*: S/he takes (=buys) whatever s/he sees.

**B.2. Balochi uses */pa/*, while Persian uses other prepositions rather than */be/*.**

30) a sign for the originating of something

Persian uses the preposition */az/* instead of */pa/* in Balochi in this sense, e.g. *drahčān pa beh hošk būtant*: The trees were dried from the roots up.

31) by means of/through

Persian uses the compound preposition */az tarīq-e/az rāh-e/* instead of the Balochi preposition */pa/* in this sense, e.g. *ay bam, pa yārānšahr, sarāwāna rawant* : From Bam, they go to Saravan through Iranshahr.

32) expressing the aim

Persian uses the preposition */barāy-e/* instead of the Balochi preposition */pa/* in this sense, e.g. *menī brāt pa kārwanī gwādar rapt*: My brother went to Gwādar for a caravan.

33) indicating place

Persian mostly uses the preposition */dar/* instead of the Balochi preposition */pa/* in this sense, e.g. *raption pa rāhiā, dīton balāhiā ...*<sup>19</sup>. I step into a road, and saw a monster... . However, there is a line in Persian poetry containing */be/* in the same sense: *be rāhī dar solayman dīd mūrī # ke bā pāy-e malax mīkard zūrī*<sup>20</sup>.

34) based on

Persian mostly uses */az rūy-e/* instead of Balochi */pa/* in this sense, e.g. *man tara pa brātiya gwašon* : I tell you this based on the brotherhood relationship. Note that this structure is very common in Balochi.

### III. CONCLUSION

Studying the above cases resulted in the following findings:

1) Syntactically, the preposition in both languages comes in attributive and middle positions, not appearing in predicative position.

2) Based on 34 compared cases, 10 cases of difference (30% difference vs. 70% similarities).

3) Being a function word, the preposition does not convey a clear definable meaning as a dependent word. As a result, in collocation with content words and according to its agentivity, it mostly designates its complement as an adverb such as the adverbs of *manner, place, time, degree*; giving such meanings as *causality, similarity, instrument*, etc.

4) It is evident that each linguistic element limits the meaning of another in collocation with it. This preposition is a high-currently used word and limits some of its collocated words either from the aspect of structure and meaning. The occurrence frequency of the preposition shows that it is one of the most widely-used prepositions both in Persian and Balochi. See the three sources mentioned in this study, and (Mahmoodzahi, 1998, p. 295-8) for the statistics.

5) Some of the expressions which come in collocation with this preposition in Balochi or Persian are idiomatic and some others are non-idiomatic. As an example, the idiomatic expression *pa lāp janag* literally means *to hit with stomach*, refers to a situation in which a guest eats too much and the host is harassed.

6) Today's Persian equivalents of the preposition */be/* include: */bā, be vasīlay-e, barāy-e, bar rūy-e, az, az rūy-e, tā, dar, dar moqābl-e, be xāter-e, be bahāy-e, be hengām-e, dāxel-e, az tariq-e, be ellat-e/*.

7) Today's Balochi equivalents of the preposition */pa/* include: */a, ay, ča, če, ša, guān, wate, huāre, ma, tah, dar, ta, wāstā, er, ez, eš, wahde, kadare, pānag, kerr, gwar/*.

8) The preposition */pa/* is used in all of the cases above except that, in southern dialects (i.e. Makkorani), it is not used for the indirect object, rather the inflectional affix */-a/* is used which might be a remnant of the inflectional suffix from the ancient Iranian languages, e.g. *man hasan-a gwašt* : I told Hassan.

9) Being a remnant of inflectional cases of the old Iranian, the inflectional affix */-a/* is in cases used instead of */pa/* in some certain southern Balochi dialects including Chabahari, Nikshahri, Sarbazi, and Pakistani Makkorani, e.g. *luāg-ā ke rasete, dam kan* : Take a rest when you get home.

10) The effect of Persian on some Balochi dialects, specially those neighboring Persian borders are seen like Roobari, Fannoochi, Dalgani, ....

11) Based on the dialectic linguistics, see (Oranskii, 1999, p. 34), languages and dialects are in constant interchanging into each other under the certain effects. The results show that there should be a revision in the Balochi dialect classification, especially for the dialects close to Persian; avoiding the absolute classifying them as west-northern Iranian languages, since these dialects display many characteristics of west-southern Iranian languages as well.

<sup>19</sup> - It is a part of a rhyme saying: *raption pa rāhiā # dīton balāhiā # gwaštī waronet # man gwašt košonet # heštī manārā # geptī konārā* : I step into a road # and saw a monster # It told "I'll eat you" # I answered "I'll kill you" # It left me # and grabbed the konar (ziziphus) tree.

<sup>20</sup> - composed by Parvin E'tesami a famous Persian poet.

The considerable similarities seen in the use of the preposition between Persian and Balochi indicate that Balochi can be included in both classes, at least in some parts of Iranian Balochistan.

12) The present study can be of use in providing isoglosses for Iranian languages and dialects and the dialects of the area under study. It can, for example, be an index for the dialects placed at the isoglosses of Persian and Balochi such as the Roodbari dialect.

13) The difference in the use of the preposition in the two languages possesses contrastive mistakes for those attempting to learn or translate either of the languages or compile a dictionary. The greater the differences, the more the mistakes.

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# A Study on the Characterization of Hagar Shipley

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**Abstract**—*The Stone Angel*, the first novel of the Manawaka Cycle, is generally regarded as Laurence's representative work. This novel narrates the story of Hagar Shipley, who struggles to search for her self-identity and freedom all through her life. Hagar's life reflects Canadian ideology and ideological trends during that specific period. Hagar's pride leads to her rebellious life. She seems like the sightless stone angel in the Manawaka cemetery. She cannot realize her pride and prejudice. She cannot understand people around her. People cannot understand her either. Hagar doesn't achieve her self-identity and spiritual freedom until the very end of her life. This thesis intends to analyze the characterization of Hagar and her inner journey towards self-identity and freedom, and further to evaluate Laurence's contribution to Canadian Literature.

**Index Terms**—Margaret Laurence, *The Stone Angel*, Hagar Shipley, feminism, self-identity, freedom

## I. HAGAR'S PRIDE

In the Manawaka series, Laurence has used some religious imageries to reveal the various situations of her own heroines, and to mirror their progression from a position of bondage to freedom. Hagar in *The Stone Angel* has a biblical namesake, who is a slave girl whom Abraham took as his concubine. To demonstrate this, it is necessary to look at the story about Hagar the Egyptian in *the Bible*. In Genesis 16, there is a narration about Abram, Sarai, and Hagar, a slave girl (Good News Bible, 1992, p.44):

Abram's wife Sarai had not borne him any children... So she gave Hagar to him to be his concubine. Abram had intercourse with Hagar and she became pregnant. When she found out that she was pregnant, she became proud and despised Sarai...

At last Hagar was expelled into the desert and thus became an outcast because of Sarai's jealousy. While in *The Stone Angel* the modern Hagar is cast out by her own pride. Hagar's pride inherited from her father not only is her strength but also isolated her from her families. Due to her destructive pride, she cannot communicate with people around her. People cannot understand her either. According to Barbara Pell (1972): "like [...] her biblical namesake, Hagar wanders in a metaphoric wilderness and lonely exile because of her pride"(p.90).

### A. Hagar's Pride — The Strength of Sustaining

"Titles are important, as they should in some way express the theme of the book in a rather poetic way" (Fabre, 1996). The title *The Stone Angel* comes from the image of the actual stone angel marking the grave of Hagar's mother, who dies in giving birth to her stubborn daughter. Like the stone angel, Hagar seems to be made of stone. Sharing her father's pride, she will not allow herself to express emotions that might be thought of as soft. As cold emotionally as the stone angel, Hagar seems to be made of stone. She bears no sign of femininity and maternity and has no ability to love.

Mr. Currie had bought the statue to mark his wife's grave as well as proclaim his pride in wealth and status.

Above the town, on the hill brow, the stone angel used to stand ...my mother's angel that my father bought in pride to make her bones and proclaim his dynasty, as he fancied, forever and a day.

Summer and winter she viewed the town with sightless eyes. She was doubly blind, not only stone but endowed with even a pretense of sight. Whoever carved her had left the eyeballs blank. (Laurence, 1993, p.1)

Where does Hagar's pride come from? Hagar has just inherited the pride from her father. Hagar's mother died early at her birth, leaving Hagar and her two brothers with their stern and high-handed father, who believes in nothing but hard-won financial success. Lacking a mother, Hagar is socialized by her severely proud father. From him, she learns to reject any characteristics that are perceived as weaknesses, both in herself and others. Hagar even equates weakness with women and, thus, recoils from all things female.

"Hagar very naturally wishes to exhibit whatever qualities are consistent with her pride and are admired by others. Her nearest judge is Jason, who encourages the male virtues in her and neglects certain aspects of the feminine virtues which he will expect her eventually to display..." (Rooke, 1982). There is an incidence in Hagar's childhood can illustrate this point well. One day Hagar is punished by Jason, because she does not "mind her manners." Jason uses a foot ruler to beat her hands, expecting she will acknowledge her fault. Yet Hagar is so enraged that she "wouldn't let him see" her cry. "He looked at my dry eyes in a kind of fury, as though he'd failed unless he drew water from them. He struck and struck, and then all at once he threw the ruler down and put his arms around me..." (Laurence, 1993, p.10)

Afterwards, Jason proudly said to his daughter: “You take after me ... You’ve got back bone, I’ll give you that.” (Laurence, 1993, p.10) Encouraged by Jason, Hagar tries her best to be courageous, proud, everything that her father admires, throughout her life. Jason speaks to Auntie Doll about Hagar: “Smart as a whip, she is, that one...” (Laurence, 1993, p.14)

Hagar not only inherits the pride from her father, but also is like her father physically and in temperament:

Only I, who didn’t want to resemble him in the least, was sturdy like him and bore his hawkish nose and stare that could meet anyone’s without blinking an eyelash (Laurence, 1993, p.8).

Then where does Jason’s pride come from? In Jason’s time, the Manawaka people, the new-comers and pioneers of the land, take great pride in financial success, in “getting ahead”. Jason’s individual and familial history embody the pioneer myth of the stoic, successful immigrant. Jason is Scottish Highland descent, his family motto is “Gainsay Who Dare.” Jason is the epitome of the hard-working, stern, controlling father figure. He lives the family motto, challenging anyone to forbid him anything. Jason always reminds his children of their once noble origin, and tries to instill in Hagar both the Christian and practical values he himself holds to be true, because he thinks that Hagar takes after him and that Hagar has “got backbone” (Laurence, 1993, p.10). So Hagar inherits from her father a strong sense of pride.

Like the stone angel that is bigger and costlier than all the rest, Jason sees himself as superior to the others in Manawaka, Hagar shares this pride from an early age. She and Jason compare themselves to others in the community with regard to how successful the head of the family is. Charlotte Tappen is worthy to be Hagar’s best friend as she is the doctor’s daughter. Lottie Drieser is at the bottom of the social ladder as she does not have the protection of a father at all. Henry Pearl is ridiculed because his father is poor. The fathers of these children have left them open to scorn in the community. Wealthier males are respected and rule the community and privilege their families with their power.

#### B. *Hagar’s Pride — The Force to Destroy*

Hagar’s pride, as well as the destruction arising thereof, is “a two-edged sword, striking inward and outward simultaneously” (Laurence, 1993, p.48), not only hurting people living around her, but also making herself suffer from her self-contradiction. Her destructive pride inhibits her relationships with her brothers, her husband and her sons and even causes her alienation from herself. Taylor (1996) comments that “Hagar loses the fullness of her potential self when she cuts herself off from others” (p.162). To drive this point home, five groups of relationships will be discussed, which include Hagar’s detachment from her brothers, Hagar’s separation from her husband, Hagar’s loss of her favorite son John, Hagar’s “escape” from her remaining son Marvin, and finally, Hagar’s deviation from her true self.

Firstly, Hagar has never come close to her brothers. Hagar’s father despises the “feminine” gentleness of Matt and the sickly weakness of Dan. However, as what we have mentioned earlier, Jason takes great pride in Hagar, because she takes after him and has got “backbone” (Laurence, 1993, p.10). Hagar not only inherits Jason’s pride, but also inherits Jason’s hatred of even the appearance of weakness. So she also despises her brothers, although she loves them in her inner heart. There is an incidence can well demonstrate Hagar’s detachment from her brothers:

When Dan is dying of pneumonia, Matt tries to persuade the teenaged Hagar into wearing their mother’s plaid shawl which Dan has kept in his dresser since he was a kid to comfort the dying Dan. However, Hagar refuses to do so for she detests her mother as a “meek woman”. “But all I could think of was that meek woman I’d never seen, the woman Dan was said to remember so much and from whom he’d inherited a frailty I could not help but detest, however much a part of me wanted to sympathize. To play at being her — it was beyond me” (Laurence, 1993, p.25). Hagar’s pride has prevented her from comforting her brother and loving him freely. Furthermore, she does not know anything about that barrier in her mind. “...I was crying, ... wanting above all else to do the thing he asked, but unable to do it, unable to bend enough.” (Laurence, 1993, p.25) Yes, “...unable to bend enough”, this is also an acknowledgement of her inflexible pride. And owing to Hagar’s pride, she becomes detached from her brothers.

Secondly, Hagar deviates from her husband Bram Shipley. The marriage of Hagar to Bram is actually a daring defiance against her stern father. In the eyes of the townspeople, Bram is “as common as dirt” and has been “seen with half-breed girls” (Laurence, 1993, p.47); to Hagar’s father, Bram is “lazy as a pet pig” with no “get-up-and-go” (Laurence, 1993, p.46). At a time when “not a decent girl in this town would wed without her family’s consent” (Laurence, 1993, p.49), “Hagar tries a rebel against him [her father] by marrying a source of earth energy, the disreputable but attractive farmer Bram” (Atwood, 1972, p.136). Although Bram is a good-looking man, he is coarse and poorly educated. Hagar “could have been proud, going to the town or church with him, if only he’d never opened his mouth” (Laurence, 1993, p.70). When Hagar marries Bram, she plans to change him to meet her father’s standards. However, after they have lived under the same roof for some time, Hagar cannot put up with Bram’s lack of ambition and success, his crude manners and speech, or his drunken public clowning. When she finds Bram’s conversion to her ways impossible, Hagar gradually deviates from him.

Hagar’s pride and her rejection of all things female prevent her from accepting Bram’s attempts at kindness or intimacy. When they are first married he gives her a “cut-glass decanter with a silver top” and Hagar “laid it aside and thought no more about it” (Laurence, 1993, p.51). Valuing a gift of beauty but minimal utility, no doubt, strikes Hagar as something a woman would do. Therefore, she does not allow Bram any pleasure by showing him emotion that indicates “softness” on her part; nor does she outwardly acknowledge the pleasure she gets from having sex with him. This pleasure is another gift from Bram that she is too proud to admit to.

It was not so very long after we wed, when first I felt my blood and vitals rise to meet his. He never knew. I never let

him know. I never spoke aloud, and I made certain that the trembling was all inner. He had innocence about him, I guess, or he'd have known. How could he have not known? Didn't I betray myself in rising sap, like a heedless and compelled maple after a winter? But no. He never expected any such a thing, and so he never perceived it. I prided myself upon keeping my pride intact, like some maidenhead (Laurence, 1993, p.81).

Taylor (1996) says, "[t]o show response would be to accept being a woman. Denying her womanliness also means denying her sexuality" (p.163). To exhibit joy in sex or tenderness toward her husband for giving her pleasure is the same "intolerance of weakness". Although Hagar wants to be with Bram in her inner heart, her destructive pride forbids herself to be so fragile. So Hagar's separation from her husband is unavoidable.

Thirdly, Hagar finally has lost her favorite son John forever. Hagar likes her younger son John because he takes after Jason. John is quick to learn and is better spoken than Bram and Marvin. Hagar puts all her hope on John, telling him of the once noble origin of the Currie family, their clan and their motto: Gainsay Who Dare, as well as the Christian and practical values which her father tried to cultivate in her. She passes on the plaid pin of the Currie family to John and tries to instill in him the pride that her father gave her. Ironically, the plaid pin of the Currie family is later traded by John to another guy for a jackknife. She buys a gramophone, and hangs some pictures in their house — for she thinks it "a bad thing [for a son] to grow up in a house with never a framed picture to tame the walls" (Laurence, 1993, p.82) — and she does all these just for the decent upbringing of John. Just as her father once put his hope on her, and as a way out of her failed marriage, Hagar puts all her hope on John. However, Hagar has at last lost her dearly-beloved son for the same reason: her destructive pride.

As a youth, John is embarrassed that his father is known as "Bramble Shitley" (Laurence, 1993, p.131) but, as he ages, he becomes more like his father and does not care what Hagar or others think of him. Hagar is mistaken in her evaluation of John. Hagar recalls that John, since his early childhood, is "wild as mustard seed in some ways" and has "a knack for gathering the wildest crew" (Laurence, 1993, p.127). Although John is an able and resourceful young man, John is a Shipley, not a Currie. He trades the plaid pin for a jackknife, and he later sells the knife to buy cigarettes. So "the emblem of the Currie pride," the plaid pin, "which has no value for John, goes up in smoke" (Baum, 1996).

John and Arlene love each other, but Hagar does not like Arlene and refuses to accept this girl as her future daughter-in-law. Because Arlene was Lottie's daughter, Lottie's "no-name" and her uncertain paternity are not worth Hagar's consideration, though Lottie is Hagar's childhood mate. Therefore, Hagar despises Lottie's daughter, she cannot put up with John's decision of staying with Arlene. Then Hagar and Lottie decide to interfere in John and Arlene's relationship. They plan to send Arlene to go to the coast, Lottie for earning some money for Arlene's marriage and Hagar for separating the young couple at least for the time being. John, seeing his beloved leaving him with no hope of a reunion in the future, ends his life, and that of Arlene's as well, by driving "in a stupid, pointless, drunken dare, hopelessly rebelling against the Depression, poverty, and the hostile environments that Hagar has partially contrived" (Thomas, 1975, p.70).

Hagar tries to rule John's whole life and fashion him in the image that was desirable to her. Hagar's pride blinded her to the real love that existed between John and Arlene. She cannot see that she's had a bad influence on John, and Arlene actually is a good girl. She had never talked seriously to either of them. As a result of her strong objection to the young couple, they leave Hagar's house, which leads to the accident and death of the two. She cannot bend enough to see outside herself, and her concerns are not with the happiness of her son but with what other people would say if they knew what was going on — with her being able "to hold up her head in town" (Laurence, 1993, p.199). As a consequence of her destructive pride, John and Arlene die foolishly and needlessly, and thus Hagar has lost her favorite son forever.

Fourthly, there is distance between Hagar and her remaining son Marvin. Hagar never cares her elder son, Marvin. Hagar ignores Marvin's good qualities because she dislikes his resemblance to Bram's family, her pride inherited from her father makes her feel that the Shipleys are all "common as bottled beer" (Laurence, 1993, p.32). Their manners and grammar do not meet her finishing school standards. Hagar despises Marvin's inarticulateness and his slowness in wit. She "almost felt as though Marvin weren't [her] son" (Laurence, 1993, p.62).

Even though young Marvin tries in every way to please her, he cannot gain her approval. As a child, Marvin has always tried to serve his mother well, doing his chores ably and hanging around her, futilely hoping for words of praise or affection. But he has never been important to his mother, and his childhood is mainly spent helping his father out in the fields.

A startling example of Hagar devaluing the positive in Marvin is seen when she tells us. When Marvin joins the army to fight in France, Hagar does not show much concern or affection. "He fought at Vimy Ridge, and lived through it... He wrote home once a month and his letters were always very poorly spelled" (Laurence, 1993, p.130). Most mothers would take joy in a son's communication. Yet Hagar pays more attention to what she sees as an unforgivable flaw and almost ignores his accomplishments and continued devotion to her. In her later years, Marvin and his wife, Doris, take care of Hagar and by doing so increases her dislike for his "femaleness". When Marvin and Doris decide to send Hagar to the nursing home to get better care, Hagar does not want to leave her house and throws this hurtful barb, "If it were John, he'd not consign his mother to the poorhouse" (Laurence, 1993, p.75). Hagar's destructive pride blinds her to Marvin's worthiness and puts a serious block in their relationship.

Lastly, Hagar's pride deviates her from her authentic self. Hagar leads a life deprived of the recognition of her real

self. Through examining Hagar's relations with her bothers, her husband, and her sons, we can clearly see Hagar's dilemma, she has never had a moment to herself, she is separated from her true self.

There is a typical incidence can demonstrate this point well. Hagar begins to enjoy sex very soon after her marriage, and she has "sucked" her "secret pleasure from his skin" (Laurence, 1993, p.100). She feels her readiness and climax in having sex with Bram, but her pride makes her repress herself and manages not to let Bram know, because she wants to "keep my [her] pride intact, like some maidenhead" (Laurence, 1993, p.81). "Hagar's obdurate nature ensures her survival but isolates her from meaningful human contact" (Thomas, 1975, p.165), yet sometimes the true feelings find their way out to betray herself, despite her overruling pride. When she has finally left Manawaka and Bram, she missed him terribly, though she tried hard not to:

I'd waken, sometimes, out of a half sleep and turn to him and find he wasn't beside me, and then I'd be filled with such a bitter emptiness it seemed the whole of night must be within me and not around or outside at all. There were times when I'd have returned to him, just for that (Laurence, 1993, p.160).

Hagar cannot obtain her self-recognition just because she cannot mediate between the two confronting forces in her. On the one hand, she is driven by the strong force of being Jason Currie's dignified daughter, which requires her to "behave properly" and not to condescend to the common ones. On the other hand, there is a compelling force in her that requires her to be a warm, gentle and loving mother. Hagar is torn up by those two forces for so long that she fails to pull herself together in dealing with others. And finally, she realizes the dilemma: "I've never had a moment to myself, that's been my trouble" (Laurence, 1993, p.93). Hagar's trouble is "a temperament torn between impulses of order and disorder, refinement and toughness, propriety and desire, impulses justified in her own mind by her pride in her family and the urgency of her own passions." (Verduyn, 1988, p.72) In short, Hagar's pride has not only alienated her from all her closest ones, but also deviated her from her true self.

In a word, Hagar's pride inherited from Jason compels her to be courageous, proud, brainy, everything that her father admires. As a result of her irremediable pride, Hagar is gradually turned into a cold and blind woman, just like the sightless stone angel in the Manawaka cemetery. As a result of her destructive pride, Hagar fails to get love, satisfaction or joy from her brothers, her husband, or her sons. As a result of her inflexible pride, Hagar cannot gain her self-identity. She does not understand why there are always conflicting thoughts within her and does not know how to deal with those conflicting forces. The only way out is to rebel, and to seek her true self.

## II. HAGAR'S REBELLION

In search for an autonomous life in a male-dominated world, Hagar has struggled against what prevents her in different ways. Hagar's life is her rebellious journey towards self-acknowledgement. Her life is made up of a series of rebellions: to rebel against her rigid, sanctimoniously Presbyterian father, to rebel against her feckless husband, to rebel against the benevolence of her elder son. Hagar struggles to maintain her independence and obtain her self-recognition all through her life. Under the impact of her father, Hagar believes that any evidence of warm emotions, of human dependency, is a sign of intolerable weakness of character. As a result, Hagar cuts herself off from much of the joys of life — joy in marriage, in children, and in social intercourse. Hagar, behaves exactly like a fighter from start to finish. She struggles to seek her true identity and freedom. In other words, Hagar is searching for her proper position in a patriarchal world. In order to achieve these, she has to take on the form of rebellion. To make this point clear, the following passages will elaborate Hagar Shipley's three rebellions which lead to the discovery of her real self and the return to her true identity.

### A. *Hagar's Rebellion against Her Father*

Born with a privileged childhood as the daughter of Manawaka's only merchant Jason Currie, Hagar grows up in a Scottish Highlander family with the absence of a mother. Being a self-made man, Jason has "pulled himself up by his bootstraps" (Laurence, 1993, p.7). Hagar's first recollection of her father is a stern taskmaster who makes her learn weights and measures, scolds her for her inattention, but never praises her when she recites correctly. Jason Currie can be regarded as a God image in this novel who wants to establish and proclaim a dynasty of his own. Jason Currie symbolizes authority, the patriarchal power. He always tries to control Hagar's life. However, what Jason forgets is that Hagar resembles himself very much. Hagar dares to gainsay.

Both as a child and as a young woman, she repeatedly challenges her father's authority.

When Jason hits Hagar because she has "no regard for [his] reputation" (Laurence, 1993, p.9), she refuses to cry. And she ultimately refuses to be his commodity. After Dan dies, Matt stays behind to work in the store, Hagar is sent off to Toronto for two years to "the training ring, the young ladies' academy in Toronto" (Laurence, 1993, p.42). When she returns in the image of an upper class lady, Jason looks at her and sees her as a "credit" (Laurence, 1993, p.43) to himself. He does not regard Hagar as an individual woman with the identity but regards Hagar as another one of his successes. Like any other merchandise to be purchased and used, Hagar is a commodity for her father's advancement. Her value to him is that she will improve his image in the community: "'It was worth every penny for the two years,' he said. 'You're a credit to me. Everyone will be saying that by tomorrow'" (Laurence, 1993, p.43). Hagar tells Jason that she wants to teach in the South Wachakwa school, Jason rails against such improper misuse of his property, and Hagar slightly relents because she feels as though she owes him her labour for his expenditure on her training. So she

continues to work at her father's store. Two years later, Hagar begins with a deliberate act of rebellion against her father. This time her desire and will are stronger than his; Hagar announces to Jason that she intends to marry Bram Shipley:

Instead, I looked at him just as hard as he was looking at me.

"I've worked for you for three years."

"There's not a decent girl in this town would wed without her family's consent," he said. "It's not done."

"It'll be done by me," I said, drunk with exhilaration at my daring.

"I'm only thinking of you," Father said. "Of what's best for you. If you weren't so pig-headed, maybe you could see that."

Then, without warning, he reached out a hand like a lariat, caught my arm, held and bruised it, not even knowing he was doing so.

"Hagar —" he said. "You'll not go, Hagar."

The only time he ever called me by my name. To this day I couldn't say if it was a question or a command. I didn't argue with him. There never was any use in that. But I went, when I was good and ready, all the same (Laurence, 1993, p.49).

Jason disowns Hagar for her act of defiance, her marriage to Bram. Hagar separated herself from her family forever. The significance of Hagar's rebellion is that she gets rid of the control of Jason Currie. Hagar is provided the possibility of finding and being herself, not just as Jason Currie's daughter. She can lead her own life. However, Hagar's marriage to Bram just makes Hagar move from one patriarchal pioneer figure to another.

### B. *Hagar's Rebellion against Her Husband*

Hagar's second rebellion is against her husband Bram. Hagar's marriage to Bram can only be seen as a daring rebellion against her father. Hagar does not realize that her choice is not a meaningful one. Her marriage to Bram is impossible to secure for her the kind of life she desires. The illusion of a romantic yet tidy life she cares much about are alien to the coarse farm house of Bram, let alone the fulfillment of Hagar's searching for her self-identity.

Soon after their marriage, the Currie pride and academy education Hagar has received cause her to look down the very qualities in Bram that she has been drawn to. Hagar always tries to polish Bram, to instill in him the respect for institutions, according to her father's image. Their battle of wills hurts him, her, and their relationship, which finally causes Hagar's second rebellion against her husband.

There are some incidences which finally urge Hagar to make her decision to leave Bram to start a kind of new life.

On the day before the birth of their first child, Hagar asks Bram whether he likes it to be a boy or a girl, and he answers:

"I sure hope it's a boy," he said.

...

"Why should you care if it's a boy?" I asked.

Bram looked at me as though he wondered how

I could have needed to ask.

"It would be somebody to leave the place to," he said.

I saw then with amazement that he wanted his dynasty no less than my father had. In that moment when we might have touched our hands together, Bram and I, and wished each other well, the thought uppermost in my mind was — the nerve of him. (Laurence, 1993, p.101)

From these words, Hagar sees that both Jason Currie and Bram Shipley possess a dream of dynasty and a strong desire to establish a world of their own where they can control everything. Hagar's marriage to Bram just makes Hagar move from one patriarchal pioneer figure to another.

When Hagar finds it hard for John to bear the bad reputation of Bram Shipley, she decides to leave Bram with John. Because she wants to provide a better living surroundings for her favorite son John, who does not get along well with Bram either, and make John receive better education. She plans to turn John into a decent man like his grandfather, Jason Currie. So she has to leave Bram.

Finally, the last thing which urges Hagar to leave Bram to obtain her "truer image", to keep searching for her freedom happens on a trip into Manawaka one Saturday. Hagar goes into town with John to sell eggs, so she can have some money of her own. She goes to one house which belongs to her childhood acquaintance, Lottie. Lottie's daughter, Arelene, answers the door and announces Hagar as the "egg woman." Lottie's husband, Telford Simmons, who is also Hagar's childhood acquaintance, now is a bank manager. After leaving bank manager's house, Hagar begins to try and elevate herself by speaking deprecatingly about Telford Simmons: "Such a homely boy he used to be... and none too clever, either. He's got there more by good-luck than good management, if you ask me" (Laurence, 1993, p.132-33). When John tells her to shut up, she realizes that she has lost sight of herself and needs to look closely at who she has become. Hagar enters into a public washroom. She needed a mirror to look at herself closely. "How a person could change so much and never see it. So gradually it happens" (Laurence, 1993, p.133). She sees a person clothed in men's apparel, with an altered body, and a face that does not belong to her.

I was wearing, I saw, a man's black overcoat that Marvin had left. It was too big for John and impossibly small for Bram. It still had a lot of wear left in it, so I'd taken it. The coat bunched and pulled up in front, for I'd put weight on my hips, and my stomach had never gone flat again after John was born. Twined around my neck was a knitted scarf,

hairy and navy blue, that Bram's daughter Gladys had given me one Christmas. On my head a brown tam was pulled down to keep my ears warm. My hair was gray and straight. I always cut it myself. The face — a brown and leathery face that wasn't mine. Only the eyes were mine, staring as though to pierce the lying glass and get beneath to some truer image, infinitely distant (Laurence, 1993, p.133).

After leaving the public Rest Room, she becomes acutely aware of her present situation of her life. She thinks that she firstly need to buy some clothes that would "render [her] decent" (Laurence, 1993, p.134). She must return to her father's space where no longer belongs to her father any more in order to remake herself. However, she hears her husband's voice in that store. Through the rest of the noise she hears Bram asking for stale doughnuts, but the clerk understands Bram's request as a request for lemon extract to sell to Charlie Bean. The clerk says to the manager, "They get three times the price for it, from the Indians, for drinking" (Laurence, 1993, p.135). Hagar does not care about whether the clerk's assessment is true. She sees her life magnified before her, and it is a life that she knows she must leave.

All these urge Hagar to rebel against Bram's control and leave Manawaka with John to begin with a kind of new life.

### C. *Hagar's Rebellion against Her Elder Son*

The heavy guilt in Hagar's part for the death of John and Arlene becomes the heavy burden of Hagar, which not only makes her nature twisted and distorted but also influences her relationship with Marvin, her elder son she has neglected before. After John's death, Marvin and Doris move in with Hagar to take care of her. At that time, Hagar is a proud, bitter, and sick old woman, with a whip-tongue to cut and mock at her son and daughter-in-law, even at herself. It is hard to get along well with such an aging and irascible Hagar for Marvin and Doris. As time goes on, Hagar's health condition becomes worse and worse. Marvin and Doris become old as well. They feel that they cannot take care of Hagar well because of Hagar's falls and memory lapses. So they decide to put Hagar in Silver Thread, a nursing home. However, Hagar's rebellious pride still refuses to live in the nursing home. She does not want to live in the nursing home because she does not want to lose her own house and all her belongs. To Hagar, these objects cannot be discarded or abandoned. These objects are what define her identity and what link her to her past. Hagar feels that when these possessions are removed, she herself will cease to exist. What's more, Hagar is always independent. She cannot imagine that she will be taken care of like a baby. Hagar cannot bear these, so her rebellion against her elder son is unavoidable.

So when Marvin and Doris finally decide to send Hagar to the nursing home, Hagar has realized that the only way to change her fate is to rebel against them, escaping to a remote place so that she can keep her independence and freedom.

## III. HAGAR'S AWAKENING

Laurence believes, before the characters can rise up to set themselves free, they must achieve confidence in themselves; before they can express themselves and communicate with others, they must first know themselves. Before Hagar achieves her spiritual freedom, she must first know herself. So she struggles to search for her self-identity and spiritual freedom all her life.

At the age of ninety, when at the mercy of her physical debility and her revolting against its manifestations, Hagar wrangles with Marvin and Doris who try to help her. Fearing that they might send her to the nursing home, she makes a desperate attempt to flee to the Shadow Point, a deserted fish cannery. This journey, as the road sign "To The Point" indicates, leads right to the revelation of her authentic self, and this "jailbreak is a descent into self which is healing" (Morley, 1991, p.78). On her way and during her staying there, she finds that she cannot control her bodily functions: how she needs to stop to compose herself again and again, how long and how difficult it is for her to recover from a fall to the ground, and how forgetful she is to go there without bringing a single drop of water. Trapped in the improper functions of her body, she recalls the services Marvin and Doris have provided her. She once thought that they are too fussy in offering their filial duties, yet she knows now how important and necessary their care means to her. The two levels of narration — the present that carries Hagar from her determination to avoid the nursing home to the cannery and then to the hospital after her rescue, and the past that carries her retrospection upon her life — come to fuse together "here in the cannery and all the errors [her errors] have been laid bare and admitted" (Thomas, 1975, p.65).

During her stay in the cannery Hagar encounters Murray F. Lees. Lees produces a jug of wine, with Hagar making her offering of soda biscuits, the two enjoy their banquet. Hagar drinks a lot with Lees, and listens to his story of losing his infant son in a fire. Lees lives with the tragedy of his son's death; the child was burned to death in a fire at his home, while his parents were praying at the Redeemer's Advocates' Tabernacle for a revelation about the coming of the New Kingdom. From time to time he escapes with a jug of wine. Here, Laurence's immediate point is that Hagar is not alone in her grief. Lees, his wine, and his compulsive telling of his tragic life story propel Hagar towards her final enlightenment and her only possible escape from guilt and self-torment: she comes to confess to him the part of her life she has always been unable to face — her responsibility in John's death. In her confusion, Hagar mistakes Mr. Lees for her lost son, John, and tells him that she won't come between John and Arlene. Mr. Lees pretends to be John and forgives her. This allows Hagar to forgive herself. For the first time, she cries about how she has hurt her son, John. Hagar never cries for her dear deceased ones — Dan, Bram, John — because she despises female weakness, and also because her pride inherited from her father has taught her never to show her emotion in public. Her confession and cry make her return true and female, and also face her past.



Lees is Hagar's guide, even though he is not a good example himself, he guides her towards the proper attitude toward life. Hagar comes to learn that "how you see a thing — it depends which side of the fence you're on" (Laurence, 1993, p.224) and that "things never look the same from the outside as they do from the inside" (Laurence, 1993, p.229), Hagar is more inclined to consider other people's feelings.

Later, Lees reports Hagar's whereabouts to Marvin to rescue the old woman. Lees explains, "It was for your own good." Hagar replies, "Can't stop... Born in us — meddle, meddle — couldn't stop to save our souls" (Laurence, 1993, p. 252). But then Hagar realizes that Lees saves her life. And "compulsively, hardly knowing what I'm doing, I reach out and touch his wrist" (Laurence, 1993, p.253). "I didn't mean to speak crossly. I — I'm sorry about your boy." Speaking these special words is a breakthrough for Hagar. Lees helps Hagar to forgive herself. Now Hagar offer gesture and words to help Lees live.

Hagar is sent to the hospital. At first she is again too proud to accept the company of women. She is cantankerous, her thoughts and words are hurtful weapons, and she has no tolerance for those around her on the ward. She feels superior to women, such as Mrs. Dobereiner who speaks German, as they are "foreigners" (Laurence, 1993, p.260). For Hagar, simply being a woman is foreign. She does not believe that she is calling out in pain and delirium in the same way that they are (Laurence, 1993, p.261). Her pride does not accept this picture of herself. Luckily for Hagar, a Good Mother is there to help her continue her search for her self-identity and spiritual freedom. Elva Jardine guides her to the final stage in her journey towards her spiritual freedom. For Hagar, this community must be a female one where she can learn to value her own female qualities. Hagar learns from Mrs. Jardine because Elva is tough in spirit, as well as compassionate toward other women and tender in the love she exhibits toward her husband.

Hagar has believed in female weakness and she has embraced what she sees as male strength until it has become the core of her pride. With the guidance of the women in the hospital, Hagar discovers that she can integrate the male and female parts of the psyche and achieve wholeness and complete her voyage. She must accept that women's qualities are as valuable as men's qualities.

Initially, she does not respect Elva because she represents women as "flimsy as moth wings" — exactly what Hagar has loathed throughout her life (Laurence, 1993, p.269). When Hagar sees that Elva shows strength and kindness for others in the face of death, her opinion changes. Sandra is strong and weak at the same time. She admits to being afraid of an operation, yet, she has the courage to stay with Hagar though she is initially afraid to be with someone who is dying. Through the examples of these women, Hagar is able to reconcile being "hard" and "soft" at the same time. In accepting these representatives of her mother, she can deny the hold that her father's values have had on her.

During Hagar's staying in the hospital, Mr. Troy comes to visit Hagar again. Until now she has seen the minister as not strong enough to be worthy of her respect. When she hears him sing she realizes that having joy is more important than having power. Joy allows one to cherish life and love.

This knowing comes upon me so forcefully, so shatteringly, and with such a bitterness as I have never felt before. I must always, always, have wanted that — simply to rejoice. How is it I never could? I know, I know. How long have I known? Or have I always known, in some far crevice of my heart, some cave too deeply buried, too concealed? Every good joy I might have held, in my man or in any child of mine or even the plain light of morning, of walking the earth, all were forced to a standstill by some brake of proper appearances — oh, proper to whom? When did I ever speak the heart's truth?

Pride was my wilderness, and the demon that led me there was fear. I was alone, never anything else, and never free, for I carried my chains within me, and they spread out from me and shackled all I touched. Oh, my two, my dead. Dead by your own hands or by mine? Nothing can take away those years. (Laurence, 1993, p.292)

This admission by Hagar shows that she has successfully completed her quest. With nothing to fear, with her self left alone, she gains a new understanding of her free and authentic self. She makes amends in small ways such as when she takes back the harsh words she flings at Doris.

"Doris — I didn't speak the truth. He [Mr. Troy] sang for me, and it did me good" (Laurence, 1993, p.293).

Hagar apologizes to Marvin: "You've not been cranky Marvin. You've been good to me always, a better son than John" (*The Stone Angel*, 304). Marvin shows abundant love and sacrifices a lot for his mother. Marvin emerges as a credible character.

Here at the end of her life Hagar learns that sometimes a lie spoken with "a kind of love" (Laurence, 1993, p.307) is better than the truth.

Something truly free that I've done in ninety years. I can think of only two acts that might be so, both recent. One was a joke — yet a joke only as all victories are, the paraphernalia being unequal to the event's reach. The other was a lie — yet not a lie, for it was spoken at least and at last with what may perhaps be a kind of love (Laurence, 1993, p.307).

The joke here refers to her clumsy and unsuccessful fleeing to the cannery away from the care of Marvin and Doris, and the lie at last told by her is that Marvin is to her a better son than John. Here, Hagar breaks through her self-imposed toughness and begins to express her human and maternal response more openly, more compassionately. By the end of the novel, Hagar is not a stone angel again but a woman with love. She dies peacefully, with a measure of self-recognition, freedom, and joy. She acquires the objects of her life's quest.

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# Exploring the Relationship between Willingness to Communicate in English, and Social/Cultural Capital among Iranian Undergraduate English Majors

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**Abstract**—Previous research into willingness to communicate in a second language (L2WTC) has focused primarily on its psychological aspects, and its socio-cultural nature is under explored. Framed with a socio-cultural perspective on second language learning, this study examined the relationship between L2 willingness to communicate, social/cultural capital and its five underlying factors including cultural competence, social competence, social solidarity, literacy, and extraversion in the Iranian EFL context. To this end, the Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire (SCCQ) by Pishghadam, Noghani, and Zabihi (2011) and WTC questionnaire by MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrad (2001) were administered to a sample of 312 English-major students from three universities in Iran. The Pearson product-moment correlation showed the existence of highly significant correlations between all five factors of SCCQ and learners' L2WTC. Moreover, results from the regression analysis revealed that cultural competence and literacy were the best predictors of WTC. The implications of the study are discussed.

**Index Terms**—willingness to communicate, social capital, cultural capital, Iranian EFL learners

## I. INTRODUCTION

The construct of willingness to communicate was originally conceptualized by McCroskey and Baer (1985) as an individual difference in first language (L1) and was defined as the probability to engage in communication when given the choice (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). In recent decades, the construct has received a great deal of attention in the field of second language (L2) education. The reason for such interest may be the important role accorded to interaction and communication in L2 acquisition within modern language pedagogy (Kang, 2005). Indeed, as stated by Dörnyei (2005), the goal of language learning is to improve the learners' communicative competence in the target language.

The construct of willingness to communicate in second language (L2WTC) was conceptualized by MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998). They defined WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse, at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using L2" (p. 547). According to this model, WTC could be affected by various social, linguistic, and communicative variables. The review of related literature shows that many studies have explored L2 WTC in relation to various individual differences (ID); these studies have focused on variables such as motivation (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996), personality (MacIntyre & Carre, 2000), self-confidence (Ghonsooly, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2012), shyness, and anxiety (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000, 2003; Yashima, 2002), attitude (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). Yet, despite the rich findings from previous research, little effort has been devoted to studying L2 WTC in association with socio-cultural aspects of language learning in EFL contexts. In countries where English is learned as a foreign language (EFL), learners' socio-cultural background significantly affects their L2 communication (Liu & Jackson, 2008; Peng, 2007; Wen & Clément, 2003). Therefore, the role which socio-cultural factors play in L2 WTC is in need of close examination. However, to date, these aspects have remained largely underexplored. This study, framed with a socio-cultural perspective, aims to investigate social and cultural capital interrelations with L2 WTC, by focusing on Iranian Undergraduate English-Majors within the context of their EFL classrooms.

The study also attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between social and cultural capital and L2 willingness to communicate in the EFL context?

2. Which factors underlying social/cultural capital (i.e., social competence, social solidarity, cultural competence, literacy, and extraversion) can best predict L2 willingness to communicate in the EFL context.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Trait-like vs. Situational WTC

The concept of WTC was first developed on the basis of Burgoo's (1976) concept of unwillingness to communicate, and was considered to explain individual differences in L1 communication. This construct was conceptualized as a trait-like, personality-based predisposition which tends to be stable over time and across situations and with various receivers (Kang, 2005). From this viewpoint, McCroskey and Richmond (1987, 1990) defined WTC as the intention of an individual to commence communication when free to do so. Reflecting the trait-like view of WTC, researchers have investigated the effect of other individual difference (ID) variables on WTC and have found self-perceived communication competence and communication apprehension to be the strongest predictors of WTC (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre, 1994; McCroskey & Richmond, 1991). Research has also shown that self-confidence (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003), motivation (Hashimoto, 2002), international posture (Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004), gender and age (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2002) also influence WTC.

The situational WTC which was first introduced by MacIntyre et al. (1998) called the trait-like view of WTC into question. This new perspective claims that there are some situational factors which can potentially affect an individual's WTC. MacIntyre et al. (1998), defined L2WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (p. 547). They proposed a heuristic model in pyramid-shaped structure (figure 1) to show the range of potential influences on WTC in the L2.

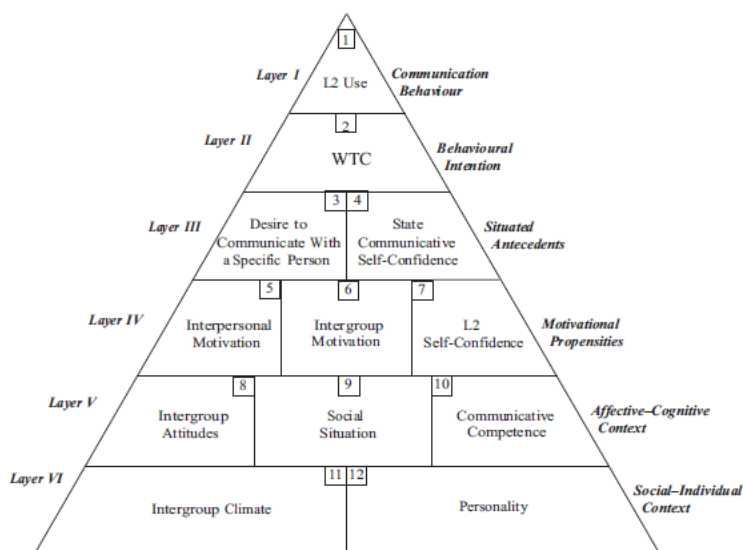


Fig. 1. Pyramid model of WTC by MacIntyre et al. (1998).

This model integrates various linguistic, psychological, and social variables as constitutive influences underlying L2WTC and L2 use. These variables encompass personality, communicative competence, social situation; intergroup climate, attitudes, and motivation; interpersonal motivation; L2 self-confidence (trait and state); and the desire to communicate with a specific person. This theoretical model implies that L2 WTC is a composite variable influenced by the joint effect of both internal and external variables to individual learners (Peng & Woodrow, 2010).

Subsequent research has supported the intertwined relationships between L2 WTC and individual difference variables. For example, self-confidence was found to be the most immediate antecedent of L2 WTC (Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Yashima, 2002). Attitudes and motivation conceptualized under the social psychological approach (Gardner, 1985) are also found to be closely related to L2 WTC. Many L2 WTC studies, conducted by this model have identified significant correlations between L2 WTC and attitudes and motivation (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002).

In the EFL context, studies were conducted to explore the influence of culture on learners' WTC. For example, Wen and Clément (2003) in their study on WTC in the Chinese setting found that elements such as other-directed self, face concerns and a submissive way of learning are the driving force shaping Chinese students' perceptions and learning behaviors in class. Peng's (2007) qualitative study among Chinese university students also showed similar cultural influences. Peng identified eight themes (classified into two contexts) that influence L2 WTC: Themes under the individual context are communication competence, language anxiety, risk-taking, and learners' beliefs, and the social context includes classroom climate, classroom organization, group cohesiveness, and teacher support, (Peng 2010).

### B. *Social and Cultural Capital*

Bourdieu (1986) refers to cultural capital as different forms of knowledge, education, skills, and advantages that a person possesses, which give them a higher status in society. It has three subtypes: embodied, objectified and institutionalized state (Bourdieu, 1986). The embodied state refers to long-lasting dispositions of the individual's mind and body (Bourdieu, 1986). The objectified state refers to cultural goods such as paintings, writings, dictionaries, and monuments (Bourdieu, 1986). The institutionalized state refers to educational degrees and formal qualifications. There is growing evidence that cultural capital tends to be a crucial factor in students' progress in different areas of academic achievement such as school grades (DiMaggio, 1982; Khodadady & Zabihi, 2011), educational attainment (De Graaf, De Graaf, & Kraaykamp, 2000; Merenluoto, 2009; Nakhaie & Curtis, 1998), and student persistence (Sandefur, Meier, & Hernandez, 1999; Wells, 2008).

Social capital has also been studied extensively in various fields. It was first introduced by Bourdieu (1986) who defined it as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition." (p. 248). This concept was used by Coleman (1988) for the family context, with emphasis on the parent-child relationship, and the outcomes of this relationship on the educational achievement of the children. Bourdieu (1986) approached social capital from a sociological perspective and Coleman (1988) from an educational perspective. These arguments put forward by Bourdieu and Coleman resulted in a large volume of research studies which examined the relation of social capital to other variables, such as academic achievement (Pishghadam & Khajavy, 2013; Pishghadam & Zabihi, 2011). Several research studies have attempted to examine the relationship between social capital and different psychological traits and mental states. For example, Scheffler et al. (2007) examined the role of social capital in reducing psychological distress. Their results showed that social capital was negatively correlated with psychological distress. In a longitudinal study, Steinfield, Ellison, and Lampe (2008) investigated the association of self-esteem and social capital. They analyzed data collected from the users of an online social network (Facebook). The results revealed that there was a significant association between social capital and users' self-esteem. In another study, Epcacan and Epcacan (2010) investigated the effect of socio-economic and cultural factors on students' reading comprehension and self-efficacy perception. The results of their study highlighted the role of the family environment and the habits of buying newspapers and reading books on students' self-efficacy perception and reading comprehension. In a research project Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) reported students with different levels of social and cultural capital were given nonexistent words and were asked to define each of those words; they observed that students from higher classes were creative enough to venture a guess for each word, but working class students just admitted that they did not know what the words meant. Many other studies have explored the importance of the socio-cultural aspects of creativity (e.g., Bennis & Biederman, 1997; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Fischer, 2005; Fischer, Giaccardi, Eden, Sugimoto, & Ye, 2005; Glaveanu, 2010; John-Steiner, 2000). Although many studies have highlighted the importance of social and cultural capital on psychological traits and individual differences, no study has conducted to examine their effects on willingness to communicate in second language. The present study seeks to occupy this existing niche.

## III. METHODOLOGY

### A. *Participants*

The participants in this study included 312 Iranian EFL learners majoring in the two sub-fields of English language studies, namely English Literature and Language Teaching. The data was collected from three universities in Mashhad and Bojnord, two cities located in north east of Iran. The participants' age ranged from 17 to 36 years ( $M=21.65$   $SD=3.10$ ). 232 students were female (74.35%), and 78 (25%) were male; while the gender of two of the participants (0.64%) was unspecified in the administered questionnaire. The participants' class standing at the freshmen level was, 18.8 % at the sophomore level, 33.9% at the junior level 29.5%, and 17.9 % at the senior level. The reason for selecting the participants from college students was that all of the students prior to entering college had studied English as a foreign language for six years in high school and secondary school, and the majority of the them (more than 90%) had also studied English as a foreign language in language institutes prior to entering college. Moreover, the students passed courses in General English (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) as well as courses in English literature, and language teaching such as short stories, poetry, teaching methodology, and language testing in their university curriculum. All of the university courses were taught in English by Iranian non-native speaker instructors. The students interacted in English with teachers and classmates. Therefore, they were assumed to have adequate exposure to both written and spoken English input in almost all of their classes. In Iran, students majoring in English generally receive the most amount of English instruction, compared to other available university majors. Therefore, the participants' language proficiency ranged from intermediate to advance level; and it could be stated that language proficiency, as a factor which affects willingness to communicate (Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2012), was for the most part controlled.

### B. *Instruments*

#### *Social and Cultural Capital questionnaire*

The Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire (SCCQ) constructed and validated by Pishghadam, Noghani, and Zabihi (2011) was used to measure social and cultural capital. It consists of 42 items on a 5-point scale, measuring five

factors underlying social and cultural capital including social competence (15 items), social solidarity (11 items), cultural competence (7 items), literacy (6 items), and extraversion (3 items). The reliability index for five sub-scales of the SCCQ (.84) is at an acceptable level.

#### *Willingness to communicate questionnaire*

L2WTC inside the classroom was tested using a 27-item-questionnaire developed by MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrad (2001). Items were on a 5-point scale ranging from *almost never willing* to *almost always willing* (with 1 = almost never willing, 2 = sometimes willing, 3 = willing half of the time, 4 = usually willing, and 5 = almost always willing). The items were grouped into four skill areas: speaking (8 items), comprehension (5 items), reading, (6 items), and writing (8 items). All four sub-scales of the L2WTC enjoy a high rate of reliability (.92). This scale includes both active (e.g., speaking) and receptive skills (e.g., reading), because receptive skills may foster the learners' WTC in other areas of language use, if given the opportunity.

#### C. Procedure

Before the data collection, permission was obtained from the instructors to use their class time for the purpose of data collection. The questionnaires were administered during the period of two weeks in the second semester of the 2013–2014 academic year. Prior to distributing the questionnaires, students were all informed of the objective of the study and they were assured that their participation would be anonymous and at no cost to their academic assessment.

The data gathered from the two questionnaires was analyzed using SPSS version 16 program. The Pearson product-moment correlation was applied to the data to examine the relation of SCCQ subscales to learners' willingness to communicate. Moreover, The Multiple Regression Analysis with a Stepwise Method was run to detect the best predictors of willingness to communicate in terms of social and cultural capital subscales.

### IV. RESULTS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive results of the two instruments: The L2WTC and the SCCQ.

All four sub-scales of the L2WTC enjoy a high rate of reliability (.92), and the reliability index for five sub-scale of the SCCQ (.84) is at an acceptable level.

TABLE 1:  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF LEARNERS' SCORE ON SCCQ AND WTC

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
wtc	93.50	21.31	312
sc	45.60	11.46	312
ss	42.13	7.92	312
lit	22.70	5.31	312
cc	23.32	4.73	312
ex	9.80	3.03	312

#### B. Correlation between SCCQ Subscales and L2WTC

The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to explore whether there is a significant correlation between the learners' social and cultural capital and their L2 willingness to communicate (L2WTC). As shown in Table 2, there are significant correlations between learners' L2WTC and all subscales on the SCCQ: social competence ( $r = 0.36$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), social solidarity ( $r = 0.35$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), literacy ( $r = 0.44$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), cultural competence ( $r = 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and extraversion ( $r = 0.24$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Moreover, a significant correlation was found between L2WTC and learners' total score on SCCQ ( $r = 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (see table 3).

TABLE 2:  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SCCQ FACTORS AND LEARNERS' SCORES ON WTC

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1- Willingness to communicate	1					
2-Social competence	.36**	1				
3-Social solidarity	.35**	.42	1			
4-Literacy	.44**	.28	.20	1		
5-Cultural competence	.52**	.36	.41	.42	1	
6-Extraversion	.24**	.22	.28	.19	.22	1

\*  $P < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.01$ ,

TABLE 3:  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TOTAL SCCQ AND LEARNERS' SCORE ON WTC

		scc	wtc
scc	Pearson Correlation	1	.55**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
	N	312	312
wtc	Pearson Correlation	.55**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	
	N	312	312

\* P<0.05, \*\*p<0.01,

### C. Prediction of Willingness to Communicate by SCCQ Factors

The results for learners' willingness to communicate were regressed on the variables of interest in this study (SCCQ subscales). The results reveal the variables which are important in predicting higher willingness to communicate on the part of learners. As shown in Table 4, social and cultural capital accounted for 34 % of the variance in WTC [F (5) = 12.57, p<.001, Adj. R<sup>2</sup>=.34]. Literacy ( $\beta$ =.24, t=2.79, p<.05), and cultural competence ( $\beta$ =.31, t=3.38, p<.05), were the best predictors of L2 willingness to communicate.

TABLE 4:  
THE RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR SCCQ SUBSCALES AND LEARNERS' WTC

Factor	Predictor	Beta	T
WTC	Social competence	.12	1.43
	Social solidarity	.10	1.13
	Literacy	.24	2.79**
	Cultural competence	.31	3.38**
	Extraversion	.07	.88
	F(5)	12.57***	
	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	.34	

\* P<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

## V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the role of social-cultural factors (i.e., social competence, social solidarity, cultural competence, literacy, and extraversion) in L2 willingness to communicate, and to determine their predictive power in L2WTC. Results of the study showed that social-cultural factors significantly correlated with L2WTC. Having conducted the regression analysis, however, it was found that only two subscales of the SCCQ (i.e., cultural competence and literacy which are the components of cultural capital) were best predictors of higher L2WTC scores.

Cultural competence, which is a component of cultural capital, is the label for the factors measuring the extent to which individuals enjoy listening to classical music, visit museums, theaters, or attend concerts, know famous music composers, take art or music classes outside school and their proficiency in using language (Pishghadam, Noghani, & Zabihi, 2011). Our findings suggest that "cultural competence" is a good predictor of L2WTC. This may be because some English major students who wish to improve their listening ability are advised by their instructors and more proficient peers to make use of English language media. These forms of media can partially compensate for the lower level of exposure received by learners in an EFL setting. These media forms include movies, music, various forms of publications (e.g., books, newspapers, magazines and comics) in the English language. This engagement with authentic materials, like English songs, increases the learners' ability to comprehend and use the English language. Hence, it can be said that EFL students who are exposed to such forms of media frequently enjoy a good level of language proficiency (Bahrani, & Sim, 2011). As shown by Matsuoka and Evans (2005), Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008) Alemi and Pashmforoosh (2012), learners with high language proficiency are more willing to communicate in a second language. In addition to contributing to the learners' proficiency level, English movies, music and publications also add to their grasp of culture, in general, and the target language culture, in particular. Moreover, it is quite common for people who exhibit an interest in the arts by attending concerts, going to the theater and taking part in music classes, and visiting museums to be more social (e.g., Eun, 2009) and probably more willing to communicate.

Literacy, as the other factor which was found to predict WTC, is a sub-scale of cultural capital and refers to the learners' interest in reading and knowing of literature, their general taste in books, their buying/borrowing/ownership of books, and their parents' degree of encouragement with regard to their reading behavior during school days (Pishghadam, Noghani, & Zabihi, 2012). This predictive can possibly be explained by the fact that the participants of the study were English- major student, and they have passed some courses in literature (courses such as poetry, novel, short stories, to name but a few). As a result, it is not unexpected for them to read and know a good deal about literature and to also enjoy a high level of literary knowledge. Moreover, in literature classes, students take the opportunity to share their ideas, attitudes, and feeling with others.

Social capital components (i.e., social solidarity, social competence, and extraversion) did not show any predictive power for WTC. Bourdieu (1986) defines social capital as children's relationships with teachers, parents, siblings, and peers. From this definition, it can be inferred that social capital primarily concerns children and cannot be easily applied to adults. In the Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire (SCCQ) by Pishghadam, Noghani, and Zabihi (2011), which was used in this study, 23 out of the 29 questions which measure social capital were directly concerned with child-parent relationships (see appendix 1). In the present study, the participants' age ranged from 19 to 37; some were married and a few were parents; therefore, it is safe to say that the majority of participants in this study led lives independent from those of their parents. This might account for the failure of social capital components to predict WTC.

In the end, it must be emphasized that students from richer socio-cultural backgrounds, who are receiving social support seemingly tend to be more willing to communicate in English (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001). It is therefore vital to study the ways in which parents and teachers can function as enablers and foster the students' willingness to communicate in English through the enrichment of home-school socio-cultural situations. Teachers and parents can contribute to the enrichment of these situations by providing more books, especially literary ones, encouraging reading habits, using multi-media, computers, and the internet during the teaching and learning process, establishing a friendly atmosphere and allowing students to express their ideas, feeling, and attitudes.

This research was conducted among Iranian English-major university students. Further research might be conducted for other EFL contexts and other university majors. Regarding the socio-cultural factors, only subscales of social and cultural capital were examined in this study. Future studies can examine the role of the other socio-cultural factors in EFL contexts.

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#### APPENDIX

##### The factors of Social and Cultural Capital Questionnaire

<p><b>Factor 1: Social Competence</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. My mother used to get involved in my primary schooling.</li> <li>2. My parents usually get involved in my daily activities.</li> <li>3. My parents used to help me with my homework regularly.</li> <li>4. I frequently perform activities together with my parents.</li> <li>5. My mom used to encourage me in my school activities regularly.</li> <li>6. My mom used to attend school meetings regularly.</li> <li>7. I feel I have a strong help network for my activities.</li> <li>8. At home, my parents keep track of my progress.</li> <li>9. My parents used to volunteer for school projects.</li> <li>10. My parents used to have a regular connection with my school.</li> <li>11. My parents know parents of my friends.</li> <li>12. I used to participate in school activities regularly.</li> <li>13. I used to participate in extracurricular activities.</li> <li>14. My parents used to monitor my homework regularly.</li> <li>15. My parents used to have a say in school policy.</li> </ol>
<p><b>Factor 2: Social Solidarity</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I regularly talk with my parents.</li> <li>2. I like to get involved in activities designed for young people.</li> <li>3. I have friends with high educational expectations.</li> <li>4. I had an excellent school with high quality.</li> <li>5. My parents know where I am, what I do.</li> <li>6. I usually talk about job/education with family.</li> <li>7. I usually talk about job/education with other adults.</li> <li>8. I feel I have strong ties with the community.</li> <li>9. I feel I have strong ties with my peers.</li> <li>10. My parents have strong ties with each other.</li> <li>11. We have an intimate home environment.</li> </ol>
<p><b>Factor 3: Literacy</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I enjoy reading literature.</li> <li>2. I know a lot about literature.</li> <li>3. I frequently buy/borrow books.</li> <li>4. I enjoy reading (in general).</li> <li>5. As a child, my parents regularly encouraged me to read.</li> <li>6. We have lots of books at home.</li> </ol>



**Factor 4: Cultural Competence**

1. I enjoy listening to classical music.
2. I am a cultured person.
3. I know all famous music composers.
4. I frequently visit museums, theaters, or attend concerts.
5. I like to attend symphony concerts.
6. I used to take art or music classes outside school.
7. I am highly proficient in using language.

**Factor 5: Extraversion**

1. I see my siblings weekly.
2. I see my grandparents weekly.
3. I see my friends weekly.

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# Comparison of Cultural Backgrounds of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature\*

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**Abstract**—Attention has been increasingly paid to cyberliterature which is a newly developmental type of literature. The creation and development of Chinese and western cyberliterature manifest the distinctive cultural backgrounds. Comparison of the cultural backgrounds is conducted from the following three aspects: different traditional spirit and different realistic environments of Chinese and western cyberliterature and different impact of popular literature on Chinese and western cyberliterature. Through this paper people can understand the different cultural backgrounds of Chinese and western cyberliterature more comprehensively and profoundly.

**Index Terms**—Chinese, western, cyberliterature, cultural backgrounds

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years internet has developed rapidly all over the whole world, not only greatly influencing the social economic life, but also strongly hammering the traditional ideology and changing the working and living way of people. Literature appeared following the steps of human life, changed with the advent of human life on the internet and entered the time of internet to become cyberliterature. (Guo, 2013).

By the end of 20<sup>th</sup> century cyberliterature has become a new member of Chinese and western literature. Studying the developmental states, different features and cultural backgrounds of cyberliterature and focusing on the technicality and innovation are the subject of literary research.

Nowadays in a large number of monographs and articles cyberliterature is discussed and studied. Aarseth's book *Cybertext* initiated the discussion of definition and features of cyberliterature in the West. Many western scholars participated in the discussion. Domestically a great many academic institutions and scholars are engaged in the research of cyberliterature. The teachers headed by Ouyang Youquan in Central South University published the monograph *An Outline of the Network Literature and Professor Forum of Network Literature*, established the first research institute of cyberliterature and built the website *Research of Online Culture*.

Cyberliterature in China and the West will be studied in the perspective of comparative literature. Chinese and western societies have different developmental histories, are pregnant with different cultural spirit and manifest different realistic cultural contexts and own distinct literary traditions. These cultural factors impact Chinese and western cyberliterature directly and indirectly. (Wang, 2011).

Chinese and western cyberliterature has different traditional spirit and realistic social circumstance. Popular literature has greatly influenced the development and genres of cyberliterature in China and the West. Western industrial system and online publishing develop rapidly. Internet becomes the free space for the contemporary young people in China. Those factors contribute to the difference of cultural backgrounds between Chinese and western cyberliterature.

The cultural backgrounds of cyberliterature in China and the West will be compared from the following aspects: different traditional spirit and different realistic environments and different impact of popular literature on Chinese and western cyberliterature.

## II. COMPARISON OF CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS OF CHINESE AND WESTERN CYBERLITERATURE

### A. Different Traditional Spirit of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature

Both of Chinese and western cultures have diverse traditions and have created the glorious histories. Generally speaking, Chinese and western civilization seems to be contradictory. For example, westerners are romantic, while Chinese are realistic; Chinese culture lays emphasis on understanding, while western culture pursues speculative ideas. The reason for the different cultural spirit of Chinese and western societies dates back to the difference of natural environments. Western civilization came into being in the area of Aegean Sea. It is mountainous and adjacent to the sea. However, Chinese civilization emerged in the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River with fertile land. The distinctive natural environments lead to the reality that western social economy is commercialized, while Chinese society possesses the agricultural feature. The noticeable difference of social economies impacts on Chinese and

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\* This paper is the research result of the planning project of artistic and scientific research in Tianjin province in 2012 "The Comparative Study of the Art of Chinese and Western Network Literature" (YSDM12).

western culture and literature decisively and the influence spreads to the literary expression of cyberliterature.

Westerners adore personal freedom and equality, individual development and personal heroism because of ancient Greek democratic politics, which was established from the prosperous commercial economy. Westerners owned the rich overseas adventurous experiences, tempted by the huge commercial profits. Therefore they were addicted to pursuit and exploration forever. Their adventurous experiences are shown from the discovery of the New World to the exploration in outer space and natural scientific field. The adventurous spirit generated the thinking of society and people's fates. And the thinking developed into the religious transcendental appeal and contemporary western scientific reason. Under the influence of the cultural environment, the narrative literature full of wonders and horrors was the earliest literary genre. Generally speaking, western cultural spirit is represented by the religion, scientific exploration and romance. The basic feature is to realize the cultural and social continuation through the scientific exploration of the corporeal world and religious consciousness and to extend and enrich the living space in the exploration of the inner and external worlds.

Chinese agricultural economy breeds the according conservative religious system that suppresses the individual. Chinese traditional culture lays emphasis on cooperation and reality. The basic feature is to realize the cultural and social self-affirmation through the harmonious ethical awareness. The strict relationship between emperors and officials, father and son and husband and wife in feudal society stifles Chinese people to choose to live a peaceful and contented life, to fear adventures, to be shy to talk about affection and to be shameful of love. Chinese people were very concerned about the reality, but they didn't dare to criticize the suppressive society. So they expressed their opinions in poems. Chinese literature started with the lyric poems, but lacked the enthusiastic pursuit. After entering the contemporary society, Chinese people gained the unprecedented liberation of human nature and the personal freedom, but thousands of cultural traditions have been imprinted on their memories. Chinese people are realistic, but suppressed to lack the curiosity about the inner and outside worlds and the scientific exploratory spirit. They pursue precious love, but are in need of true love. That is the real living state of Chinese people.

When internet spreads rapidly to every corner of the society, the cultural information carried by the common Chinese people goes into the cyberspace. Traditional cultural spirit appears and updates on the internet in the form of symbols. Although internet is the global developmental net, cyberliterature of different languages possesses their own distinctive ethical features. The exploration and expression of love in cyberspace are immersed in the unique cultural atmosphere. The technical and scientific exploration of the western cyberliterature originates from the most primitive maritime adventurous experiences of the western nations, while the magic color of Chinese cyberliterature is the online representation of Chinese cultural spirit. Contemporary cyberliterature gives a very good explanation of the traditional cultural spirit.

#### *B. Different Realistic Environments of Chinese and Western Cyberliterature*

The expression in cyberliterature is the outpouring of the suppressed feelings outside the discourse space of the mainstream. All the happiness and sadness of the netizens come from their true existing cultural contexts. Although Chinese and western cyberliterature appears in the same computing environments, but in very different realistic social cultural contexts. The chief reason for the developmental difference of Chinese and western cyberliterature lies in the point that western countries have the highly developed cultural industry and online publishing, while people in Chinese society long for discourse right beyond the ideology of mainstream.

The development of the contemporary western cultural industry is mainly represented by the combination of mass culture and the cultural industrial system and the prosperity of the online publishing. James divides capitalism into three periods: Market Capitalism, Monopoly Capitalism and Postindustrial Capitalism. The contemporary western society is in the period of Postindustrial Capitalism or Late Capitalism. The trend of thought in this period is postmodernism. Capital and its logic permeate through the cultural field, which generates "cultural industry". From the concept, four features are summarized. The first one is the tendency of Antihumanism. The second one is the same style of art. The third one is the entertainment function. The fourth one is the commercial property of cultural industry. Those are the features of mainstream popular culture in the time of cultural industry. Cultural industry and mass culture of the western developed countries are closely related. The cultural industry of the western countries is the industrial productive system of the public popular cultural products.

In the era of mass culture, internet as the publishing media of contemporary capitalism becomes a very important link in the chain of capitalism cultural industry. Therefore in contemporary western society, creation, spread and publishing of online literary works are strongly commercialized. It is ubiquitous to publish and sell literary works on the English internet. In this sense internet as the new publishing media exists.

Internet is the communication platform of online publishing. The digitalization of the traditional literary works makes it possible to spread and publish the works on the internet. The trade is electronic and spreads quickly and fast and the cost is very low. Online publishing gains the spacious developmental room because of its obvious edge over the traditional one. Currently online publishing mainly includes online reading, printing, order and so on. In the western developed countries online publishing develops amazingly. The turnover of German online publishing increases by 15% annually. In America 80% of the publishing houses own their own websites.

In fact the number of English online literary works is no less than that of Chinese online ones. In Google "网络小说"

(cyberfictions) and “hypertext” are searched and the results are 27, 400,000 and 64,800,000. The latter number is bigger, which means there are more English online works than those of Chinese cyberliterature. The existing forms of Chinese and English cyberliterature are different and the attitudes of Chinese and western societies towards cyberliterature are quite different too. Chinese pay much more attention to cyberliterature, compared with westerners. Because English cyberliterature originates from western electronic literature and it is based on its mature development. Therefore the literary circle and people don't show much interest in cyberliterature. Chinese cyberliterature is influenced by the external factor and is absolutely something new, so it draws the widespread attention of the critics and the common people.

Another more important reason is that the developed western cultural industrial system and the prosperous development of the online publishing industry impact cyberliterature. As everyone knows the developed western countries always pay much attention to the copyright issues. In 1998 *the Digital Millennium Copyright Act*, aiming to protect the copyright of the digital products, was passed in American Congress according to the conference spirit of the world Intellectual property rights. That code has come into force since October 2000. People in western countries are keenly aware of copyright issues, so it's easy for them to accept the online paid reading. Writers' right can be protected and they can gain massive profits, if they publish works on the internet.

*Riding the Bullet* is a novella by Stephen King. This work marks King's debut on the Internet. Simon & Schuster, with technology by SoftLock, first published *Riding the Bullet* in 2000 as the world's first mass-market electronic book, available for download at \$2.50. In 2002, it was collected in King's collection *Everything's Eventual*. In 2000, the novella was nominated for the Bram Stoker Award for Superior Achievement in Long Fiction and the International Horror Guild Award for Best Long Form. During the first 24 hours, over 400,000 copies of "*Riding the Bullet*" were downloaded, jamming SoftLock's server. Some Stephen King fans waited hours for the download. With over 500,000 downloads, Stephen King seemed to pave the way of the publishing future.

Later in 2000, King released *The Plant* directly via his website, unencrypted and in installments. People could pay a one-dollar fee for each installment using the honor system. He threatened, however, to drop the project if the percentage of paying readers fell below 75 percent. He viewed the release as an experiment in alternate forms of distribution, writing on his website at the time. The book received more than the desired 75 percent for its first installment, but it fell to 70 percent after installment two. With the third installment, the numbers surged back to 75 percent. All told, after six installments, King revealed that he'd made nearly half a million dollars from the release of *The Plant* in what has been called his e-book experiment.

After English cyberliterature has gone into the second period, free online works begin to decrease. Currently most of the English literary websites are operated commercially. (George, 1994). Not only can well-known writers publish their works on the internet, but also the unknown literary netizens. If “cybertext” is searched in Google, the result is 45,000. Most of the works are in the online bookstores. English websites have become the platform to sell and publish the diverse genres of literary works. Websites that include substantial free reading and downloading like Rongshuxia don't exit in English cyberliterature. The rational commercial operation of English cyberliterature inhibits it from gaining the similar prosperous development of Chinese cyberliterature.

The environment of Chinese cyberliterature is quite different. Up to now infringement is not widespread, but not rare. In 1999 Wangmeng, LiuZhenyun and other six famous writers sued “Beijing Online” for infringement, which gave rise to much discussion. Nowadays most of Chinese cyberliterature works can be read and downloaded freely; cyberwriters have no payment; websites have to pay for the maintenance of the net. Only a few websites can be sponsored by advertisement to make ends meet. Most of the other websites can't survive and close down. The biggest website Rongshuxia begins to charge fees for service. Many a netizen doesn't adapt to the commercialization of the internet. It's not easy to protect the copyright of cyberliterature in Chinese virtual environment.

The online publishing industry in Chinese starts to develop rapidly. The annual output value of online publishing reaches 2.5 billion yuan, which occupies 10% of that of domestic informational industry. More than 5000 kinds of digital products, in which cyberliterature, academic works and online games occupy a large proportion, emerge annually. But the proportion of selling of original cyberliterature is not large and the online publishing of Chinese cyberliterature works is tough. The free reading and downloading of most of the cyberliterature works draws the attention of the common people, so many people participate in the promotion of the rapid development of cyberliterature.

Another important reason for the prosperity of Chinese cyberliterature is the uniqueness of contemporary Chinese social context. The eagerness of Chinese civil society for the right of free discourse contributes to the popularity of the internet. In contemporary China, the writers' association is still the national institution. The pure culture is represented by the image of authoritative literature and the publishing house is not easily accessible to the common people. As cyberspace becomes the daily life field of the common people, mass culture begins to prosper in cyberspace. At the same time, to a certain degree, the cultural democratic issues have been solved in the very free cyberspace. Chinese common people can cross all kinds of authoritative thresholds to show their own opinions about the public affairs, to express their true feelings freely and to post and publish their personal words in this public space. The similar discourse space and channels are badly needed in Chinese society, because Chinese have been under the pressure of western hegemony. Have been confronted with all kinds of political movements, Chinese people finally gain the space of free discourse. The internet brings Chinese people not only the technical innovation, but also the greatly extended discourse

space.

Most of domestic cyberwriters were born in the 70s or 80s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. This generation usually received the formal education. The socialist ethics and the advanced scientific technology construct their main structure of thought and knowledge. As the domestic concept is rooted among people and the scientific technology develops, they are experiencing the unprecedented reform of social economy and ideology. This is the rich and complex changing process. Every individual in this transitional period will encounter all kinds of enormous conflicts. The generation of Chinese young men will face the baptism and shock of traditional Chinese Confucian culture, socialist ideology and contemporary western thought. While pursuing the materialistic wealth and self-content, they are under the pressure of entering a higher school and finding jobs. The mental and physical exhaustion is behind the limitless desire, so they need the room to confide and release urgently beyond the mainstream ideology. With the arrival of the internet young men find the genuine room that belongs to them in the truly equal fictitious community.

In the West internet is the new spreading media in the technical sense, while its function in China is more than that. The young Chinese generation grows up in the era of reform and opening-up, but the youth suffers the substantial social and familial stress. The internet, which is nongovernmental, free and without the supervision of the authority, is the comparatively free discourse space. No matter whom you are and what your education is, so long as you don't invade others' privacy, you can express your ideas freely. (Cicconi, 2000). That is the reason why Chinese cyberliterature can attract the common people and critics. The liberated literary spirit, innovative horizon and free expression bring vitality to Chinese literature. Although inevitably Chinese cyberliterature has to undergo the intervention of online publishing and commercialization, young netizens still own the free discourse space and Chinese cyberliterature will continuously manifest its revolutionary and innovative spirit.

### C. *Different Impact of Popular Literature on Chinese and Western Cyberliterature*

In the society of poststructuralism, popular culture and works have entered people's daily life to become the commodities and daily consumer goods. The rapid development of Chinese and western online media in 20<sup>th</sup> century promotes the prosperity of popular culture. Internet as multi-media with powerful function puts popular culture into its own space. Under that influence Chinese and western cyberliterature tends to be popular.

America is the place where popular culture is the most prosperous. In the former half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, American novels were in fact serious fictions. But when the time of poststructuralism comes, many American critics and historians remove the contradiction between serious and popular fictions. James believes that the boundary between elegant and popular culture in poststructuralism society has disappeared and accordingly literary works of poststructuralism characterized by popularization and commercialization come into being. (Bolter, 1991). In the 60s of 20<sup>th</sup> century, the celebrated American critic Leslie Fiedler declared that the contemporary western culture was in fact popular culture. He pointed out that the classic literature was over. At the same time he analyzed the popular tendency of many well-known writers' writing. In that kind of theoretical atmosphere, the concept of popular fictions in American society began to change. Institutions of higher learning like Washington University offered the courses of popular fictions successively and in this way popular literature entered the literary history. *The Columbia of History of the United States* written in 1988 by Columbia University includes the popular works, such as love and detective novels and science fiction. The good theoretical atmosphere, in which popular fictions are recognized, has influenced the development of the internet. Besides hypertext fictions, American cyberfictions are nearly made up of popular novels. This is the continuation of popular fictions in cyberspace.

Chinese popular literature has been regarded as "folk literature", which means it is unqualified to take its place in the higher circles, so it is excluded from the orthodox literary history. Up to date it is still ignored by people. Chinese traditional literature can't exist without popular literature and is closely tied to it since its establishment. Fictions in Chinese literary history are definitely popular novels. From the May 4<sup>th</sup> Movement of new culture, popular literature began to have the negative meaning. In 1922 Mao Dun criticized popular fictions, advocated to learn from the western novels and pointed out that the popular novel had an outlook that encouraged lust and destroyed everything. The tendency that affirms western serious fictions and negates Chinese popular novels has lasted till present. In the concept of Chinese contemporary and modern literature, popular and serious fictions seem contradictory, which is caused by the negation of Chinese traditional fictions. To be popular is in fact the fundamental feature and the life of Chinese novels. The content of Chinese popular fictions consists of all aspects of Chinese traditional culture and its artistic expression has its distinctive national style. Its function is to please people and to communicate the folk customs in Chinese history with thousands of years.

There's a long way to recognize the value of Chinese contemporary popular literature. In 20<sup>th</sup> century, Chinese literary circle once had an argument that whether to put Jin Yong's swordsmen novels into the literary history. Later his fictions were accepted by the orthodox literature, mainly because there are classic literary elements in his works and his fictions greatly impact the readers. But up to now, the other swordsmen novels in popular literature are ignored by Chinese literary critics. The attitude towards popular fictions in cyberliterature is the same. When orthodox critics are attracted by the new cyberliterature, they firstly regard it as the vanguard literature, and then want to pull it into the developing track of traditional literature. They seldom focus on the massive popular fictions on the internet. When they see the internet is completely filled with martial arts, love and "obscure" Xuanhuan novels, they believe that cyberliterature has no value.

Although in 20<sup>th</sup> century Chinese popular fictions were ostracized by the mainstream awareness, the popular fictions like martial arts and love novels and so on, possess the vast folk market. When internet—the comparatively free space of expression appears, popular literature begins to develop rapidly on the internet and it reaches a wide audience.

### III. CONCLUSION

Cyberliterature goes into the view of the people with the global development of internet. Internet on the scale of the whole world becomes the new environment of literary creation and research. When people are arguing about the pros and cons of globalization, internet has sneaked into people's life everywhere all over the world. Economic globalization has come true, but obstacles and difficulties stand on the way to communication of the cultural field. In the immense cyberspace, reading and communication of cyberliterature are difficult, which is hindered by technical, lingual and cultural factors. Copyright is also a hindrance. Comparison of Chinese and western cylliterature is rare. Based on the limited materials, comparison of Chinese and western cultural backgrounds is carried out.

Chinese and western cyberliterature comes into being in the same technical environment with the different developmental states and features, influenced by the different cultural traditions and realistic contexts. The different cultural backgrounds impart Chinese and western cyberliterature distinctive characteristics. The different cultural backgrounds are shown from the following three aspects: different traditional spirit, different realistic environments and different impact of popular literature on Chinese and western cyberliterature.

Chinese and western cyberliterature develops fast with a large number of subjects. Cyberliterature has the edge over the traditional one in the aspect of technology, free literary spirit and literary form. In the futuristic development, the edge will become more and more noticeable with the global expansion of the internet. The original online free spirit and convenient online publishing bring new vitality to the literature of the world and the developmental road of cyberliterature will be wider and wider.

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# Vowel Classification and Vowel Space in Persian

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**Abstract**—This article aims to develop an acoustic vowel space in Persian speech. There are several aspects in this survey which make it different from what has been done before. The first is related to the issue of speech material. The need for more natural choice in voice qualities in recent years exhort us not relying on citation form or artificial sound produced in laboratories. Furthermore, the formant frequencies were not extracted from specified vowels, in specified context. In contrast, we are interested in the shape of vowel space determined by extremely large collections of vowel tokens, with whatever distribution of categories and context they may have in the read text. Thirdly, the vowels selected in the database for calculation of the area of vowel space are being stratified for locating in stressed or unstressed syllables, or being uttered by male or female speakers. So, we are simultaneously dealing with four groups. But the most important aspect is related to the methodology used for better plotting of vowels. Either  $F_1 * F_2$  or  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$  is led to better vowel classification is a matter being evaluated by two parameters: (a) linear discriminant analysis and (b) scatter reduction.

**Index Terms**—vowel space, outlier, linear discriminant analysis, scatter reduction

## I. INTRODUCTION

In acoustic and accordingly other related practical sciences such as signal processing, the study of the characteristics of vowel sounds has been taken a vast amount of attention. The significance of this consideration is particularly justified with the essentiality of vowels in intelligibility of speech. So, this article aims to add to vowel literature by presenting Persian an acoustic vowel space.

In articulatory phonetics, vowels are defined as a voiced sound produced by the absence of any occluding, diverting, or obstructing in the vocal tract, allowing the breath stream free passage through the larynx and oral cavity. The articulatory features that distinguish different vowel sounds are said to determine the vowel's quality. Daniel Jones (cited in Ladefoged & Johnson, 2001) developed the cardinal vowel system to describe vowels in terms of common features height (vertical dimension), backness (horizontal dimension) and roundedness (lip position).

In Acoustic phonetics, it has been established that in the production of vowels, vocal resonances are altered by the articulator to form distinguishable vowel sounds. That is, the repetitive closure of vocal folds set the different volumes of air in throat and mouth into vibration and as such a sound wave is produced. The resonances of vocal tract which are called formants are decisive means at determining the qualities of vowels (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2001; Ladefoged, 2006). There is extensive evidence going back to the nineteenth and early part of twentieth century that vowel-quality distinction depends on the first two resonances of vocal tract (Trautmuller & Lacerda, 1987, Ladefoged & Johnson, 2001, Ladefoged & Maddieson, 1999, Livonen, 1996; Harrington, 2010; Sundberg, 1977). The jaw opening, which constricts the vocal tract toward the glottal end and expands it toward the lip end, and the shape of the body of the tongue are respectively the deciding factors for the first and second formants. It should be mentioned that some researchers (Fant, 1973) consider  $F_3$  for vowels and followed  $F_1$  vs  $F_2$  plane for plotting vowel space in which  $F_2$  is a weighted average of  $F_2$  and  $F_3$ . But we did not pursue  $F_3$  and relying upon first two formants in plotting Persian vowel space in this survey for following reasons. Firstly, third formant, according to Ladefoged & Johnson(2001), has very little function in distinguishing the vowel and can be predicted fairly accurately from the frequencies of the first two formants. Secondly, the first two formants are used to contrast one vowel with another in nearly every language but others are used less frequently. Additionally, the frequency of the third formant is very much affected by the position of the lips. It so happens that Persian has no vowel with the same tongue positions but different lip position (Haghshenas, 1997; Alinezhad & hosseinibalam, 2012; Bijankhan, 2013). So, considering the first two frequencies seems sufficient in plotting Persian vowel space.

In vowels, as it is implied, the frequency of lower formants is mainly used to categorize vowel. The higher the tongue in the mouth when producing the vowel, the lower  $F_1$ . The further forward the tongue in the mouth when producing the vowel the higher  $F_2$ . The acoustic theory of speech production (Harrington, 2010) shows that there is a relationship



between phonetic height and  $F_1$  and phonetic backness and  $F_2$  from which it follows that if vowels are plotted in the plane of the first two formant frequencies with decreasing  $F_1$  on the y-axis and decreasing  $F_2$  on the x-axis, a shape resembling the vowel quadrilateral emerges. In this way, the relationship between the first and the second formant is being summarized in a vowel space plot. The vowel space illustration provides a graphical method of showing where a speech sound, such as a vowel, is located in both acoustic and articulatory space. This was first demonstrated by Essner (1947) & Joos (1948) and since then the  $F_1$ \* $F_2$  plane has become one of the standard ways of comparing vowel quality in phonetics.

In interpreting the details of vowel spaces, the traditional articulatory descriptions of vowels are related to formant frequencies, although there is no consensus in this issue. It is claimed that the correlation between the second formant frequency and the degree of backness of a vowel is not as good as that between the first frequency and the vowel height since the second formant is considerably affected by both backness and lip rounding. So to eliminate some of the effect of lip rounding, the second formant is considered in relation to the first. In other words, the degree of backness is best calculated to the differences between first and second formant frequencies (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2001; Bijankhan, 2013). That is, the closer they are together, the more "back" a vowel sounds. In this way, representing a vowel space in  $F_1$ \* $F_2$ - $F_1$  plane became one of the traditions in acoustic analysis of vowels.

In Persian, either  $F_1$ \* $F_2$  or  $F_1$ \* $F_2$ - $F_1$  is more appropriate in representing and classifying vowels is a question to be brought forth for discussion in this paper for the purpose of providing Persian a vowel space plane. In fact, accepting plotting vowels on  $F_1$ \* $F_2$ - $F_1$  plane theoretically, we are prompt to investigate practically whether  $F_1$ \* $F_2$ - $F_1$  plotting is led to a better vowel classification than  $F_1$ \* $F_2$  plane or not. The deliberation of this matter is performed considering two parameters through which vowel classification is evaluated: (a) linear discriminant analysis and (b) scatter reduction. Then, by applying the result achieved in the first stage, a vowel space for standard Persian in continuous speech is developed.

There are three aspects in this survey which make it different from what has been done in Persian before in providing vowel spaces: (1) Since in recent years, more emphasis has been placed on the research and production of more natural sounding male and female voices, we do not rely on citation form or artificial sound produced in laboratories. That is, the need for more natural choice in voice qualities is one of the major issues that has been addressed in speech synthesis in recent years, especially when considering voice output communication aids (VOCAs) and increasing needs of users of such devices. (2) Since Peterson and Barney's classic (1952) article on vowel formant patterns, the acoustic space of vowels has been studied for many languages. In most, if not all of these, the formant frequencies were extracted from specified point in specified phonetic contexts. In contrast, we are interested in the shape of vowel space determined by extremely large collections of vowel tokens, with whatever distribution of categories and context they may have in the read text. Of course it should be mentioned that we have considered prosodic context to see whether the vowel is placed in stressed syllable or unstressed one. (3) The vowels selected in the database for calculation of the area of vowel space are being stratified for locating in stressed or unstressed syllables, or being uttered by male or female speakers. So, we are simultaneously dealing with four groups: (a) vowels located in stressed syllable uttered by female, (b) vowels located in stressed syllable uttered by male, (c) vowels located in unstressed syllable uttered by female, (d) vowels located in stressed syllable uttered by male.

To be briefly familiar with Persian vowel system, it can be stated that linguistics (Alinezhad & Hosseinibalam, 2012; Bijankhan, 2013; Haghshenas, 1997) are unanimously agreed upon six-vowel /i/, /e/, /æ/, /u/, /o/, /a/ existed in Persian vowel system in which /i/, /e/, /æ/ is considered as being front and /u/, /o/, /a/ as back vowels. In Persian, the division of vowels based on rounded-unrounded feature is the same as the division based on front-backness. So, this feature is not contrastive in Persian.

## II. METHODOLOGY

### A. Data Representation

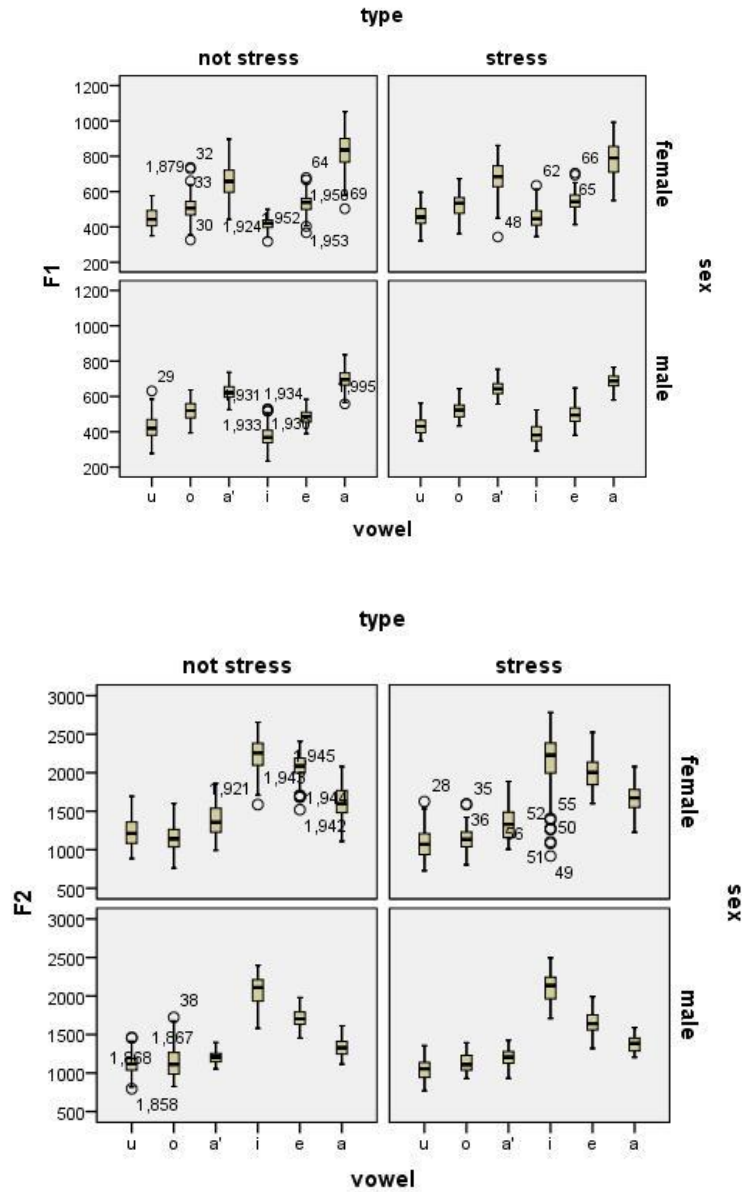
The speech material consists of recordings of IRIB Broadcasts of 10 news reporter of Persian who were stratified for their gender (5 male, 5 female). The broadcaster, aged 35-50 years, were born and raised in Tehran, Iran. They can be regarded as professional language users in standard version of Persian as they have all passed successfully many courses and examination in being expertized to speak well to be understood by Iranian population who are interested in following news. The news in question were broadcast and recorded in August and September, 2013.

### B. Formant Extraction and Outliers

Tokens of the vowels were identified from simultaneous inspection of three displays (raw wave-form, spectrum, and spectrogram). Formant values calculated by the program's LPC algorithm, using a window of 20ms and a band width of 300Hz, were read off the spectrum display at a point which was judged as indicating the main tendency of the vowel without consonantal interference, following a procedure described by Harrington, et al (2000).

In spite of considering all the related issues carefully, there occur some errors especially in large speech corpora due to formant tracking which is inevitable. So, when such errors occur, it is likely that they will show up as outliers in ellipse plot and will be deleted. Statistically, an outlier is an observation point that is distant from other observation. Outliers, if not deleted, can have dramatic effect on the ellipse orientation since they are usually far from the ellipse's

center (Harrington, 2010). The technique we follow to detect outliers is box plot pattern. In this technique, each box shows the median, quartiles and extreme values within a category. The center of the distribution can be approximated by the median or second quartile. So, half of the data values fall between the first and third quartiles. In this paper, since the same data are drawn into two different plane, three box plots (the first for the first formant, the second for the second formant and the third for the gap between formants) is needed for detecting outliers as follow (Fig. 1):



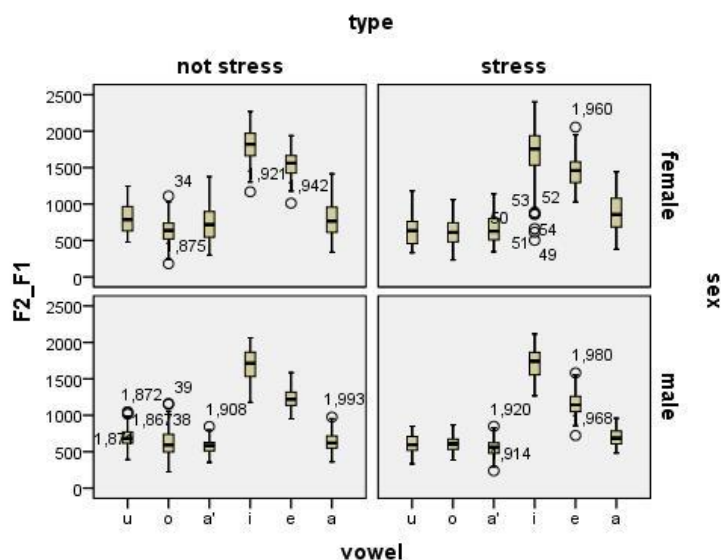


Figure 1. Three box plots for detecting outliers in F<sub>1</sub>, F<sub>2</sub>, & F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub>

Outliers are shown in the Fig. 1 with circles. They included the cases with values between 1.5 to 3 box lengths from the upper or lower edge of the box. It should be mentioned that the box length is the inter quartile range. As it is shown in the table I below, the vowel tokens decrease from 1970 to 1910 when outliers omitted.

TABLE I.  
DEMONSTRATING THE NUMBER OF TOKENS BEFORE AND AFTER DELETION

before deleting		After deleting	
Vowel	Number	vowel	Number
/u/	216	/u/	208
/o/	328	/o/	316
/a/	344	/a/	340
/i/	341	/i/	323
/e/	383	/e/	368
/æ/	358	/æ/	355
Total	1970	Total	1910

The distribution of vowel tokens in different groups and the effect of deleting the outliers can be examined in the scatter diagram. In scatter diagram, the vowel tokens are displayed as a collection of points, each having the value of the first formant determining the position on the horizontal axis and the value of the second formant determining the position on the vertical axis. In Fig. 2, the diagram plots the scattering before implementing outlier detecting and Fig.3 displays scattering after outlier deleting.

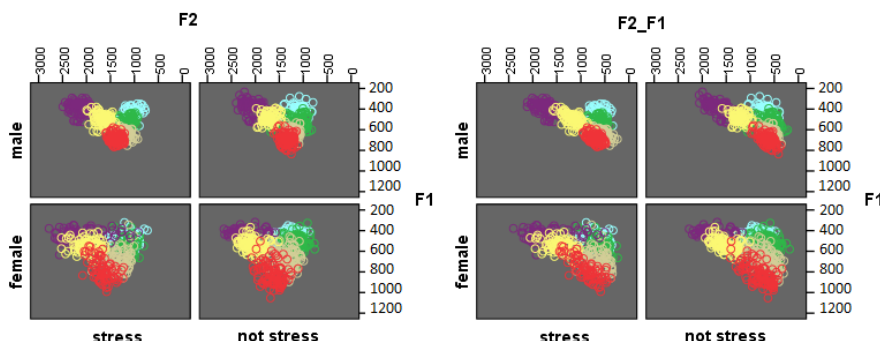


Figure 2. Scatter plot before deleting outliers

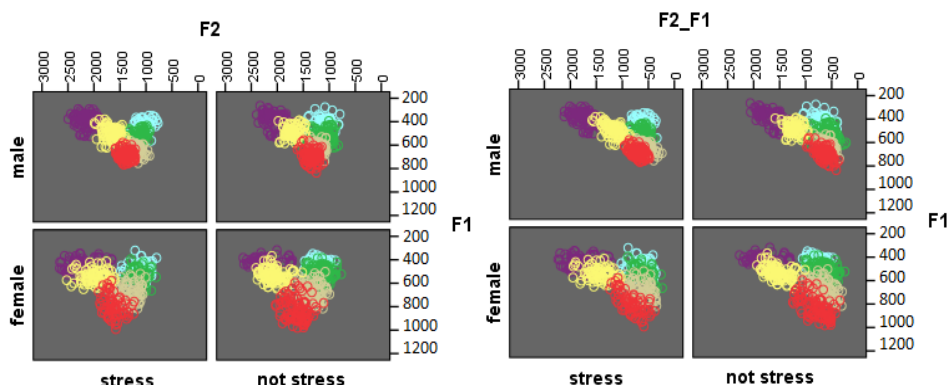


Figure 3. Scatter plot after deleting outliers

C.  $F_1 * F_2$  or  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$  Plane

It has been argued that representing vowel space based on the frequency gap between the first two formants ( $F_2 - F_1$ ) on horizontal axis can be considered as a better correlator in tracing tongue position. Assenting to this opinion, we are prompt to see how effectively plotting vowel space based on  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$  separate the Persian vowels into distinct groups corresponding to the phonetic categories of Persian in comparison with plotting on  $F_1 * F_2$  plane. Two quantifiable method is proposed here for this evaluation: (1) Linear discriminant analysis and (2) scatter reduction.

D. Linear Discriminate Analysis

Linear Discriminate analysis (LDA), proposed by reference (Weenink, 1999) and has been implemented in the Praat program, builds a predictive model for group membership. The model is a standard pattern recognition technique that uses the pooled within-groups covariance matrix of the acoustic variables to classify cases [Adank, 2004]. LDA assumes that the within-groups covariance matrices are equal across categories. It composed of a discriminate function based on linear combination of the predictor variable (In this paper,  $F_1 * F_2$  and  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$ ) that provide the best discrimination between the group (in this paper vowel categories). See table II & III below.

TABLE II.  
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSES (LDA)

Two vowel spaces	Percentages correctly classified vowel tokens	Percentages correctly classified gender	Percentages correctly Classified Stress
HZ( $F_2 - F_1 * F_1$ )	1404/1910=73.5%	1208/1910=63.2%	989/1910=51.8%
HZ( $F_2 * F_1$ )	1404/1910=73.5%	1208/1910=63.2%	989/1910=51.8%

TABLE III.  
PERCENTAGES CORRECTLY CLASSIFIED VOWEL TOKENS FOR EACH GROUP OF GENDER AND STRESS

Two vowel spaces	Female-unstress	Female-stress	male-unstress	male-stress	Average
HZ( $F_2 - F_1 * F_1$ )	423/519=81.5%	309/404=76.5%	397/489=81.2%	418/498=83.9	80.775%
HZ( $F_2 * F_1$ )	423/519=81.5%	309/404=76.5%	397/489=81.2%	418/498=83.9	80.775%

In tables II & III, the percentages of correct classification of vowel tokens based on two variables ( $F_1 * F_2$  and  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$ ) for gender and stress classification is shown. The results are surprising since all percentages are predicted to be the same. That is, there is no discrepancy between the percentages correctly classified vowel tokens for LDA  $F_1 * F_2$  and the percentages correctly classified vowel tokens for LDA  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$  in all groups and in this way, no improvement is achieved. So, it can be concluded that no one does have preference over other in classifying and discriminating vowel tokens into vowel categories.

E. Scatter Reduction

Scatter reduction parameter is selected for getting an indication of the distribution of the vowels in two mentioned planes ( $F_1 * F_2$  VS  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$ ). Disner (1980) claims that scattering is precisely quantifiable in terms of the reduction of the size of the ellipses needed to encompass the data points for each vowel. In other words, the smaller the resulting ellipses are, the more successful the plane is in classification of vowels. That is, reducing within-category variance has the greatest impact on classification (Weenink, 2001).

As it is clearly observed in Fig. 3, there are enormous spreads within each vowel class within each group for these two kinds of plane. So, it is not possible to decide which one is optimal in discriminating vowels visually. Statistically we appealed to Euclidean or straight-line distances between all vowel tokens and the centroid of the same vowel category. In two dimensional space, at first, two vowel spaces ( $F_1 * F_2$  and  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$ ) for the same data are developed and thus two centroid for each vowel category, one in  $F_1 * F_2$  and other  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$ , are calculated. Then, the Euclidean distance is calculated by summing the square of horizontal and vertical distances between the points and taking the square root [Harrington, 2010]. The results are shown in table IV for more convenience.

TABLE IV.  
THE EUCLIDEAN DISTANCE FOR EACH GROUP IN TWO PLANES

Sex	Type	Vowel	dis(F <sub>1</sub> *F <sub>2</sub> - F <sub>1</sub> )	dis( F <sub>1</sub> *F <sub>2</sub> )
Female	not stress	/u/	.2128	.2195
		/o/	.2799	.2983
		/a/	.4113	.4051
		/i/	.3049	.3792
		/e/	.3249	.3315
		/æ/	.5290	.5221
	Stress	/u/	.3800	.3865
		/o/	.3025	.2963
		/a/	.3867	.4030
		/i/	.4311	.4899
		/e/	.3185	.3452
		/æ/	.5873	.5482
Male	not stress	/u/	.3960	.4306
		/o/	.4218	.5049
		/a/	.1663	.1656
		/i/	.5397	.5688
		/e/	.2273	.2583
		/æ/	.2869	.2874
	Stress	/u/	.2660	.3105
		/o/	.2517	.2871
		/a/	.2049	.2097
		/i/	.4259	.4614
		/e/	.3872	.3906
		/æ/	.2135	.2299

It seems F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>- F<sub>1</sub> plane to have smaller Euclidean distance to the centroid of vowel categories which is proved scientifically by means of Wilcoxon test. In the Wilcoxon test, ranks are based on the absolute value of the difference between the two test variables. The sign of the difference is used to classify cases into one of three groups: differences below 0 (negative ranks), above 0 (positive rank), or equal to 0 (ties). Tied cases are ignored. In these data, 5 cases have negative differences and the sum of their ranks equals 43. The other cases have positive differences, whose ranks sum to 257 (table V).

TABLE V.  
DEMONSTRATING RANKS BASED ON WILCOXON TEST

Ranks		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
dis(F <sub>1</sub> *F <sub>2</sub> ) and- dis( F <sub>1</sub> * F <sub>2</sub> -F <sub>1</sub> )	Negative Ranks	5 <sup>a</sup>	8.60	43.00
	Positive Ranks	19 <sup>b</sup>	13.53	257.00
	Ties	0 <sup>c</sup>		
	Total	24		

a. dis( F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>) < dis( F<sub>1</sub>\* F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub>)

b. dis( F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>) > dis( F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub>)

c. dis( F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>) = dis( F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub>)

Therefore, the null hypothesis referring to the equality of two variable is not only rejected by nonparametric Wilcoxon test but the preference of F<sub>1</sub>\* F<sub>2</sub>- F<sub>1</sub> plane over F<sub>1</sub>\* F<sub>2</sub> is also confirmed, considering the greater amount of positive ranks in table V.

### III. CONCLUSION

This paper aims to develop an acoustic vowel space in Persian natural speech. The vowel spaces are commonly represented in formant chart in which the lower formant at each vowel (F<sub>1</sub>) is plotted on y-axis and the upper formant (F<sub>2</sub>) on the x-axis. But it is argued that the difference between the first and second formant frequencies (F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub>) on the abscissa can be regarded as a better correlator in tracing tongue position. This plotting (F<sub>1</sub>\* F<sub>2</sub>- F<sub>1</sub>) is somewhat in agreement with the notion that backness corresponds to the distance between formant two and formant one since second formant is affected by both backness and lip rounding.

Accepting plotting vowels on F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub> plane theoretically, we are prompt to investigate whether F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub> plotting is led to a better vowel classification than F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub> plane or not. As it is said before, the deliberation of this matter is performed considering two parameters through which vowel classification is evaluated: (a) linear discriminant analysis and (b) scatter reduction. It has been shown that LDA not only counted no differences in the degree of classification provided by these two kinds, but it also reports equality. Considering scatter reduction parameter, although it appears to be not considerable difference between them at the first glance, statistically the differences are proved to be meaningful. Thus plotting vowel space, based on F<sub>1</sub>\*F<sub>2</sub>-F<sub>1</sub> plane, in addition to represent tongue position much more accurately

based on mentioned literature, it is accompanied with less scattering and as a result more classification in vowel space. So, we decide presenting Persian vowel space in  $F_1 * F_2 - F_1$  plane as follows (Fig. 4):

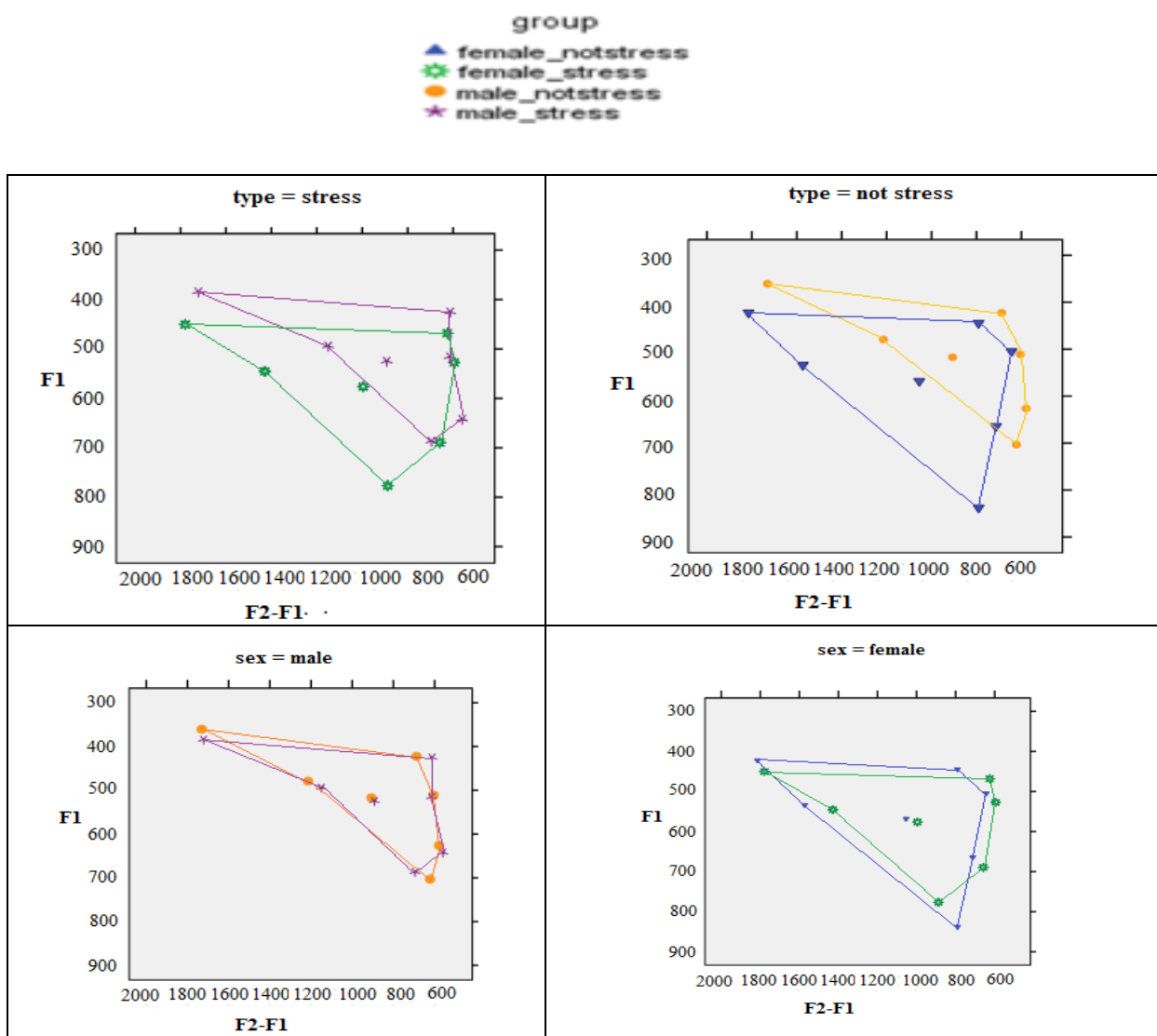


Figure 4. Persian vowel space classified based on being in un/stressed syllable and uttered by fe/male

For more direct comparison, all vowel spaces are being overlapped in Fig. 5:

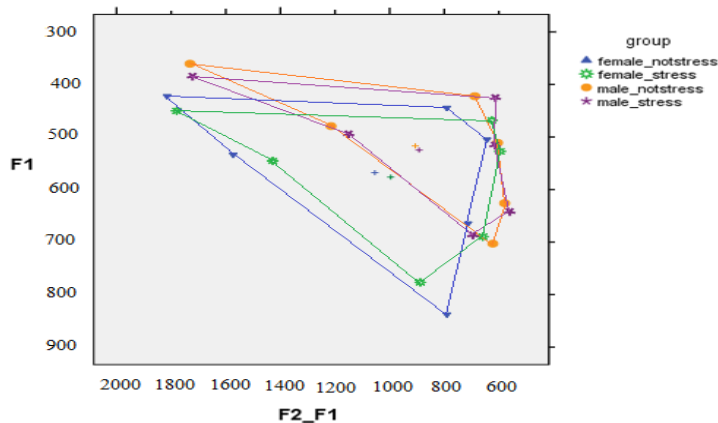


Figure 5. Overlapping of all vowel spaces

The characteristics of the drawn vowel spaces including the amount of  $F_1$ ,  $F_2-F_1$ , N which shows the number of vowel tokens, and the center of the vowel spaces for each group is summarized in table VI:

TABLE VI.  
THE CHARACTERISTICS OF VOWEL SPACES

Sex	Type	Vowel	F2_F1	F1	N	Center		
						F2_F1	F1	
Female	not stress	/u/	790.3636	444.4364	55	1054.07	567.85	
		/o/	643.3750	504.7188	96			
		/a/	712.8542	664.3333	96			
		/i/	1814.8429	422.2000	70			
		/e/	1572.8404	533.6277	94			
		/æ/	790.1546	837.7835	97			
	Stress	/u/	625.3250	468.3250	40	995.62	576.31	
		/o/	595.1636	527.3091	55			
		/a/	658.4156	689.7532	77			
		/i/	1779.1860	450.3256	86			
		/e/	1428.0946	545.4459	74			
		/æ/	887.5342	776.7123	73			
	Male	not stress	/u/	687.7143	422.4464	56	906.28	517.07
			/o/	604.4342	511.0263	76		
/a/			578.5526	626.0526	76			
/i/			1730.7581	360.6129	62			
/e/			1214.2500	479.2500	80			
/æ/			621.9655	703.0460	87			
Stress		/u/	612.4348	425.4130	46	892.16	524.91	
		/o/	614.0143	515.8429	70			
		/a/	560.0588	642.3059	85			
		/i/	1721.5227	384.6364	88			
		/e/	1149.8795	494.3855	83			
		/æ/	695.0795	686.8750	88			

Finally, it should be mentioned that although it has been demonstrated using  $F_1 \times F_2 - F_1$  is more effective in reducing scattering, it is not intended the above as a criticism of plotting the vowel space on  $F_1 \times F_2$  in any other respect. Furthermore, the result is only limited to natural version of Persian language and can not be generalized into other languages.

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# A Study on College English Teachers' Role in Developing Learner Autonomy

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**Abstract**—The present paper attempts to investigate students' beliefs about college English teachers' role in developing learner autonomy by putting forward three research questions. The answers were explored through the designed questionnaire. The results of the study indicate that as for teachers' role in developing learner autonomy, students' perceptions are in conformity with those of experts and teachers'. From students' perspectives, in developing learner autonomy, teachers are considered to have a major role in teaching students' English learning strategies, monitoring and evaluating students' English learning process in various ways, developing students' positive affection and overcoming negative counterpart, and creating the appropriate English learning environment. It has also been found that some of teachers' actual behavior doesn't match students' expectations. Additionally, LB and LC students are found to be more likely to believe that they can autonomously learn English well without teachers' instruction than LA ones. LC students more favor their English teachers to encourage them to take part in class communicative activities to practice English than LB ones.

**Index Terms**—learner autonomy, teachers' role, students' expectations

## I. INTRODUCTION

With great advocacy of quality-oriented education and gradual rise in learner-centered language teaching and lifelong education, more and more attention has been given to the learners' autonomous learning ability and fulfillment of their potential over the learning process. Education should also be aimed at developing learner autonomy for the benefit of learning for life. According to the newly revised *College English Teaching Requirements*, it is clearly stated that "one of college English teaching objectives is to develop students' autonomous learning ability, and that important symbols for successful teaching reform are the formation of students' individualized learning methods and the development of students' autonomous English learning ability" (Ministry of Education P.R.C., 2003, p. 12). Being autonomous in learning is important because the most efficient learners tend to be the ones who have developed a degree of autonomy (Little, 1990). Therefore, the present teaching tendency is expected to be focused on how to motivate students towards autonomous learning. As Henry Holec first brought up the concept in 1981, learning autonomy refers to "the ability of the learner to take charge of his own learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 3). This ability is not innate but to be developed and the degrees and levels of the learners' learning autonomy may vary from person to person (Dickinson, 1992). It is recognized that developing learner autonomy is a complicated project, which necessitates good coordination of various factors in the course of teaching and learning, such as changing ideas about teachers' role and learners' role, redefining teachers' role in autonomous learning context, taking into account learners' individual differences in character, interests, needs, motivation, intelligence and use of learning strategies etc. Among those, teachers as promoters of learner autonomy contribute a lot to developing learner autonomy in an attempt to eventually help learners improve their communicative competence and learn English efficiently.

A lot of papers at home and abroad have attached much importance to this point (Ho, 1995; Reid, 1996; Yang, 1998; Hua, 2001; Wang, 2002; Xu & Xu, 2004 etc.), and English teachers are seen to have an important role in facilitating learner autonomy in English teaching. However, there is a pity that little is concerned with students' beliefs about teachers' role in promoting learner autonomy; to be exact, there is no empirical study about teachers' role in developing learner autonomy from the student's own angle. Besides, a lot of previous studies have demonstrated that there is always mismatch between learners' opinions or perceptions and experts' or teachers' in terms of the same set of learning context (McDonough, 2002; Nunan, 1988; Spratt, 1999). Meanwhile, the prevailing shift to learner-centeredness from teacher-centeredness in the classroom makes learners naturally become the main focus in the course of teaching. As it is the learners who ultimately benefit from development of their autonomous learning ability, the study reported here gives added weight to investigating teachers' role in developing learner autonomy from a learner perspective.

Thus, this study aims to report teachers' role in developing learner autonomy from a learner perspective, which intends to gain a general picture of students' perceptions and expectations about the role acted by college English teachers in developing learner autonomy, to find out the weaknesses and problems in fostering learner autonomy on the part of the teacher, to make teachers aware of the necessity and importance to adapt themselves to new roles for the sake of promoting learner autonomy, and to enable the teachers to reflect on their actual behavior in teaching practice to

enhance learner autonomy. Therefore the study is committed to exploring the three following specific research questions: What are students' beliefs about teachers' role in developing learner autonomy? Does teachers' actual behavior match students' expectations? Are there any differences between students of different levels in their beliefs about teachers' role in developing learner autonomy?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *Learner Autonomy*

Autonomy is a difficult concept to define, for it has been approached from different angles by different scholars since the notion came into being. The concept of autonomous learning can be traced back to debates about the development of life-long learning skills and the development of independent thinkers, both of which originated in the 1960s (Gardner & Miller, 1999, p. 6). By 1981 Holec (1981, p. 3) first introduced the definition of autonomy into the educational field and described it as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" and "to take charge of one's own learning is to have and hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of learning". He developed this definition further in 1985 by talking about autonomy as a conceptual tool. Holec's views about autonomy have exerted great influence on autonomy research and his initial definition has been considered as a starting point in much subsequent work in relevant fields (Gardner & Miller, 1999). Dickinson (1987) then sticks to the definition of autonomy as a "situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his (or her) learning and the implementation of those decisions".

Apart from views stated above, other definitions of autonomy can be classified into three major schools of thought: a personal characteristic, a political concept and a definition of educational practices. In David Little's terms, learner autonomy is "essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning" (Little, 1990, p. 7). He considers it as "a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (Little, 1991, p. 4) and further develops "the acceptance of responsibility by learners, which has both socio-affective and cognitive implications" (Little, 1995, p. 175) as the basis of learner autonomy. As for Kenny (1993, p. 436), he states that autonomy is not only the freedom to learn but also "the opportunity to become a person". An example of considering autonomy within a political framework is found in the work of Benson (1997, p. 29) who defines autonomy as "representing a recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems" and, within the context of teaching English as a Foreign Language, as "a recognition of the rights of the 'non-native speaker' in relation to the 'native-speaker' within the global order of English". An example of seeing autonomy as an educational practice comes from Boud (1988, p. 17) who believes that autonomy is "an approach to educational practice" as well as being an educational goal. According to Allright (1990, p. 212), learner autonomy is characterized by "a constantly changing but at any time optimal state of equilibrium between maximal self-development and human independence". Littlewood (1996) proposes that learners' ability and willingness to assume responsibility for their learning is at the core of the notion of autonomy and that willingness depends on the motivation and the confidence to take more responsibility for the choices required.

As has been discussed so far, the term autonomy has sparked considerable controversy so that researchers have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy really is. However, it is not hard to see all researchers admit the shift of learning responsibility from teachers to students. At the same time, all definitions indicate that students are expected to bear the responsibility for their studies. Considering the real situation of college English language teaching in China, we tend to believe that an autonomous learner especially an autonomous college student is expected to set his own learning goals and learning plans, make effective use of learning strategies, monitor the use of learning strategies, monitor and assess English learning process, based on learners' understanding the teaching objectives and requirements (Xu et al., 2004).

### B. *Teachers' Role in Autonomous Learning Context*

The teaching trend over the last two decades has been moving into the more communicatively learner-centered teaching mode, which places much emphasis on developing learner autonomy as one of educational goals. However, autonomous learning is all along challenged by traditional teaching views. There comes as no surprise that some teachers have considerable difficulty in getting used to the change of their role in autonomous learning context, for they have been immersed in traditional teaching for years. Moreover, there is still some doubt whether autonomous learning means that students can learn alone or learn independent of teachers' help and guidance, and whether teachers' responsibilities will be weakened.

Actually, autonomous learning is not necessarily learning alone, nor is it necessarily learning without a teacher, which is stated by Boud (1988, p. 25) who holds "It is compatible with autonomous learning for learners to opt to be 'taught' in situations in which they have decided that it is desirable for their own ends. Developing autonomy does not simply involve removing structured teaching; it may require a greater degree of structure than didactic teaching, but of a different kind." As Benson & Voller (1997, p. 63) clearly put, autonomous learning is absolutely not the learning without teachers' participation; on the contrary, teachers play a crucial role in facilitating learners' self-realization and offering regular guidance. Indeed, learners need get help to develop their autonomous learning skills, so the need for teachers will not decrease, but their role, and the role of teaching in the learning process will change (Little, 1995). As a

matter of matter, autonomous learning empowers teachers and students with a redefinition of their respective roles in English teaching and learning, where teachers are given more requirements and expectations. Therefore, autonomous learning doesn't exclude teachers' role in class, but teachers are supposed to better organize the class teaching. Moreover, degrees of autonomy differ in students, and not every student can achieve the ideal full autonomy at the beginning, so teachers' support and guidance are essentially required in fostering learner autonomy.

Just as learner autonomy is gaining more and more concern in educational field, so the teachers, as the main component to develop learner autonomy in English learning process, need adjust their roles to better facilitate students' autonomous learning. There is no doubt that teachers should assume various roles in autonomous learning environment. Some research papers have discussed teachers' roles in relation to promotion of learner autonomy (Ho, 1995; Reid, 1996; Yang, 1998; Hua, 2001; Wang, 2002; Xu & Xu, 2004). Teachers should assume more roles and responsibilities in autonomous learning context rather than the unidirectional role as knowledge purveyor in the traditional teaching context. Generally speaking, in autonomous learning teachers are expected to play the role as guide, facilitator, assessor, psychological coordinator, peer cooperater, source of information, learner and researcher. More specific roles can be summarized as follows: helping students develop the awareness of autonomous learning and confidence in English language learning; getting to know students' situation in learning English; guiding students to make practical learning plans and objectives; introducing learning strategies combined with class instruction in a systematic way; offering students as many chances as possible to think about the newly learned learning strategies and put them into practice; encouraging more communication between teachers and students via various channels to monitor students' learning process; helping students evaluate their English learning by giving immediate and appropriate feedback; provide more opportunities for students to develop their autonomous learning ability; attaching importance to students' positive affective factors in English learning; creating the harmonious class environment that facilitates learner autonomy. The descriptions about teachers' role obtained from

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Subjects

The subjects of this study are 300 non-English major undergraduate sophomore students from Wuhan Textile University. Based on the results of English proficiency test in their first year students are classified into three different levels to finish their college English learning. Students with higher scores in the test who have higher English proficiency, are called Level A (LA) students; accordingly, the ones with lower scores have lower English proficiency, belonging to Level C (LC) students; then the other students in between are Level B (LB) students with comparatively intermediary English proficiency. In order to make the research result more conveniently analyzed, 300 non-English major undergraduate sophomores were chosen randomly and equally from the three different levels, with 100 students from each level. The actual total subjects are composed of 228 (78.9%) male students and 61 (21.1%) female students in the study.

#### B. Questionnaire Design

Based on the relevant literature works, after having undergone strict discussion and criticism of the professors and teachers in our department, the original questionnaire was finished. Then a pilot study was carried out in order to make sure that the questionnaire is feasible and valid. With more discussion with teachers and classmates, the last version of the questionnaire which can be applied in this study has been settled. Basic information about subjects is still located in Section One, but there are some modifications about Section Two with revised 26 items and Section Three with revised 23 items. In order to ensure the effectiveness of this study, reliability and validity of the research instrument were examined. With the application of software SPSS18.0, it turns out that the questionnaire has both higher reliability and validity, which guaranteed to secure the results of the study.

#### C. Data Collection

300 questionnaire sheets were handed out in the students' regular English class time. Also all the items in the questionnaire are written in Chinese in order to make students have a better understanding of the items and fill out their answers more conveniently, accurately and quickly. Fortunately, due to the cooperation of many English teachers available in class, students could finish the sheets carefully in accordance with their real situation. Meanwhile, collecting sheets went smoothly.

#### D. Data Analysis

In order to figure out the three research questions, a questionnaire with due reliability and validity was designed on the basis of the previous literature works and the pilot study as well as serious discussion with teachers and classmates. Then the questionnaire survey was administered among 300 subjects. It further goes to the data analysis stage, which is not quite easy. The five-point Likert scale was employed to correspond with the choices of every statement item. Choices A, B, C, D, E were given certain value with 1 point, 2 points, 3 points, 4 points and 5 points respectively. After all the answers given by respondents were recorded and typed into the computer with the software SPSS, it could be ready for data analysis. As for the open-ended questions in Section Four, qualitative analysis was applied to treat this

part. All the answers were transcribed and analyzed in order to supplement the information that Section Two and Section Three failed to provide.

#### IV. RESULTS

##### A. Analysis of Students' Beliefs Section

Based on data analysis, it can be found that students are clear that teachers' role is important and essential in developing learner autonomy even though they are also aware that successful English learning mainly rely on their own efforts. Generally speaking, students have positive beliefs about teachers' role in developing learner autonomy, which can be illustrated in the following aspects. Firstly, teachers are supposed to play more roles such as students' guides and cooperators in the learner-centered learning environment in order to foster learner autonomy. Secondly, students also believe that teachers are also advocators of the concept of autonomous learning and developers for students' awareness of learner autonomy. Thirdly, teachers are expected to act as instructors in English learning strategies by getting students familiar with relevant learning strategies and involved in any possible chances for practicing these strategies. Fourthly, students hold that teachers should act as monitors and assessors in their English learning process by employing various channels, such as getting students to have frequent reflection on their learning process, offering immediate feedback to students' performance and having regular communication with students. Then teachers are viewed to play the role as the facilitator in developing students' positive affective factors so that students' interest and enthusiasm in English learning can be aroused and maintained, their confidence can be gained and their negative affective factors can be hopefully hindered. The last point about significance of teachers' role lies in the fact that students eagerly expect teachers to create the appropriate English learning environment in which students can benefit from democratic and friendly teacher-student relationships and improve their English proficiency as well as the autonomous ability.

##### B. Analysis of Teachers' Actual Behavior Section

The second research question attempts to find whether teachers' actual behavior matches students' expectations. The following Table I provide the frequency and percentage of all the items in this section, which can show a wealth of information about the respondents' answers to 23 statement items in Section Three.

TABLE I  
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS' BEHAVIOR

Item	A	B	C	D	E
Advocating autonomy	35(12.1%)	113(39.1%)	106(36.7%)	33(11.4%)	2(0.7%)
Communication	15(5.2%)	67(23.2%)	109(37.7%)	88(30.4%)	10(3.5%)
Plan-making	20(6.9%)	47(16.3%)	103(35.6%)	85(29.4%)	34(11.8%)
Learning strategies	25(8.7%)	102(35.3%)	125(43.3%)	29(10%)	7(2.4%)
Providing chances	36(12.5%)	85(29.4%)	106(36.7%)	55(19%)	6(2.1%)
Class activities	83(28.7%)	91(31.5%)	71(24.6%)	37(12.8%)	7(2.4%)
After-class activities	62(21.5%)	85(29.4%)	85(29.4%)	43(14.9%)	14(4.8%)
Reading	33(11.4%)	93(32.2%)	100(34.6%)	53(18.3%)	10(3.5%)
Reference books	14(4.8%)	47(16.3%)	115(39.8%)	93(32.2%)	20(6.9%)
Websites	14(4.8%)	40(13.8%)	87(30.1%)	95(32.9%)	53(18.3%)
Self-reflection	18(6.2%)	61(21.1%)	99(34.3%)	86(29.8%)	25(8.7%)
Journal-keeping	23(8%)	54(18.7%)	89(30.8%)	92(31.8%)	31(10.7%)
Emails	22(7.6%)	48(16.6%)	67(23.2%)	87(30.1%)	65(22.5%)
Grading	75(26%)	98(33.9%)	91(31.5%)	19(6.6%)	6(2.1%)
Learning Progress	28(9.7%)	77(26.6%)	102(35.3%)	65(22.5%)	17(5.9%)
Self-evaluation	23(8%)	44(15.2%)	101(34.9%)	90(31.1%)	30(10.4%)
Interest	47(16.3%)	77(26.6%)	104(36%)	50(17.3%)	11(3.8%)
Confidence	72(24.9%)	95(32.9%)	82(28.4%)	32(11.1%)	8(2.8%)
Negative affection	33(11.4%)	76(26.3%)	100(34.6%)	63(21.8%)	16(5.5%)
Speaking bravely	104(36%)	111(38.4%)	44(15.2%)	24(8.3%)	5(1.7%)
Atmosphere	62(21.5%)	83(28.7%)	91(31.5%)	47(16.3%)	6(2.1%)
Role	45(15.6%)	83(28.7%)	104(36%)	36(12.5%)	8(2.8%)
Match	18(6.2%)	131(45.3%)	15(5.2%)	31(10.7%)	74(25.6%)

Obtained data are categorized into three basic scales in Section Three where originally there are five choices corresponding to one statement item: fulfillment, unfulfillment and divergence. If the item gets the total percentage of Choice A and B that exceeds 50% from the respondents, it is accepted that teachers can basically fulfill the practice which corresponds to the mentioned statement item. On the contrary, if the total percentage of Choice D and E overruns 50%, teachers are considered to have failed to carry out their roles to develop learner autonomy in their teaching practice. According to the respondents, many teachers can focus more attention on cultivating students' awareness of English autonomous learning and also develop students' communicative competence by encouraging them to take active part in various language activities whether in class or out of class. Meanwhile, the teachers can monitor students by carefully grading their homework and offering corresponding remarks. Also, teachers are viewed to have an effect

on developing students' confidence and courage in the course of English learning and creating the favorable English learning atmosphere in class. However, the percentages these items get separately range from 50.2% to 74.4%, which is far smaller than the percentages of corresponding items in Section Two that almost shoot to 80%. Thus teachers' actual teaching behavior is in less conformity with students' expectations. Then Item B10 (51.2%) and Item B13 (52.6%) go to unfulfillment scale. It clearly shows that teachers lack a sense of the application of Internet resources to guide students to learn autonomously, which results in less emphasis on monitoring and evaluating students by email or in other Internet channels. More importantly, there are many items about which respondents have divergent opinions, which exactly show that teachers in some aspects fail to fulfill their duty in developing learner autonomy. More specifically, less communication with students, less guidance in helping students make plans for English learning, less instruction about English learning strategies, fewer chances of practicing these learning strategies, less monitoring and evaluation for students in various ways along with less assistance in overcoming students' negative affection in the case of teachers, without any doubt hinder teachers from enhancing students' English autonomous learning ability to a great extent.

Considering all the above data analysis, it can follow that in the broad sense teachers' actual behavior fails to correspond with students' beliefs about teachers' role in promoting learner autonomy despite of the fact that 51.5% respondents agree that their English teachers' actual performance matches their perceptions.

### C. Analysis of Students' Beliefs in Terms of Different Levels

Since the subjects in this study are under a three-level system, and at the same time the study intends to obtain more information about students' perceptions of teachers' role, it is necessary to find out whether there are some differences between students of different levels in their beliefs about teachers' role in developing learner autonomy by employing One-way ANOVA analysis provided by the software SPSS.

TABLE II  
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS ABOUT SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES AMONG THE THREE LEVELS

Item	Level	Level	Sig.	Is there statistically significant difference between the two levels?
A5 No teachers' instruction	A	B	.003	Yes
	A	C	.000	Yes
	B	C	.665	No
A14 Encouragement	A	B	.133	No
	A	C	.879	No
	B	C	.044	Yes

As shown in the above Table II, among the three groups of students there are significant differences on two items. Item A5 states that students can learn English autonomously without teachers' class instruction. Then the means of LA, LB and LC students on this item are respectively 3.2424, 2.7473, 2.6162, so LA students are inclined to disagree with this opinion while LB and LC students tend to hold it. Meanwhile, the significance value for LA and LB students is 0.003, which is less than 0.05, so there is a significant difference between them. Likewise, the significance value for LA and LC students is 0.000, which is obviously smaller than 0.05, so a significant difference also exists between them. Therefore, LB and LC students are more likely to believe that students can autonomously learn English well without teachers' instruction than LA students. Item A14 means that teachers should encourage students to participate in class language communicative activities such as debates, speeches, group discussion and role-play performance. The means for LA, LB and LC students on this item are 1.6667, 1.9121, 1.6061 separately and also the significance value for LB and LC students is 0.044, which is less than 0.05. So there is a significant difference between LB and LC students, and LC students more prefer teachers to encourage them to get engaged in these communicative activities to practice English than LB students. As for other items in Section Two, their significance values are all more than 0.05, so there are no significant differences for them.

## V. DISCUSSION

Through all the above analysis, we have obtained a great deal of information about teachers' role in developing learner autonomy from students' perspectives. Below the discussion will be carried out in the hope of answering the three research questions put forward in the study. It can be found that students' beliefs about their teachers' role in promoting learner autonomy that have been explored are in agreement with those stated by scholars and teachers in Literature Review part. That is, the study indicates that students' perceptions about teachers' role correspond with scholars and teachers' opinions. Likewise, from the students' perspectives, teachers are more favorably expected to serve as the guides, facilitators, instructors, monitors, evaluators, positive affection developers and atmosphere creators. Moreover, some of teachers' actual performance fails to live up to students' expectations, which should deserve our attention in the study. In addition, no significant differences have been found for most of the items about learners' belief among the three groups of subjects. Besides, it is true that in the study LB and LC students are more likely to hold that they can autonomously learn English well without teachers' instruction than LA ones. Also, LC students more favor their English teachers to encourage them to participate in class communicative activities than LB ones.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Based on all the above analysis, we can get a list of major findings in the process of exploring the three research questions. As for teachers' role in developing students' English autonomous learning ability, students' perceptions are in agreement with scholars and teachers' opinions. From students' perspectives, teachers are considered to play an important and essential role in developing learner autonomy. Their roles are highlighted as follows: they are viewed to have a major role to play in teaching students' English learning strategies; they are expected to devote more attention to monitoring and evaluating students' English learning process in various ways; they should be responsible for developing students' positive affection and overcoming negative counterpart; meanwhile, teachers should be responsible for creating the appropriate learning environment. Besides, broadly speaking, teachers' actual behavior doesn't match students' expectations though there still exists certain agreement between teachers' performance in class and students' perceptions. The following points are brought to stress the discrepancy between teachers' actual performance and students' expectations: a lack of teachers' communication with students about their English learning problems, inadequate guidance from teachers in helping students make English learning plans, deficient instruction from teachers about English learning strategies and scarce chances provided by teachers to practice these learning strategies, insufficient work for teachers in monitoring and evaluating students' English learning in various ways as well as unsatisfactory application of positive affective factors to students' English learning and teaching by teachers all go contrary to students' expectations. What's more, LB and LC students are more likely to believe that students can autonomously learn English well without teachers' instruction than LA ones, which is attributed to LB and LC students' higher English proficiency compared with LA ones'. Meanwhile, LC students more favor their English teachers to encourage them to take part in class communicative activities such as debates, speeches, group discussion and role-play performance to practice English than LB ones.

Facing the discrepancy between teachers' behavior and students' expectations in the current college English teaching, we would like to propose some suggestions here to college English teachers.

### (1) Providing English learning strategies instruction for students

According to the survey, many students think that their teachers seldom train their learning strategies while students tend to expect a good commanding of learning strategies. Thus teachers should be aware of students' firm belief in getting more knowledge about learning strategies from their teaching in the English learning process. Meanwhile, teachers must realize that "teaching is no longer seen as imparting and doing things to the students, but is redefined as facilitation of self-directed learning" (Heron, 1989, p. 12). In other words, the task of a teacher is "teaching students how to learn rather than merely 'covering' a fixed curriculum (Gross, 1992, p. 141)". So it is hoped that teachers should introduce learning strategies and study skills integrated with their regular class teaching and also provide possible chances for students to practice them, which is also compatible with the requirements of college English teaching. Only in this way can teachers make it possible for students to have necessary independence and self-reliance to keep on learning after they leave the classrooms or even the schools, thus becoming autonomous learners.

### (2) Monitoring and evaluating students' English learning in various ways

As the above-mentioned results show, teachers are considered to focus inadequate attention on monitoring and evaluating students' work. However, it is accepted that teachers can develop students' autonomous learning ability by monitoring and evaluating students' English learning. So teachers should regularly monitor and evaluate students in different ways. For instance, getting students to keep an English journal is one of effective ways for teachers to get more information about their students, such as their interests, their reflection on English learning, their strengths and weaknesses of their English learning. In addition, with the wide use of Internet, teachers can make good use of Internet resources such as emails, on-line chatting, and BBS to monitor and evaluate students outside the classroom by communicating with them and offering appropriate guidance and suggestions. Indeed, teachers are supposed to encourage students to get more involved in the electrical means of communication.

### (3) Applying affective factors to the teaching

Affective factors play an important role in foreign language teaching and learning, which have attracted more and more attention in education. Affection is characterized as the attitudes people hold towards the world. Learners' feelings, emotion, interest, motivation, attitude, anxiety have a direct impact on their learning behavior and learning result (Arnold, 1999). Many teachers have realized the importance of applying affective factors to their teaching, but the results of the present study show that teachers have a hard time in dealing with affective factors in their actual teaching in accordance with students' expectations. Therefore, teachers should improve theoretical awareness of related studies in education and psychology. They also should pay more attention to students' negative factors and reduce or remove them to a maximum degree by becoming sensitive to students' English learning process. Meanwhile, teachers should be responsible for developing their positive affection by communicating more with students outside the classroom and helping them overcome learning difficulties etc.

### (4) Varying teachers' role in different contexts

As the findings of the study indicate, LA students tend to be more dependent on their English teachers in English learning than LB and LC ones. Since LB and LC students are possessed with a comparatively higher English proficiency, they can study English autonomously with less instruction from the teachers. As for LA, they need be guided with more instruction from their teachers. Furthermore, LB students are less willing to be encouraged to

participate in communicative activities in class than LC ones, so teachers should arrange their teaching considering different students' likes and dislikes in a satisfactory way. Thus LC students can be greatly encouraged to get involved in class activities. At the same time, teachers are supposed to devote more energy to developing students' interest and enthusiasm in communicative activities. It therefore follows that facing different students, to be exact, students with different English proficiency, teachers should offer appropriate guidance, instruction and help in developing learner autonomy after knowing and understanding more about students. In other words, in different contexts, teachers should provide corresponding guidance for students in terms of their different English proficiency in an attempt to promote students' English autonomous learning ability and eventually facilitate students' progress in English learning.

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# An Investigation of the Relation between Self-esteem, Indirect Strategy Use and Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Oral Language Proficiency

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**Abstract**—The main purpose of the present study was to empirically investigate the possible relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' self-esteem, their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social), and their foreign oral language proficiency. From among 136 EFL learners who were studying English in two language institutes in Anzali- Iran, 30 intermediate students whose scores were 31+ in grammar and vocabulary and 8+ in reading section of the OPT test( oxford solution,2005)were selected as the main sample for the present study. Oxford' strategy inventory including 21 items for the indirect strategies along with Sorenson self-esteem test were administered to the main participants of the study. Besides, an oral language test (TOEIC test) was administered to assess the participants' oral language proficiency. The non-parametric test of chi- square along with measures of association namely Eta and Spearman Rank Order Correlation test were run to the data gathered through the questionnaires and the oral test. The findings revealed statistically significant relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' self-esteem, their use of indirect strategies, and oral language proficiency. The findings of the study may have some pedagogical implications for foreign language teachers, course designers, parents, and learners.

**Index Terms**—self-esteem indirect strategies, foreign oral language proficiency

## I. INTRODUCTION

Currently oral proficiency has received great attention as a language for international communication in the English context as a second or a foreign language (ESL/EFL). Speaking skill is also of great import because of the large number of students who want to study English to be able to use English for the purpose of communication. Richards and Rodger's (2002) have also emphasized the importance of speaking skill in their publication. They stated that "A large number of the world's language learners study English in order to improve their proficiency in speaking" (p. 201).

Stern (1995) states that concepts such as self-concept, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and self-confidence are often employed alternately in the literature. He believes that the major rational might be that they all suggest different notions about how people perceive themselves. Some researchers contemplate self-concept and self- efficacy as equivalent pattern, but others consider them as two disconnected structures (Choi, 2005).

Huitt (2004) demonstrated the difference between the two concepts namely self-concept and self-esteem and declared that self-concept is related to the cognitive aspect of self, but self-esteem is concerned with affective aspect of self, which refers to one's perceptions and perspectives of self-value.

Miyagawa (2010) discriminated between self-confidence and self-esteem. He expressed that self-confidence is related to what we can do of our attempts. What we are good and bad at. He asserted that self-confidence develops along with the nature of the effort and self-esteem is more fundamental and is about the sense of being significant.

Erikson (1963) and Stern (1983) highlighted the role of affective factors such self-esteem in learning a foreign language. They put into words that the way people assess themselves would influence the process of foreign language learning.

Many studies have investigated the relationship between self-esteem and English skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing. Adelaide Heyde studied the effects of the three levels of self-esteem on American college students' oral proficiency who were learning French as a foreign language. The findings showed that all three levels of self-esteem had positive association with the learners' oral proficiency. Moreover, the highest degree of relationship was found between task self-esteem and oral proficiency.

Kamarzarrin (1994) evaluated the relationship between the EFL intermediate students' self-esteem and their speaking skills. It was found that there was a statistically significant correlation between the students' self-esteem and their verbal



performance. Besides, Oxford believes that suitable language learning strategies affect learners' self-esteem in situations like language learning and inspires them to learn the language in a superior way.

The main concern of this study was to see if such a relationship could be detected among Iranian female intermediate EFL learners' implementations of using indirect strategies including meta-cognitive, affective, and social strategies, their oral language proficiency and the way they evaluate themselves.

## II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Iranian EFL learners desire speaking skill as a language ability to have communication in target social situations. It seems that the speaking capacity has close relationship with EFL learners' use of indirect strategies and their amount of self-esteem. Therefore, it seems that oral language proficiency can be developed by empowering EFL learners' careful engagement of indirect strategies and helping them to have good self-esteem. A number of studies (Gonzalez-Pienda, Nunez, and Gonzalez-Pumariega, 2000) have proved the impact of self-esteem, which is normally categorized as an affective factor, as one of the important factors that can direct success in academic performance in general. Educational psychologists have ventured to analyses the different types of relationship that exist between self-esteem and performance. Nevertheless, the results acquired until now are disputable in terms of the relationship between these variables. In other words, it is not obvious if self-esteem enhances academic achievement or, academic success improves one's self esteem. For instance, Marsh, Kong, and Hau (2001) reported that their participants' English self-esteem was positively affected by their English achievement. On the other hand, Marsh, Relich, and Smith (1983) in their research found that the learners' school performance was highly affected by their academic self-esteem. Thus, it seems evident that there is a significant association between these two variables.

## III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study has pedagogical importance and increases experts' realization of probable relations of students' self-esteem and their foreign language speaking skill and their preferred indirect language learning strategies. By conducting this research it can be shown if self-esteem is related to EFL learners' speaking proficiency and teachers will recognize the possible association between the learners' use of indirect strategies and their reported self-esteem.

This research has also psychological importance because self-esteem is one of the psychological factors. By noticing the possible positive or negative connections self-esteem may have with speaking skill, teachers of English institutes, university Professors, etc., can recognize and foster the positive feelings and lessen the negative feelings in students and promote their oral language proficiency. Best teaching methods in speaking can be devised and practiced by knowing how students feel about themselves. Teachers will be able to motivate students for participating in class activities and help them overcome those negative feelings they may have about their capabilities.

## IV. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of the present research is to find a way to enhance the students' and EFL teachers' understanding about the relationship between self-esteem and language learning strategy and academic achievement more specifically the foreign language learners' speaking proficiency. Moreover, it is aimed to remove or lessen difficulties EFL students experience in their language learning and emphasize the important role of self-esteem in foreign language learning.

There are few studies focusing on EFL female intermediate learners' self-esteem, their use of language learning strategy and their oral language proficiency, particularly in Iran. In addition, the findings may help the language-teaching professionals and material developers in the process of settling the English as a foreign language courses and assists them for better creation of language programs for study.

This study intends to understand the possible association between self-esteem and language learning strategies. It intends to explore whether low self-esteem and high self-esteem learners are different in using indirect language learning strategies.

## V. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Self-esteem has been interpreted as the "inclination to perceive oneself as being capable to manage the obstacles of life and deserving happiness" (Branden 1994, as cited in Rubio, 2007, p. 5). Self-esteem is one of the significant issues in human beings. When a person has low self-esteem, it brings lack of self-confidence, concern, social distance and other negative circumstances. Self-esteem has crucial influence on a person's life. Rubio (2007) believes that when there is very weak self-esteem, this may even require clinical treatment. Tracey (2006) points out that making changes in the feeling of a person who suffers low self-esteem, and preventing him from his negative feelings is worthless.

Young (2005) states, "Some people consider self-esteem as the way we perceive and conceive ourselves. It includes our self-assessment and our recognition of self-esteem. Some researchers believe that self-concept includes nature, abilities, and manner of thinking that characterize a person" (p.55).

Rubio (2007) claims that family context as well as social environment can have a prominent effect on self-esteem, particularly during age of puberty. However, the early educational settings are the most influential time for the growth

of self-esteem. Enhancing healthy and adequate self-esteem is very important. School has a determining impact on the individual's self-esteem. In school, students are continuously judging their capabilities in classroom activities and performances.

Concerning the association between self-esteem and EFL learners' achievement in second language situations, Hayati and Ostadian (2008) disclosed that EFL students' listening comprehension was significantly affected by their self-esteem.

Rubio (2007) stated that all available research shows that self-esteem is important for personal and academic growth.

The possible relationship between self-esteem and EFL learners' use of indirect strategies was the second purpose of this study. According to Oxford (as cited in Su & Duo, 2012) "learning strategies can be defined as unique actions seized by the learners to make learning process more comfortable, rapid, giving more pleasure, more self-directed, more productive, and more passable to new situations" (p. 335). Oxford categorizes strategies into two main groups: direct and indirect. Direct strategies include three groups of strategies: memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies also include three groups of strategies: meta-cognitive, affective, and social. Oxford believes that suitable language learning strategies could also influence learners' self-esteem in language learning and encourage them to learn the language to a greater degree (ibid).

Williams and Burden (cited in Lee, 2010) stated, "When students are involved in a learning task, they make use of several resources in different ways to accomplish a task, so this is called process of learning strategy" (p.204). Lee (2010) argues that "learning strategy is learning skills, learning-to-learn skills, thinking skills, problem skills or, in other words the procedures which learners employ to intake, store, and retrieve during the learning process" (p. 134).

As mentioned earlier this study tried to determine the possible relationship between indirect strategies and self-esteem. Meta-cognitive strategies as indirect strategies are useful to the learning process in the sense that learners will take control over and monitor what and how they learn. Cognitive strategies are more closely associated to the studying of specific language skills, involving the optimal techniques learners can use to cope with language tasks. From among indirect strategies, social and affective strategies are more connected with feelings and self-control, which is believed to have a significant role in progressing self-confidence, and cooperativeness (Ha, 2008).

It is believed that in the process of language learning, all types of learning strategies are helpful and essential. In learning situations in which language competence is the main goal, the cognitive strategies may be of more importance because these strategies are directly related to the language tasks (Ha, 2008).

Rubin (1975) believes that competent language learners are described by their individual learning style or beneficially learning strategies, a functioning approach to the learning task, a tolerant approach to the target language, and more as a distinct evidence system while learning to think about it.

Ha (2008) regards that learning strategies are determined as instruments for active, self-directed action, which is primary for making learning and developing communicative and language competence smoother. According to Weinstein and Mayer (1986), language-learning strategies (LLS) are understood as a change from stressing teachers and teaching process to emphasizing the role of learners and learning process. The purpose of strategy use is to "influence the learner's inspirational or emotional conditions or the procedures in which the learner picks out, attains, or interacts new knowledge" (cited in Saleh, 2013).

Pramita (2012) examined the possible association between self-esteem and the students' English proficiency. The results showed that there was positive and significant relationship between self-esteem and the students' English proficiency for second year students. In other words, the students with higher self-esteem had better and increased English proficiency in comparison to the students with low self-esteem.

Hayati and Ostadian's (2008) research revealed that Iranian EFL learners' self-esteem affected their listening comprehension significantly. In other words, self-esteem was considered as a psychological factor that had a positive relationship with learners' English language listening comprehension. Their results indicated that self-esteem had a more important role in improving females' listening comprehension than males'. Hayati and Ostadian further concluded that this might be attributed to the fact that females are more affected by psychological factors in language learning than males. Female learners were more successful in English language listening comprehension tasks than male learners.

Khajavi (2013) discusses that one possible reason for students' failure in language learning is their lack of sufficient knowledge in terms of the ways and techniques for learning a language. He suggests that language teachers can teach learners techniques and strategies of language learning. For example if learners are weak in learning vocabulary, teach them how to learn vocabulary through repetition, practice, memorization and association.

Su (2005) showed that the participants used language-learning strategies moderately. Social learning strategies were the most frequently used strategies. Besides, memory strategies had least frequency in comparison to other strategies. The Participants, who had higher self-perceived English proficiency, used language-learning strategies higher than those who had a lower self-perceived English proficiency level.

Lee (2010) asserts that language learners who use language-learning strategies more than others do usually attain greater language proficiency, and research into L2 learning indicated that good language learners used strategies more frequently and appropriately to enhance their target language learning.

Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate the possible relationship between indirect language learning strategies of EFL students with high or low self-esteem and their oral language proficiency.

## VI. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there a relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social?)
2. Is there any relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their oral language proficiency?
3. Is there a relationship between EFL learners' Oral language proficiency and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social?)

## VII. NULL HYPOTHESES

H01. There is no relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social).

H02. There is no relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their oral language proficiency.

H03. There is no relationship between EFL learners' Oral language proficiency and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social)

## VIII. METHODOLOGY: THIS STUDY EMPLOYED QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN TO PROVIDE ANSWER TO THE ABOVE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

### A. Participants

Thirty Iranian female EFL learners at intermediate level in Anzali were selected from among those who participated on Oxford Placement Test. The intermediate participants were selected based on OPT test direction. These participants took part in an oral language proficiency test, self-esteem questionnaire, and strategy inventory questionnaire.

### B. Instruments

A series of instruments were employed in the present study:

1) An OPT test were administered to determine the language proficiency of the learners. The test contained 50 multiple-choice questions that assessed students' knowledge of key grammar and vocabulary, a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions. Based on the scoring table of the test, the students who had +31 correct answers in grammar and vocabulary part and +8 correct answers in reading part were considered to be as intermediate level of language proficiency.

2) Speaking test of TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) were used to determine the speaking ability of the students. TOEIC Speaking Test comprised tests of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, fluency, overall coherence. The speaking test was chosen from TOEIC test book. For each type of question, participants were given specific directions, including the time allowed for preparation and speaking. This test included 11 questions that measured different aspects of the speaking ability. The test lasted approximately 25 minutes. Then two raters evaluated the speaking ability of the participants at the end of the speaking test. As there were two raters, the inter-rater reliability was necessary whether or not their given scores are reliable.

3) A questionnaire taken from Sorensen (2005) containing 50 items were given to the participants to measure the degree of participants' self-esteem.

4) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version7.0 (Oxford, 1989) was used to measure learners' language learning strategy use. The questionnaire consisted of 50 questions. In order to minimize the possible error because of learners' comprehension of English, a Persian version of the questionnaires were used.

### C. Procedure

First, in order to select the main participants, an OPT test was administered among e female foreign language learners studying English in a language institute in Anzali- Iran. Based on OPT test direction, 30 intermediate EFL learners were selected for the main study. Then they took part in an oral language proficiency test (TOEIC test). The scores of the participants were assigned based on the speaking scale developed by Farhady, et. al. (1995) consisting of five components of pronunciation, structure, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. Afterwards, the same participants answered Sorenson self-esteem questionnaire. The questioners then were collected for the purpose of analysis. It should be mentioned that a pilot study was conducted to determine the extent of time required for the completion of the strategy and self-esteem questionnaire and to estimate the reliability indices for the instruments used to collect data.

### D. Data Analysis

An attempt was made to find answers to the above three questions concerning the relationship between self-esteem and speaking skills, self-esteem and use of indirect strategies, and speaking skills and use of indirect strategies. Appropriate statistical procedures were conducted to obtain the required responses for each question. Since two raters gave the scores of speaking skills of the participants, estimating the inter-rater reliability was necessary to determine whether their given scores were reliable and consistent. The consistency of the two raters' judgments was tested using Pearson correlation analysis. Normality assumption was checked before running Pearson Correlation coefficient. Data gathered through administering the questionnaires to the sample were analysed to determine the participants' preferred

learning strategies and the amount of their self-esteem. Afterwards in order to examine research hypotheses, quantitative approach including some statistical tests such as chi-square, Eta, and Spearman rank order tests was run.

## IX. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### A. Pilot Study

#### 1. Reliability analysis of the OPT test, self-esteem questionnaire, and language learning strategy inventory (pilot study)

The reliability of 60 items of the OPT test, 50 items of the self-esteem questionnaire, and 21 items of the strategy inventory were estimated through a pilot study on 15 EFL learners. The estimated values of Cronbach alpha were all higher than the minimum required. The results are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:  
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
<b>OPT test</b>	<b>.733</b>	60
<b>Self-Esteem Questionnaire</b>	<b>.781</b>	50
<b>Language Learning Strategy Inventory</b>	<b>.813</b>	21

#### 2. Reliability analysis of the oral language test (pilot study)

The reliability of the oral test was estimated through test-retest method by administering the test of English for International Communication test (TOEIC) to the pilot study group twice and the correlation between these two sets of scores was computed. The final score for each subject on the oral language test (TOEIC test) was the mean of the two raters' scores in each administration. There was 15 days interval between the two administrations and it seemed to be logical amount of time as it was supposed that no significant change would happen in the examinees' knowledge during the determined interval between the two administrations. The reliability estimate is presented in the following table:

TABLE 2:  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF TOEIC TEST

		TOEIC test second administration
TOEIC test first administration	Pearson Correlation	.867**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	15

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 revealed the results of the Pearson correlation that was run for estimating the reliability index of the TOEIC test through test-retest method. The value obtained was **.867** that showed considerably high correlation between the results of the TOEIC tests on two different administrations.

#### 3. Inter-rater reliability analysis of the TOEIC Test

For evaluating each learner's oral performance, the researcher used criteria that were adopted from those specified in the TOEIC Speaking Test Directions.

Two different scorers who were experienced foreign language teachers scored the oral production of the participants. The consistency of the two raters' judgments was tested using correlation analysis that showed a relatively high level of inter-rater reliability for the TOEIC test scores in two administrations in the pilot study. The obtained reliability index was ( $r_1 = 0.875$ ):

TABLE 3:  
CORRELATIONS

Rater A		Rater B
	Pearson Correlation	.875**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	15

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### B. Main Study

#### 1. Measure of EFL Proficiency (OPT test for the sampling purpose)

To select homogeneous sample for the study, the standardized Oxford Placement test (OPT) was administered to 136 EFL students. It included items related to the structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension. The maximum possible score was 60 points. Based on OPT test direction 30 intermediate students whose scores were 31+ in grammar and vocabulary and 8+ in reading section were selected as the main sample for the present study. The results of the OPT test for 136 students are presented in the following table:

TABLE 4:  
STATISTICS

OPT test		
N	Valid	136
	Missing	0
Mean		37.0294
Std. Error of Mean		.63913
Median		38.0000
Mode		39.00
Std. Deviation		7.45350
Variance		55.555
Skewness		-.413
Std. Error of Skewness		.208
Kurtosis		.025
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.413
Range		38.00
Minimum		17.00
Maximum		55.00
Sum		5036.00

## 2. Examining the normality of the distribution

Pearson product-moment correlation was used to estimate the test- retest reliability analysis for the TOEIC test as well as the correlation coefficient between the two raters of the oral test. Normality that is the main assumption of Pearson correlation was examined through Skewness analysis before running the main statistical analysis. The following table highlighted the relationship between two administrations of the TOEIC tests and the scores given by the two raters. It showed the normal distribution of these variables, too.

TABLE 5:  
STATISTICS

		Translation text (First administration)	Translation text (Second administration)	Ratera	Rater B
N	Valid	15	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		33.9333	34.2667	32.8000	33.9000
Std. Error of Mean		.63220	.74621	.53691	.51718
Median		34.5000	35.0000	32.5000	34.0000
Mode		31.00 <sup>a</sup>	36.00	30.00	32.00 <sup>a</sup>
Std. Deviation		2.44852	2.89005	2.94080	2.83269
Variance		5.995	8.352	8.648	8.024
Skewness		<b>.476</b>	<b>-.512</b>	<b>.263</b>	<b>-.135</b>
Std. Error of Skewness		.580	.580	.427	.427
Kurtosis		-.609	-.008	-.982	-.756
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.121	1.121	.833	.833
Sum		509.00	514.00	984.00	1017.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

The results of Skewness analysis revealed that the assumption of normality was observed in the distribution of the scores and the distributions were normal and symmetric. Meanwhile, The Skewness and Kurtosis values reported in the table were all within the range of  $\pm 2$ , suggesting that the distributions were normal.

### C. Is There a Relationship between EFL Learners' Self-esteem and Their Use of Indirect Strategies (Meta-cognitive, Affective and Social?)

The following null hypothesis was formulated:

**H01. There is no relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social).**

The main purpose of the first research question was to examine the possible relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' use of indirect language learning strategies and their self-esteem. Based on Oxford's (2005) taxonomy, indirect strategies included three groups of strategies metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Moreover, Sorenson self-esteem test was used to evaluate the participants' self-esteem.

The following cross tabulation table was used to examine the possible relationship between the two variables namely level of self-esteem and EFL learners' use of indirect strategies.

TABLE 6:  
CORRELATIONS

		Selfesteem	Indirect strategies
Spearman's rho	Selfesteem	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	30
	Indirect strategies	Correlation Coefficient	-.929**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	30

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Crosstabs procedure offered Spearman rho that measured the association and agreement of the collected data from the indirect strategies and Sorenson questionnaire.

The correlation between intermediate EFL learners' use of indirect language leaning strategies and their self-esteem was determined through calculating pair- wise associations for the mean ranks of total indirect language learning strategy use and self-esteem ranks. The findings are available in the above table. The strength and direction of the relationship between self-esteem (ordinal variable) and total indirect strategy use (ordinal variables) was calculated.

The results of the Spearman's rho showed that the association between EFL learners' use of indirect language learning strategy and their self-esteem was statistically significant ( $P=.000 < .05$ ). The negative sign of the Spearman correlation was related to the coding procedure of Sorenson questionnaire. This pointed to the positive association between indirect language learning strategy use and the participants' self-esteem. Based on Sorenson self-esteem test, those who check 0-4 statements have fairly good self-esteem, 5-10 statements have mild low self-esteem, 11- 18 statements have moderately low self-esteem, 19-50 statements have severely low self-esteem. In other words, if EFL learners tended to use more indirect language learning strategies, their self-esteem was also high. Consequently, the first null hypothesis was rejected suggesting that there was a significant relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' use of indirect language learning strategies and their self-esteem. In order to assess the association between the participants' self-esteem and their use of each sub- categories of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social), another Spearman Rank Order correlation was run to the results of the self-esteem test and sub- components of indirect learning strategies. The findings are available in the following table:

TABLE 7:  
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' USE OF INDIRECT LANGUAGE LEANING STRATEGIES AND THEIR SELF-ESTEEM

		metacognitive	affective	social
Spearman's rho	self-esteem	Correlation Coefficient	-.887**	-.790**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
		N	30	30

As it is depicted in the above table, the highest degree of correlation was reported for the association between self-esteem and social strategies ( $\rho = .893$ ) closely followed by metacognitive strategies ( $\rho = .887$ ). The lowest correlation was found between self-esteem and affective strategies ( $\rho = .790$ ).

#### D. Is There Any Relationship between EFL Learners' Self-esteem and Their Oral Language Proficiency?

##### H02: Is there is no relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their oral language proficiency.

For the second research question, the data gathered from the Sorenson test were converted into nominal data (0-4 statements= fairly good self-esteem; 5-10 statements = mild low self-esteem; 11- 18 statements = moderately low self-esteem; 19-50 statements =severely low self-esteem). Afterwards, a chi-square test examined the possible relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their oral language test scores.

TABLE 8:  
CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Linear-by-Linear Association	21.500	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	30		

The two-sided asymptotic significance of the chi-square statistic (.00) was lower than 0.05, so it was safe to say that the relationship between these two variables was not due to chance variation, which implied that each participant with specific level of self-esteem disclosed different oral language proficiency. To show the strength and direction of this relationship, Eta test was run the results of which are presented in the following table:

TABLE 9:  
DIRECTIONAL MEASURES

		Value
Nominal by Interval	Eta	.873
		.937

Based on the results of Eta test, there appeared to be a significant positive association between level of self-esteem and oral language test scores (Eta= .873).

The positive relationship implied that the students with higher level of self-esteem revealed higher oral proficiency and vice versa. Thus, the second null hypothesis is rejected implying that there is a positive relationship between EFL students' level of self-esteem and oral language proficiency.

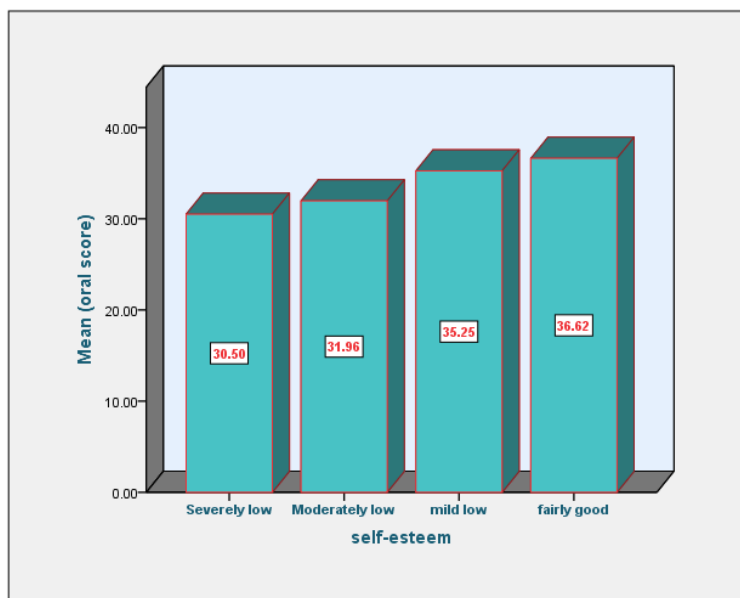


Figure 1: the relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their oral language proficiency

The above chart, ordered by ascending frequencies, visually compared the relative frequencies among the four groups with different levels of self-esteem in terms of their oral language scores. As it is shown by the graph, the participants with high scores in oral test were those who reported fairly good self-esteem in Sorenson self-esteem questionnaire.

*E. Is There A Relationship between EFL Learners' Oral Language Proficiency and Their Use of Indirect Strategies (Meta-cognitive, Affective and Social)?*

**H0 3: there is no relationship between EFL learners' Oral language proficiency and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social).**

To compare the extent of the correlation between intermediate EFL learners' use of indirect language learning strategies and their oral language scores, another Spearman rank order was run to the results of the participants' learning strategy inventory( indirect strategies) and oral test ( TOEIC). The findings showed that the degree of correlation between EFL learners' use of indirect language learning strategies and their oral language scores was significant (p<0.05).

TABLE 10:  
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS' ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND THEIR USE OF INDIRECT STRATEGIES

Spearman's rho	Oral test scores	Indirect strategies	
		Correlation Coefficient	.910**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	30

The value of Spearman rank order for the intermediate EFL learners equaled .910. The sig value (.000) was lower than (.05) indicating that the relationship was significant. This rejected the third null hypothesis and suggested that there was no relationship between EFL learners' Oral language proficiency and their use of indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social).

To compute the degree of association between EFL learners' oral test scores and each of the indirect language learning strategies another Spearman rank order correlation was run to the results of oral test scores and every sub-category of indirect strategies. The results are presented in the following table:

TABLE 11:  
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS' ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND EACH OF SUB CATEGORIES OF INDIRECT STRATEGIES

Spearman's rho	Oral test scores	Indirect strategies			
		metacognitive	affective	social	
		Correlation Coefficient	.801**	.879**	.855**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	30	30	30

As it is depicted in the above table, the relationship between oral test scores and all the three subcategories of indirect learning strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social) was statistically significant (sig= .000,  $p \leq 0.05$ ).

This time, for the participants, the value of Spearman rank order for affective category amounted to (.879), that for the social strategies came to (.855), and for the metacognitive strategies equaled to (.801).

#### F. Discussion and Conclusion

The examination of the correlation between self-esteem and EFL students' speaking skill indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between the two variables. As it is demonstrated by the findings, learners who had higher levels of self-esteem had also better presentation in the speaking test. Learners with a high degree of self-esteem highly respect themselves and believe their own abilities. They perceive themselves to be efficient and believe that they can go over well in learning English. Consequently, they try hard to execute very competently while speaking in the foreign language. However, students whose self-esteem is low think that they do not achieve what they want in language production because they do not have the ability to talk to and understand English verbal exchanges. Since these groups of learners are not certain of their general ability to learn English, consequently they demonstrate the least attempt to talk and finally have low speaking.

Moreover, the findings showed a significant relationship between utilization of indirect strategies and self-esteem. It can be inferred that those with good self-esteem tended to be more successful in using indirect strategies. Although individuals emotionally hold success superior to failure regardless of their levels of self-esteem, they assume their future performance consistent with their self-esteem (McFarlin & Blascovich, 1981, p. 527). In other words, subjects with high self-esteem predict higher levels of future attainment for themselves while low self-esteem individuals presume to be unsuccessful. As a result, individuals with high self-esteem who tend to be accepted by others will try to gain more success in their tasks to indicate themselves more positively to others. They comprehend that they will put to use a great deal of attempts and for that reason deserve to succeed. This may help subjects with high self-esteem to be sure of themselves in their prediction of future tasks.

However this is inconsistent with Maruyama, et al. (1981, p. 972). They give reasons that success in education is highly regular across time. They state that most social scientists who have regarded attainment as free from self-esteem at least have viewed self-esteem as reflecting past achievement (p. 973). Unlike the findings of Maruyama, et al. (1981), it can be inferred from the findings of this study that psychological factors such as self-esteem influence on academic achievement and more specifically foreign language learners' oral proficiency. Contrary to the findings of the present study, Maruyama, Rubin and Kingsbury (1981, p.973) stated that causal relations between achievement and self-esteem may happen during the first years of school when both self-esteem and achievement are unstable. The results of the current study revealed that there are reciprocal relations between these variables. As a whole, it was mentioned that there was a significant relationship between self-esteem and speaking skill.

In agreement, of what Brown and Heyde mentioned, the findings showed that self-esteem were found "to be positively correlated with the performance on the oral production measures" (Heyde, 1979, quoted by Brown, 1980, p.104). It suggested that in foreign language learning situations, learners could be expected to perform better in their oral performance by enhancing their self-esteem related to their task. Such enhancement will help them have better comprehension of their abilities in their oral skills. The findings of the present study were also partially in line with the findings of NikiMaleki & Mohammadi (2009). They found that the more prosperous learners regarding the oral communication had higher self-esteem than the less successful ones in carrying out oral communication tasks.

Finally, several studies have suggested that learning, in general, cannot be achieved without taking into consideration the psychological factors (Carter & Nunan, 2001; Derville, 1966). Most of language learning problems are closely related to psychological factors out of which self-esteem is a main topic that has important effects on language learning. It can be concluded that no activity will be fulfilled successfully without self-esteem (Huitt, 2004). Finally, Demo and Parker (1987) stated that in real situations both self-esteem and language learning are important factors. Language learning can have impact on the degree of self-esteem and vice versa. As Erikson (1963), states we always look for stable identity, covering our knowledge of who we are, what our weaknesses and strengths are, and, in short, how we evaluate ourselves.

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# An Analysis on the Psyche of Richardson's *Pamela*

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**Abstract**—*Pamela* is Samuel Richardson's great masterpiece. Since the initial publication of *Pamela* in 1740, it has received extensive attentions. It's generally accepted that Samuel Richardson's *Pamela* is a prime example of the epistolary novel. However, the first rise of the psychological novel as a genre is said to have started with the sentimental novel of Samuel Richardson's *Pamela*. Many factors contribute to the success of *Pamela*, the most important one is the vivid description of heroine's psychological activities. It has profound impact on the later writers and played a significant role in the world literature. Pamela's inner world is incompatible, she suffered a lot from the upper class and she was longing for an independent life and social position. Also she could not cast off the shackle of the patriarchy society. Recently, most researches are focused on the novel's moral value, the epistolary form, feminism, history and religious perspective. However, this paper will mainly focus on the heroine's inner world and intend to conduct a psychological analysis of Pamela.

**Index Terms**—*Pamela*, psyche, virtue

## I. INTRODUCTION

After the Restoration and English Civil War, Britain marched towards a modern society and the ascending bourgeoisie needed to establish their moral superiority and social status. In response to the instruction for young servant girls how to avoid the snares that might be laid against their virtue, the improvement of the interpersonal relations, the moral philosophy and the Movement for the Reformation of Manners, Samuel Richardson published his masterpiece *Pamela, or Virtue Rewarded*. The publication of *Pamela* marked a defining moment in the literature history, the novel was not only a love story, but also a great masterpiece with a perfect layout, a study of ethics, female's psychology and as a case of depicting and recording the life and affection of ordinary people by delineating a lavish presentation of Pamela's private emotion and conditions of her everyday life. Richardson incorporated aspects of the different literary predecessors into his work: the educational and the entertaining literary nutrient in those novels and united them with the description of social environment and the analysis of characters' psychological activities.

The story is told in a series of letters from the heroine, Pamela Andrews. Pamela is a 15 year-old maid, her young master, the squire Mr.B takes a dishonorable advantage of her position, pursues her unremittingly. However, Pamela refuses him resolutely. She even leaves the estate. But Mr.B continuously aspires her, Pamela only has to escape from his stratagems and snares by resorting to her innocence and virtue. Finally, Mr.B was touched by her kindness and virtuous heart, he decides to marry her. After their wedding, Pamela suffers her married life with the burden of a profligate husband. Then, she behaved herself with honor pleasantness and humility that she made herself beloved of everybody including her husband's relatives who at first despised her. By rendering the struggle over Pamela's virtue in her own humble idiom, Richardson expresses his moral and aesthetic claim that the soul of a servant-girl is as important as that of the princess. The combination of a high moral tone with an elaborate analysis of the heroine's emotions and state of mind made it irresistible to readers.

The purpose of choosing Pamela's psyche as the subject of my dissertation is because Pamela's inner world is fascinating and intriguing. Especially, according to Bingshan Liu's *A Short History of English Literature*, this literary work is "the first English psycho-analytical novel." (Liu, 2007, p10) The first time I came to know *Pamela* was an Italian TV drama I watched, with a fascinating plot: Love and conflicts between the cynical master and the beautiful servant girl. It said that the show was based on British novelist Samuel Richardson's *Pamela*. Thus, the novel evokes my interests greatly. By doing some research and conducting a survey, I believe that most research concerning about *Pamela* are focused on the novel's moral value, the epistolary form, feminism, history and religious perspective. However, few scholars would focus on the heroine's inner world which does not really make any sense because Pamela's psychological activity is the best way to understand Richardson's nearly anatomical definition of his core concept of virtue. The majority of the 18<sup>th</sup> century readers' responses to *Pamela* leads to many issues which is worth for our modern readers paying attention to, such as gender equality or social hierarchy, and all of these problems, modern people also have to face and solve. So, it is very pragmatic to conduct a psychological analysis of the novel's heroine.

Since the initial publication of *Pamela* in 1740, controversy and debate over the character Pamela had long

flourished in Britain. According to *The Pamela Controversy: Criticisms and Adaptations of Samuel Richardson's Pamela, 1740-1750*: "Pamela vogue and surrounding quarrels that one contemporary wrote of a world divided into two different parties, Pamelists and Antipamelists." (Keymer, 2003, p97) Moreover, a lot of literary critics question the values which Pamela extols and represents. According to Henry Fielding and some other literary figures: that Pamela is a women who first maintained her morals despite her struggles with temptations from her master Mr.B and later becomes the wife of her Master. The change is so great that it had a subversive impact on social order. In addition, Pamela seems to be a naive young girl, but sometimes, the reader can find weak point in many aspects. Some people believe that deep down in Pamela's heart, she is very hypocritical, scheming, calculating and skilled at manipulating other people.

Through the novel, Pamela seems to be humble and faithful to her religion and have great respect for her family. These traits fit for the traditional definition of virtue. Historically speaking, it was the value of virginity that contributes to a marriage, it also affects on male-female and dominate-submissive relations. As a matter of fact, in the process of composing *Pamela*, Richardson endowed heroine the feature with his own pragmatic moral values of the bourgeoisie, which makes Pamela a little complicated: on one hand, Pamela is the representation of a middle class girl who resists the corruption of the upper class, on the other hand, she is in the progress of reconciliation with the upper class, she compromises her principles and becomes a part of her opposite sides. The victory of Pamela's virtue, in fact, is the progress of the middle class establishing its own position in the social life. Her success marks the success of the middle class, her story predicts the necessary of the rising of the bourgeoisie. Richardson's pragmatic moral values in shaping the characterization of the heroine are an outcry for his class. However, there are some academics who adopt a positive attitude towards the novel.

According to Gerald Levin's *Richardson The Novelist: The Psychological Patterns* "Richardson shows his deeply sympathy for women from things emerges in his presentation of certain contrasts between the feminine and masculine psyches." (Levin, 1978, p78) Other scholars like John Richetti states that the conception of virtue of Pamela is actually more capacious than its detractors have allowed. Ian Watt emphasizes that Pamela has a right to stand on her own principles, whatever they are. The controversy still remains, one of the beauties of *Pamela* is that for readers, you have to read, think, and then find your own interpretation of Pamela.

The story of *Pamela* is also a typical "English Dream". Richardson told us, as long as one could honestly live his or her life, insist to do the right thing and resist all the temptations, he or she will be handsomely rewarded for his or her virtue. This is another reason why this novel is so popular, because the logical thinking of the book is a representative of the faith of the newly emerged bourgeois class. The material gains and losses was closely linked with the spiritual morality, this feature of the novel embodies the Protestant spirit for its worldly realization of the religious thought.

This novel also has the significant impact on the British society, for its application of epistolary form, innovative ideas, combination of education and entertainment, also ethical edification and description of woman's psychology. Richardson's *Pamela* also initiated many precedents, such as using complicated and contradictive love life and psychological activities as the main line of the story. In order to better understand Richardson's world view and moral values, this thesis intends to analyze Pamela's psychological activities changing through her self-positioning, outlook on life and other external factors which affect her relationship with Mr.B.

## II. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CHANGES OF PAMELA

Pamela is a maid who has been in service to a good lady, Mrs.B for many years. On her deathbed, Mrs.B introduced Pamela to her son Mr.B and this was the first time Pamela met her young master, Mr.B said "I will take care of you all, my Lasses...I will be a friend to you, and you shall take care of my Linen." (Keymer, 2001, p 67) Also, Mr.B gave Pamela four Guineas for her comfort. Pamela's first impression of her new master Mr.B is not bad, because later Pamela wrote to her parents: "In deed he is the best of Gentlemen, I think!" (Liu, 2007, p 71) But, Pamela noticed the ominous intimacy from his behavior. Here, the readers could easily find out that Pamela is a little confused but overall she believes in her master. Then, after reading her parents letters, she became a little annoyed and troubled because of her parents accused Mr.B is suspicious and fearful. However, she still did not believe that her master will act unworthy of his character. In the sixth letter, Pamela said that she always thought her young master is a fine gentleman as everybody says he is, he gives these good things to all the servants with such graciousness and he looks like an angel. So far, all the evidences suggest that Pamela is lucky enough to have a decent new master. However, things take a sudden turn and developed rapidly which neither Pamela nor her parents would expect. In the tenth and eleventh letter that Pamela wrote to her parents, she claimed that she was sexually harassed by her master Mr.B and that all her parents' worries were well-grounded. Because of her master's attempted to kiss her and hug her, Pamela wrote: "He has now showed himself in his true colors and to me, nothing appears so black and so frightful." (Keymer, 2001, p 107) Pamela's mood is like a roller coaster, from heaven to hell, it only took few minutes. However, Mr.B seems took this issue as harmless flirtation. After the first insult of Mr.B, Pamela became depressed, frustrated, insecure and anxious not to mention how shocked she was when she found out that her master, the fine gentleman was only a imagination of her naivety. Pamela felt that she was betrayed, confused and powerless. But this is only a beginning of her nightmare. Pamela is a dignified girl who has an independent consciousness. She declared since her master forgot what belongs to a master well she may forget

that she was his servant and there was nothing could change her mind not even gold or a prince. Pamela's determination to defend her chastity only made things worse and aroused further malicious intentions from Mr.B.

In Pamela's eyes, Mr.B is a master of confusing right and wrong, confounding black and white. In the fifteenth and sixteenth letter, Pamela wrote to her parents that Mr.B slandered her as an artful, hypocritic liar: "She has all the arts of her sex; they're born with her...She makes herself an angel of light, and me, her kind Master and Benefactor, a devil incarnate!" (Levin, 1978, p 115) Here, speaking of the "arts" of female gender the readers have to understand that in the Restoration and the 18<sup>th</sup> century England, accusation of feminine duplicity were quite common. Duplicity is one of the cardinal sins in the traditional model of femininity that he both employs and questions; it recurs as a basis for attacks on women throughout history. During the process of Mr.B's second harassment, he mentioned Lucretia, a virtuous Roman matron, raped by a son of a tyrant. Pamela believes that the real intention of Mr.B mentioning this historical figure is devious for he said: "Who ever blamed Lucretia, but the Ravisher only? And I am content to take all the blame upon me; as I have already born too great a share for what I have deserved." (Shen, 2005, p 47) Then, after a horrible scene that all the readers could imagine, fortunately our heroine Pamela managed to escape and later passed out. When she woke up, she felt so embarrassed and ashamed. Although deep down, she knew that what happened was not her fault but she could not help blaming herself for causing so many troubles. Now, we could say that Pamela was completely distraught due to her master's disgraceful actions, though, it is not wise to say that Pamela was suffering a mental breakdown.

But how would Pamela reciprocate his feelings? In her journal she wrote: "he was charmingly dress'd. To be sure, he is a handsome fine gentleman! What pity his heart is not as good as his appearance! Why can't I hate him?" (Keymer, 2001, p 79) It is clearly for readers that Pamela was already fell in love with her evil master simply because she who denies all confesses all and the more one tries to hide, the more one is exposed. Later the night, Mr.B who was in disguise as another servant girl and approaches to the bed while Pamela was sleeping. Mr.B offers Pamela a deadline that is Pamela either follow his articles or ready to be taken by force. Before she can answer his demand Pamela disapper. When she have consciousness that Mr.B treats Pamela more kindly and promises to stop his attempts on her virtue. He asks for Pamela's forgiveness and shows great care toward her, though Pamela suspects that the appearance of his kindness may be a further trick. On Tuesday, Mr.B asks Pamela to come, shows his love to her, and makes a promise that never to force himself on her again, though he continues to refuse to let her return to Pamela's parents. He asks her to stay for two more weeks without attempting to escape. Pamela agrees to this proposal. Mr.B shows his admiration of her, and let her know that her defense of virtue has only increased his respect. In defense of himself, he knows that if he were demoralized he could not have let Pamela to frustrate him for so long time. Pamela hopes that she can believe Mr.B's goodness, though Pamela still is not wholly self-assured that he is not playing an complex trick on her. She is afraid of that Mr.B's new gentleness is simply a more devilish ruse.

One notable thing about Mr.B is that as the head of household, in which position would have likened him to an absolute king, Mr.B has claimed the power to own his way with Pamela. To offer her a contract, however, he has simply admitted her personal freedom and the necessity of her consent in his plans. This detail suggests that on some level, Mr.B does have some advanced thoughts and he might not be as devilish and rakish as Pamela described. In the second volume of Pamela's journal she professed when she finally got the opportunity to depart the Lincolnshire estate, she is surprised to discover how reluctant and upset she is to leave. Robin the coachman sends her a letter from Mr.B in which the landlord disclose that he was on the point of proposing marriage to her when he let her go. She flouders from the emotional influence of the letter and confesses to herself that she has fallen in love with this man, Mr.B. Although Pamela still worried about that her squire might set up a trap and trick her into a sham-marriage, when she knew that her master was ill she went back without any hesitation. Pamela comes to recognize Mr.B's moral reformation, and begun to love and forgive him. In this portion of the journal, Pamela and Mr.B finally got married, and Mr.B compromised by having the wedding at his family chapel.

### III. THE COMPLICATED INNER WORLD OF PAMELA

During the process of composing Pamela, Richardson wanted to explore human psychology in ways that no other writer had. Critics recognized that Pamela is the most profound psychological portrait which arises from the depiction, in the heat of the moment and of spontaneous and unfiltered thoughts. Richardson was famous for his "mastery in the literary delineation of the female heart." (Levin, 1978, p61) For which many contemporary readers and scholars celebrated him, that Richardson possessed insight into the female psyche. Pamela instinctively resists her employer's attempts to expose her private thoughts, as she wrote "Indeed I am Pamela, her own self!" (Freud, 2013, p46) Pamela makes this announcement of her identity during the early time in which he pretends not to know her in her country clothes and uses his excuse of confusion to be close to her. The incident and her reaction emphasize the fact that the battle to decide whom she will sleep with is also the battle to decide who she is.

Pamela, in committing herself to a personal set of compelling principles, establishes her own identity, which Mr.B threatens to erode by inducing her to violate those principles. The country wardrobe Pamela has selected manifests to the world her choice of honest, cheerful poverty over corrupt luxury. However, there is a controversy over Pamela's hypocrisy and duplicity. As a maid, Pamela is a woman who first maintained her morals despite her struggles with temptations from her master Mr.B and later becomes the wife of her Master. The change is so great that it had a subversive impact on social order. For people who loves and worships Pamela, especially the female readers, Pamela

seems to be a sweet, kind and naive young girl. And Richardson seems to be a wiser man, a prophet and the master of moral rules. Meanwhile, during the process of the winning of Pamela's virtue, she behaved dubiously and calculated shrewdly. Her deeds not always match her words. There are reasons why Henry Fielding and other people find Pamela suspicious and believe that deep down in Pamela's heart, she is very hypocritical, scheming, calculating and skilled at manipulating other people.

To begin with, after the first time Mr. B gave permission to let her go home, she still stayed in this dangerous place, she wrote to her parents "May-hap I may not come this week, because I must get up the linen, and leave every thing belonging to my place in order." (Keymer, 2001, p37) As we mentioned before, the word "linen" suggests an inappropriate intimacy between the master and his maid, whether Pamela understand the real meaning of this word, it seems rather odd that she gave up this opportunity to escape from her evil master with such an unconvincing excuse. There are plenty examples of Pamela find herself some excuses to delay the time of going home. Even Mr. B's sister, Lady Davers admitted that Pamela is quite sophisticated. Although Pamela claimed that her virtue is the most valuable thing in the world and she is willing to give her life for defending it, readers can easily find the inconsistency from her actions. Pamela declares that she does not care about money and no one can buy her virtue but when her master gave her some beautiful clothes, jewelry and Guineas she sometimes would accept them without hesitation. And the most ironic part is that when her master rushed into her room and tried to rape her, the first thing she noticed was that he was wearing a fine silk night-robe. Another example is that when Pamela tried to escape from the Lincolnshire estate, she came to the pond-side and fell down. The first thing came to her mind was that "my angry master will then forget his resentments, will he say, and is no hypocrite, nor deceiver, but really was the innocent creature she pretended to be!"<sup>[4]</sup> At the life threatening situation, all could Pamela think about is Mr. B's impression of her. She was already fell in love with her young master yet she still did not know.

According to Mary Leigh's *Pamela: A Narrative, one has two aspects of self*, "Pamela at least has two personalities, one is the social self, another is the narrative self." (Keymer, 2001, p53) The social self of Pamela is revealed by her acting one way in her reaction with others and writing her from her true self in her letters to her parents. Pamela's unconscious self is the true self is that she expresses emotions and thoughts that she cannot reveal in any way through her social life. Pamela's interiority is functionally subordinate to the external social and political drama that she insistently keeps in front of others and her would-be seducer. She is constantly refusing Mr. B's advances, yet she does feel an attraction and willingness to forgive is something that Pamela does not feel can be translated into any action that would be socially acceptable.

For instance, Mr. B would be a lovely person if only he can straighten up and fly right. She used to wondering why she could not be really mad at him? Why she felt happy for him once he was out of danger of drowning? Why she felt sad and reluctant to leave when her master evicted her from the estate? The fact is that she did not want to lose her master Mr. B and she already fell in love with him. However, there was a great disparity between their social identities. She could not dare to expect to be loved by her employer. The very idea of gaining her master's love seems like an idle dream, let alone the thought of getting married, but Pamela does love him. This kind of psychological complexity has led to many emotional conflicts of Pamela. However, the feminine code in Richardson's time forbade the woman to admit love for a man until he had proposed marriage. Pamela also believed that everything she had been suffering through is the God's test for her, all the happiness she found comes from God's gift. Hence, every time she was in danger, she prays to God and when things get better, she praise for God. She was never able to understand that there is no God at all. Pamela thinks that in order to improve the relationship between the poor and the rich, the rich should take a small portion of their fortune to help the poor so as to face "the last judgment" smoothly. This side of Pamela also shows some traits of her persona, she is pious, devout, a little bit fatuous and very naive.

In this novel, Richardson attempts to legitimize possible means of self-display and self-exploration for women. Although Pamela has been successfully get rid of the sins of duplicity and deception, they go on to circulate in the novel, unfailling elements of the 18<sup>th</sup> century ideology of femininity. Pamela creates her narrative in her letters, and this narrative reveals a distinct separation between her unconscious and social selves. Mr. B recognizes the dichotomy between Pamela's selves and attempts to help her see it as well. By approaching Pamela's social self and eventually gaining access to her unconscious self, Mr. B helps Pamela to adjust the reactions of her social self. As a result, she is able to attain happiness for herself, and Mr. B Finally obtains his happiness as well, marriage to Pamela and being incorporated into her narrative.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

From some theme-related papers, books and publications which I have selected, I have come to some conclusions of the novel: Pamela is a novel of sentimentalism, psychologism, individualism and realism; Richardson's intention and real purpose of adopting a particular narrative method is in order to better unfold the heroine's inner world; Pamela is struggled between her complicated self, she has multiple personas; According to John Richetti's *The Cambridge Companion to The Eighteenth Century Novel*, he stresses that "Pamela's interiority is functionally subordinate to the external social and political environment that she insistently keeps in front of us and her would-be seducer." (Blewett, 2001, p37) Therefore, moral values, ideologies, hierarchy, gender inequality and other external factors of the 18<sup>th</sup> century England affect Pamela's behavior and psyche. Pamela's psyche is complicated because of the injustice of the

society. She is a paradox. Sometimes she feels that she is an ordinary maid, other times she considers herself as a great beauty. Sometimes she desperately wants to get rid of her master and other times she hates to leave him. Sometimes she despises her master and other times she could not help thinking about him. From the beginning of the novel, Pamela displays herself in front of the readers as the superego figure. Her parents are devout Puritans and told her chastity is more important than her life. Pamela's id comes quietly, when Mr.B expresses his affections for her, Pamela feels that her heart beats rapidly and she prays to God because she did not know what she was thinking. As for her ego, she prays to Mr.B not to harass her anymore, she wants to keep her virginity. The moral idealism which Richardson praised in his work was based on the bourgeois religious ethics rather than the dignity of human being himself. However, Richardson has many contributions to the British literature. This thesis attempts to study Pamela, the heroine's actions and deeds in order to analyze her inward world and dissect her emotional motivations. Furthermore, from the exploration of Pamela's psyche, one can have a peek at the 18<sup>th</sup> century British society, including its class system, moral values, female status and etc. It has certain significance for the research of the early British novels.

The inconsistency of Pamela's psyche is in accordance with the external causes and internal causes. Pamela is raised by her old lady in a ladylike way, she only skills at singing, dancing, reading and other aristocratic talents; Richardson's time is a time honors the traditional values such as titles, classes, possessions and the Puritan spirit; Both hierarchically and sexually speaking, she is the inferior side; However, she is a great beauty and her master's romantic overture makes her indulge herself in fantasy. At the end of the novel Pamela receives things that everyone is longing for: Love, money, social status and recognition. Although this is only a silver lining in the dark reality, the whole book is fulfilled with optimism and idealism. Pamela is a humble servant girl but she has the guts to fight for her freewill and follow her dreams. This novel renders people with hope. It tells an inspiring truth, an ordinary people who dares to fight against the power and stick to his or her believes is somewhat heroic and extraordinary.

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