Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 2, Number 7, July 2012

Contents

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1317-1329, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1317-1329

Utilizing Fairview as a Bilingual Response to Intervention (RTI): Comprehensive Curriculum Review with Supporting Data

Melissa Ausbrooks-Rusher
Lamar University, U.S.A
Email: drmelissarusher@live.com

Connie Schimmel
Milsaps College, U.S.A

Sandra Edwards
Mississippi School for the Deaf, U.S.A

***Abstract*—The purpose of this study was to review and critically align the Fairview (FV) reading intervention protocols with research and best practices in ASL/English bilingual education, and to determine its appropriateness across methodological/philosophical delivery options. Results of two action research studies highlight implementation techniques in diverse settings and provide insight into Fairview's viability as a bilingual intervention. Individual student progress results across all five components and summary scores across classrooms demonstrate statistically significant differences in student outcomes from pre to post tests. Progress on the Adapted Dolch and Bridge Lists yielded the most significant differences.**

***Index Terms*—ASL, English, bilingual, deaf children, deaf bilingual, language interdependence, RTI**

I. Introduction & Literature Review

Grassroots efforts led by Deaf [1] educators of students who are deaf or hard of hearing have addressed ineffective pedagogy, leading to the development of training programs that have inspired bilingual education for the deaf for a decade and a half (LaSasso & Lollis, 2003; Nover, Andrews, Baker, Everhart, & Bradford, 2002). Numerous empirical studies provide support for methodology (see annotated review in Ausbrooks Rusher, 2012), although many of these are not without debate (Mayer & Wells, 1996; Mayer & Akamatsu, 1999; 2003; 2010). Additionally, most bilingual training programs target schools for the deaf rather than broadly addressing the continuum of educational settings. With more than 85 % of deaf or hard of hearing children, aged 6 through 21, in public schools programs, this philosophical option has not been available to most school-aged children who are deaf or hard of hearing, nor to their teachers. Consequently, efforts to cross-institutionalize the methodology have been limited by opposing philosophical trends, variations in teacher training programs, non-standardized curriculum, and pervasive misunderstandings about ASL/English Bilingual Education (Ausbrooks, 2007; DeLana, Gentry, & Andrews, 2008). Methodological expansion is further impeded by beliefs that public schools cannot possibly emulate the socio-linguistically rich environment needed for adequate implementation (Geeslin, 2007; Myers, 2011). Therefore, training protocols that solely target residential programs have not gained wide popularity. However, one bilingual intervention program, Fairview Learning, has gained increased acceptance in general education environments, positioning itself in every state, across all educational delivery options, and in more than 2,000 classrooms nationwide (Connie Schimmel, personal communication, May, 2010). Due to its scaffolded level of implementation given teacher sign language skills, however, professional debate, outside of the literature, has raised doubts about whether or not it is an appropriate option for bilingual programs. The purpose of this study was to review and critically align the Fairview (FV) reading intervention protocols with research and best practices in ASL/English bilingual education, and to determine its appropriateness across methodological and/or philosophical delivery options. Results of two action research studies highlight implementation techniques in diverse settings and provide insight into Fairview's viability as a bilingual response to intervention.

The Bimodal Bilingual Framework

Cummins' (1979, 2003) Language Interdependence Theory hypothesized that common linguistic proficiencies underlie all languages and proficiencies transfer from one language to the other(s). Language experiences and language

[1] The term, deaf or hard of hearing, refers to those individuals with severe to profound, or mild to severe hearing losses, respectively. The term, Deaf, refers to those individuals who consider themselves members of the Deaf community and thereby share a language, American Sign Language, and culture. Schools for the deaf refer to institutions, either day or residential schools, specifically designated by their respective states to serve deaf or hard of hearing students.

handling techniques determine educational and linguistic performance, with semilingualism resulting from inadequate language exposure and techniques. Students, whose academic proficiency in the language of instruction is relatively weak, tend to fall further behind, unless the instruction they receive enables them to better comprehend input and participate academically in their classes (Cummins, 2000). Consequently, poor language handling practices in Deaf Education may be to blame for depressed achievement, if these theories are applicable to deaf students. Nover, Christensen, & Cheng (1998) and Nover & Moll (1997) emphasized the need to ensure that instructional techniques facilitate language acquisition and capitalize on linguistic repertoire. Their paradigm considers linguistic, cultural, and educational implications more than the sensory disability or the many non-malleable environmental factors uncontrollable by educators (Charrow, 1981; Nover & Moll, 1997; Padden & Humphries, 1988). Supporters state that ASL provides the necessary portal for complete, natural, and unrestricted linguistic input and communicative competence (Johnson, Liddell, & Erting, 1989). The major difficulty, however, is that ASL has no widely-accepted written form; therefore English acquisition is necessary for literacy (Hoffmeister, 2000). Educational programs, proponents argue, should follow additive bilingual models and should consider the unique language abilities of bimodal bilinguals. Nover, Christensen, & Cheng's (1998) three-tiered framework- signacy (attending/signing), literacy, and oracy- established the model for ASL/English bilingual education.

Potential Constraints to Linguistic Interdependence

Not all professionals in Deaf Education accept the notion that Cummins' theories apply to deaf students. Opponents' arguments begin with the early language experiences of deaf children. Approximately 90% of deaf children are born to hearing parents (Johnson, Watkins, & Rice, 1992; Mitchell & Karchmer, 2004), and therefore do not experience familial transmission of early ASL (Grosjean, 1998). The school, rather than the home, becomes "the major socializing agent for deaf children," (Padden, 1998, p. 82). Researchers such as Mayer & Wells (1996) argue that only deaf children of deaf parents can truly claim ASL as their first language. Cummins' theories, which are based on hearing bilinguals who enter school with an existing first language foundation, are negated. Researchers agree that deaf children struggle to acquire a first language due to lack of communicative access. Early-deafened children face significant barriers in their potential acquisition of spoken languages that are not fully accessible to them (Singleton, Supalla, Litchfield, & Schley, 1998). Lipreading is not a viable option for receiving the complete linguistic code either, for only 30% of English is visible on the lips (Haskins, 2000). Early acquisition of ASL is problematic as well. Delay in early ASL acquisition often results in severe language deprivation which often continues throughout the childhood years of deaf children, as many hearing families never learn to sign beyond a basic level, thereby excluding the deaf child from many social and familial activities (Andrews, Leigh, Wiener, 2004). Rarely can schools provide adequate immersion to compensate for deficiencies. In addition, many teachers exhibit substandard ASL skills compromising linguistic modeling (Livingston, 1997). Insufficient exposure to social and academic language restricts the deaf child's ability to fully obtain age-appropriate social and academic knowledge (Livingston, 1997).

Another issue central to the controversy over language interdependence regards modality (Mayer & Wells, 1996; Mayer and Akumatsu, 2003; 2010). English is delivered in spoken or written form and understood through audition or reading. ASL, on the other hand, is a visual-spatial language manually expressed on a three-dimensional plane, and received visually, with no widely-accepted written form. English is processed linearly by the language receiver, one word at a time, while the receiver of ASL input processes multiple signs and other units of meaning simultaneously (Valli & Lucas, 2000). Mayer and Wells (1996) and Mayer and Akumatsu (2003; 2010) argue that Cummins' theories apply only to languages that occur in the same modality and academic proficiency only transfers when literacy already exists in the first language. Since ASL has no written form, some argue first language literacy is not achievable. Mayer and Wells (1996) and Mayer and Akumatsu (2003) point out that Cummins found no connection between oral language skills in the first language and literacy skills in the second, thus modality constrains dual language acquisition. However, in 2007, Cummins issued a review, *The Relationship between American Sign Language Proficiency and English Academic Development: A Review of the Research,* where he describes five types of transfer due to common underlying proficiencies- conceptual knowledge, metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies, pragmatic aspects of language use, specific linguistic elements, and phonological awareness.

Linguistic development for bilingual children is complex, dynamic, and individual (Garcia, 2009). As bimodal bilinguals learn both languages, emerging proficiencies progress through stages similar to those of other young bilinguals- early language, potential bilingualism, developing bilingualism and proficient bilingualism (Andrews & Rusher, 2010). These stages vary from the normative, linear developmental stages of monolingual children. To adequately strengthen these emerging proficiencies, Garcia (2009) suggests that we describe the manner in which the bilingual child *translanguages*- that is, the extent the child effectively engages in multiple discourse practices with a variety of interlocutors, in various contexts, and for varying purposes. When instructional strategies fail to promote effective translanguaging, reading and language outcomes may suffer (Andrews & Rusher, 2010).

Additional controversy exists regarding linguistic differences of the two languages (Mayer & Akumatsu, 2003; 2010; Mayer & Wells, 1996). Stokoe (1960) initially uncovered these distinctions and fueled the debate regarding the efficacy of ASL as an instructional tool for deaf children (Stokoe, 1976; Valli & Lucas, 2000). As linguists pointed out, ASL is replete with phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantic, and pragmatic features unique and very different from those of English (Stokoe, 1960, 1976; Valli & Lucas, 2000). Undoubtedly, the translation process is complex (Mather &

Thibeault, 2000). The reader has to alter language modality in addition to considering other linguistic elements when creating semantic approximations (Baker & Jones, 1998; Frishberg, 2000; Larson, 1994). For deaf ASL/English bilingual readers, linguistic components must be explicitly taught.

While ASL/English bilingual education remains in the early stages of research production, classroom teachers need significant assistance with instructional choices, as evidenced by persistently-depressed student outcome data across all methodological delivery options. While many college-aged deaf adults are proficient bilinguals (Andrews & Karlin, 1996; Ausbrooks, 2007), almost 60% of deaf students graduate from high school reading at a fourth grade level or less (Traxler, 2002). At one end of the spectrum are deaf persons who are linguistically incompetent with weak skills in both ASL and English. At the other end, many deaf adults develop sophisticated translanguaging skills, achieving biliteracy post-high school (Ausbrooks, 2007).

Important for users of FV is understanding variation in language handling, especially differences between concurrent and simultaneous delivery of ASL and English. Concurrent approaches ensure ASL and English are presented without any compromise to the complete linguistic code of each language. Separation of language is essential in such approaches and teachers use sophisticated codeswitching and translanguaging strategies to integrate both languages into the entire lesson. For example, a teacher may use printed material to expose English and use ASL for discussion. Another popular strategy is for the teacher to utilize a particular language during a specific part of the lesson. Conversely, using language mixing strategies, such as simultaneous sign and speech, does not place the same emphasis on language separation, but rather differentiates language expression based on the individualized linguistic capital of students in a given instructional period. FV provides flexibility in implementation that allows either philosophical and/or methodological approach to be successfully integrated. FV materials and trainings assist teachers in identifying where teachers and students fall on the linguistic continuum from American Sign Language to English and encourages this designation during instruction.

II. Fairview Intervention Protocol

FV's design incorporates the necessary strategies documented for reading success (National Reading Panel, 2001). Although the five principles of effective reading instruction- comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, phonic, and phonemic awareness - are included (National Reading Panel, 2001), the FV strategies incorporate more. FV emphasizes systematic vocabulary building and reading fluency with the use of the Adapted Dolch and Bridge Lists, but FV also emphasizes the simultaneous need to develop writing (spontaneous written English) and ASL skills. Phonemic awareness is also addressed. Traditional literacy methods are combined into a streamlined, multi-faceted program supported by linguistic and neurological learning research (Lieberman, 2000; Pinker, 1998; Rayner, et.al, 2002.) The instructional model utilizes neurological research and concepts about how the brain organizes and stores information (Dehaene, 2009), as well as recommended and proven methods for successful reading strategies (Dehaene, 2009; Rayner, et. al, 2002). In addition, the program can be used as an individualized RTI or an informal reading inventory. (See http://www.fairviewlearning.com.) A discussion of the protocol and each component follows.

Component 1: Adapted Dolch Words

Expressive vocabulary (assessed orally or in sign), significantly predicts reading achievement (Easterbrooks, Lederberg, Miller, Bergeron, & Connor, 2008; Kyle & Harris, 2006). Skilled readers do not decode individual letters of a word; rote mastery is a prerequisite to reading fluency. FV's Adapted Dolch Word make the traditional Dolch Lists, divided into five grade levels, preprimer through 3rd grade, accessible to emerging bilinguals. Students have multiple options in schematic sign choice; vocabulary translations require semantic approximations, rather than a direct pairing of individual terms (Ausbrooks, 2007). For example, *made* is a Dolch word which has multiple meanings – I *made* a present for you; I *made* my bed; I *made* money; My brother *made* me do that; The rain *made* the grass green. Each meaning requires a different sign for accurate translation. Preset lists with accompanying videotapes, instructional materials and assessment instruments, support direct instruction of this process. The Adapted Dolch Word component exposes children of all competency levels to the ASL lexicon, and provides the initial step in utilizing ASL as an intervening variable for English development. Words common to social language, such as *make*, now access more sophisticated linguistic skills and academic knowledge as children make semantic connections through conceptually accurate translations. The very nature of multiple meaning decoding and semantic approximation enriches language development, expands metalinguistic awareness, strengthens cognitive flexibility, and increases semantic and pragmatic awareness of concepts (Andrews & Mason, 1991; Cummins, 2007; Goldman-Meadow & Mayberry, 2001; Lartz & Lestina, 1995).

Component 2: Reading Comprehension and the Bridging Process

"Bridges" are English phrases that are expressed accurately in ASL as a single sign or compound. For example, the English phrase, *put out the fire*, could be expressed accurately as a single sign, EXTINGUISH, or by one stepping into character and acting out the use of a fire extinguisher or water hose. In either case, the translation is a single sign. Brackets signal to the reader a single semantic unit - [put out the fire] - distinguishing the concept from other words which may be translated individually. Preset lists, with accompanying videotapes, instructional materials and assessment instruments, support direct instruction of this sophisticated codeswitching process termed "bridging." These lists are divided into five grade levels, preprimer through 3rd grade. Pre-set Bridge Lists provide a direct, concrete, and

systematic process that eases linguistic transfer of content and enhances metalinguistic awareness needed for translation. The process of *bridging* may begin with students utilizing the pre-set Bridge Lists, but continuity of the technique occurs when teachers and students initiate rich dialogue regarding free and literal linguistic translation. During these discussions and expanded applications, the explicit instruction of the Bridge Lists decreases, as students engage in language play and determine multiple ways to translate single passages of text. This expanded dialogue transforms the metacognitive patterns of the reader, whether teacher or student, as they begin the process of conceptual transfer (Bailes, 2001; Hauser, 2000). Regardless of the manual option used, *bridges* force a mental and signed codeswitch back to the ASL lexicon.

Component 3: Phonemic Awareness

Skilled deaf readers capitalize on phonological information (Goldman-Meadow & Mayberry, 2001; McQuarrie & Parrila, 2009; Syverud, Guardino, & Selznick, 2009; Wang, Trezek, Luckner, & Paul, 2008). In fact, "the grapheme-phoneme conversion radically transforms the child's brain, thus, we now know that phonemes must be explicitly taught," (Dehaene, 2009, p 219). FV integrates phonemic awareness strategies into its protocols to assist deaf readers as they crack the phonemic code of English. Readers learn to identify 21 consonant sounds and 21 vowel patterns, presented in a visually accessible manner, to assist word decoding. By teaching deaf students an awareness of the visual patterns in English phonology, phonemic awareness is developed, irrespective of functional or residual hearing levels. The process, which combines both speech and phonic symbol systems, is based on the Northampton Consonant and Vowel Charts, originally published by a teacher of deaf children (Davis & Silverman, 1966). Although the process does not include the many exceptions and additions to the phonetic rules of English, it does provide a useful, accessible structure for explicit instruction. The patterns give phonetic significance to the consonants and vowels of the English alphabet without additional markings or symbolic spellings.

Component 4: Literature-Based Instruction

FV not only recommends structured reading exercises to teach students better comprehension, decoding skills, and the use of contextual clues, but also recognizes the need for contextually-embedded instruction via literature-rich curriculum. FV provides guidance for the application of Adapted Dolch and Bridging strategies during literature-based instruction. Rather than provide a comprehensive reading program, FV supports teachers by recommending a variety of curricular options. This literature-based instruction encourages teachers to select materials appropriate to student need, reading level, maturation, and interest (Schleper, 2002). In the literature-based instruction component, the Adapted Dolch and Bridge Lists are utilized or teachers may require more autonomy from students by requiring them to develop their own translations in order to justify semantic and schematic choices, thereby scaffolding students in their metalinguistic and metacognitive development. A variety of age appropriate reading materials is encouraged.

Component 5: ASL Development and Spontaneous Written English

Utilized in early education and special education programs, language experience stories are commonly accepted as a tool for emerging literacy in children (Dixon, 1990; Mayer, 2007; Schleper, 2002; Sidelnick, M. & Svoboda, M, 2000). FV utilizes two specific types of interventions. The first intervention involves students telling personal stories to the ASL instructor, who then retells the stories modeling proper ASL. Students then sign their stories again, implementing proper ASL structure. The second intervention occurs during other class times when students translate their ASL stories into written English or dictate spontaneous and personal short stories to their teachers. After these stories are recorded, they are edited into more structured English by the teachers, and titled, copied, and illustrated by the students. These intervention techniques are cognitively challenging and require higher order thinking skills, such as evaluating, inferring, generalizing, and classifying, and, as skills progress, integrated academic content. Instructors use the language experience stories and drawings to combine induced imagery, experiential memory, self-expression, and emotion to improve cognition and word memory.

Fairview as an Informal Reading Inventory

Teachers often complain of unfair testing and curriculum for students who are deaf or hard of hearing, especially in reading comprehension (Trezek, Wang, & Paul, 2010). Fairview offers multiple assessment measures and interventions that can be implemented by teachers of all manual philosophies and abilities, ranging from English-based sign systems to fluent ASL users. The FV instruments, rubrics, and tools provide a user-friendly informal reading inventory which is easy for teachers to use, no matter what their English/ASL comfort levels. FV, constructed for deaf students, allows a common starting point for students at all grade levels. The conceptually accurate sign interventions provide a transition to ASL, enabling implementation without rigid and comprehensive philosophical change. Furthermore, the five FV components create a comprehensive intervention which addresses all three domains of bimodal bilingual language ability- signacy, literacy, and oracy,

Fairview as a Response to Intervention

Response to Intervention (RTI) is a process first recommended in 2004 with the reauthorization of Public Law 94-142, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The actual statutory language states: 'In determining whether a child has a specific learning disability, a local education agency may use a process that determines if the child responds to scientific, research-based intervention as a part of the evaluation procedures' (Bradley, Danielson, Doolittle, 2007; Kame'enui, 2007). Throughout the nation a 3-tier framework is often used to operationalize the new legislation. Tier 1 includes quality classroom instruction, Tier 2 involves supplemental instruction, and Tier 3 requires intensive

interventions specifically designed to meet the individual needs of students The components of the RTI protocol have been shown in other randomized controlled studies to improve most students' academic achievement. (Fuchs, Fuchs, Compton, Bouton, Caffrey, & Hill, 2007. The use of FV as a bilingual RTI combines high quality, culturally and linguistically responsive instruction, assessment, and evidence-based intervention. Figure 1 provides the summary schematic. For specific tier strategies, please refer to http://fairviewlearning.com.

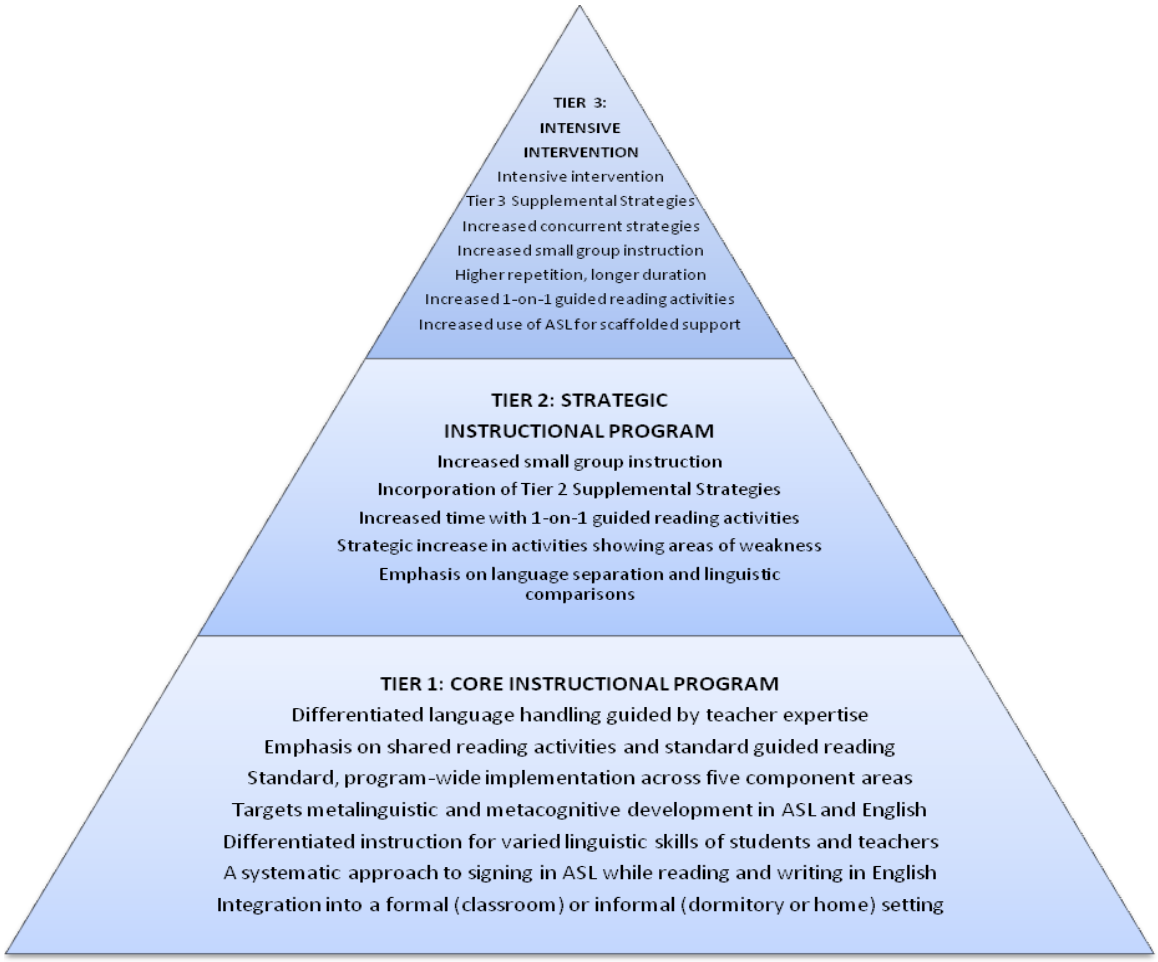


Figure 1: Fairview as RTI

III. Research Design

Two action research studies highlight the effective implementation of the FV protocol. Two teachers in contrasting school settings utilized FV as Response to Intervention (RTI) to address concerns of their at risk students who were reading below grade level. Teacher A, a teacher at a residential school, utilized Fairview components with her 4th, 5th, and 6th grade classes. Teacher B, a teacher in a self-contained public middle school program utilized the components with her 7th grade classes. Pre and post evaluation of Fairview intervention assessments determined skill progression. Additional academic and reading results are provided. Table 1 provides demographic information for the diverse samples. Although all of the students in the study used manual sign systems, most were not proficient in ASL.

TABLE 1:
DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographics	Site A (n = 13)	Site B (n = 11)
School Setting		
# Students in Typical Class for English Language Arts	9	11
# Qualify for Free or Reduced Lunch	10	6
Gender		
Female	8	4
Male	5	7
Familial Hearing Status		
# Students with Parents who are deaf or hard of hearing	2	2
# Students with Siblings who are deaf or hard of hearing	3	2
Home Environment		
# Students who Read for Pleasure	12	5
Average # Hours of TV Watched Daily	2.6	3.5
Assistive Listening Devices		
# Students using Hearing Aids	12	7
# Students using Cochlear Implants	1	4
Hearing Loss		
Hearing Loss: Mild	0	1
Hearing Loss: Moderate to Severe	2	6
Hearing Loss: Severe to Profound	11	4
Age of Onset: Congenital	13	10
Special Needs and Stability of Educational Placement		
# Students with Special Needs (Suspected & Diagnosed)	1	2
# Students with Special Needs Officially Diagnosed	1	2
Average Number of Years in Current School	5	1.2
Language(s) Used at School		
English (spoken language)	0	8
Conceptually Accurate Signed English (CASE)	4	8
American Sign Language (ASL)	9	3
Language(s) Used at Home		
English (spoken language)	2	7
Conceptually Accurate Signed English (CASE)	9	2
American Sign Language	2	1
Spanish	0	4
Arabic	0	1

Instrumentation

Dependent means t-tests determined statistical significance of pre and post scores. Instruments used are criterion referenced tests provided within the FV protocols, which are curriculum-based, criterion referenced assessments. The Adapted Dolch Word lists, Bridge Lists, and Phonemic Awareness Patterns are pre/post identification tests. Reading comprehension levels are teacher reports of functional reading assessments used by their respective school programs. The SRA *Multiple Skills Series* (MSS) was utilized by Teacher A to supplement guided reading instruction as well as to measure reading comprehension, at various levels of scaffolded support. Site B utilized the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI), a research-based, computer-adaptive reading assessment program for students in Grades K–12, to measure reading comprehension. Language samples, both in written English and in American Sign Language, are rubric-based assessments that track individual progression exhibited in point-in-time work samples.

Intervention

Both teachers are highly trained in the FV protocols, yet they emphasize the FV components differently in their respective classes. Teacher A is the *reading teacher*, so she emphasizes four of the FV components - Adapted Dolch words, Bridge Lists, literature-based instruction, and phonemic awareness – approximately one hour each day, rotating emphasis on the four different components through the use of small group and center work. Two other teachers at Teacher A's school are responsible for ASL development and spontaneous written English; however, pre and post assessments on those two measures were still collected. Teacher B teaches writing to her middle school students in addition to reading; therefore, she uses four of the FV components – Adapted Dolch Words, Bridge Lists, literature-based instruction, ASL development and Spontaneous Written English. Teacher B's structured approach to the Bridge Lists systematically integrates these phrases and the Adapted Dolch Words into her reading and writing materials. She spends approximately two hours each day rotating emphasis on four different components through the use of small group and center work.

IV. RESULTS

Dependent means t-tests determined the statistical significance and identified differences in individual pre- and post-test results. These t-tests were selected due to the nature of the data and to help control for extraneous and unknown sources of variation. Students were treated as their own controls in order to measure gain in literacy levels. The unit of measure in the pair t was thus the difference in the individual's pre- and post-test results for each measure recorded.

Component 1: Adapted Dolch Words

Researchers collected pre and post-test scores for participating students on the four levels of the Adapted Dolch and total scores. Percent change from pre to post testing was calculated. The percent increase scores are significant. Figure 2 provides a visual depiction of scores, clearly identifying a consistent trend among students. A dependent means t-test, which utilizes difference scores ($\overline{X}$ = 264.17; SD = 138.60) determined the statistical significance of pre and post testing results. The paired t test was used to analyze and identify differences in individual pre- and post-test results and was selected due to the nature of the data as well as to help control for extraneous and unknown sources of variation. Students were treated as their own controls in order to measure gain in literacy levels. The unit of measure in the pair t was thus the difference in the individual's pre- and post-test results for each measure recorded. The impact of this portion of the intervention was statistically significant at each subtest and for the total pre/post comparison, (t(23) = 9.34, p = .00); see Table 2.

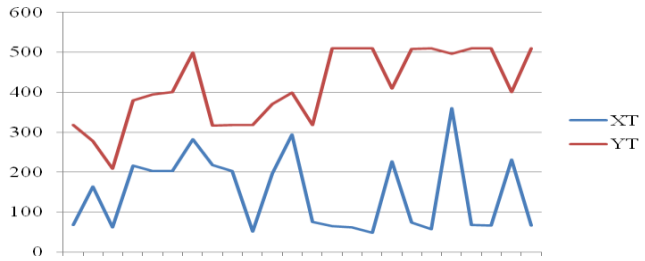


Figure 2: Adapted Dolch Component, Individual Scores

TABLE 2:
ADAPTED DOLCH COMPONENT, DEPENDENT MEANS T-TEST

Adapted Dolch Subtest	$\overline{X}$					
	n	Pre	Post	Difference	t	df
Preprimer	24	57.50 (19.44)	92.92 (5.09)	35.42 (18.42)	9.42**	23
Primer	24	36.38 (39.76)	113.00 (0.00)	76.63 (39.76)	9.44**	23
1st Grade	24	23.71 27.36	103.75 (23.09)	80.04 (33.79)	11.61**	23
2nd Grade	24	26.50 (32.33)	70.13 (47.86)	43.63 (53.03)	4.03**	23
3rd Grade	24	4.25 (14.40)	32.75 (39.63)	28.50 (37.70)	3.70**	23
Total	24	148.33 (94.34)	412.50 (93.07)	264.17 (138.60)	9.34**	23

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Component 2: Reading Comprehension and the Bridging Process

Statistical measures, described for the Adapted Dolch were repeated in this component. Figure 3 provides a visual depiction of scores, clearly identifying a consistent trend among students. A dependent means t-test, which utilizes difference scores ($\overline{X}$ = 351.42; SD = 144.94) determined statistical significance of pre and post testing results. The impact of this portion of the intervention was statistically significant at each subtest and for the overall pre/post difference (t(23) = 11.88, p = .00); see Table 3.

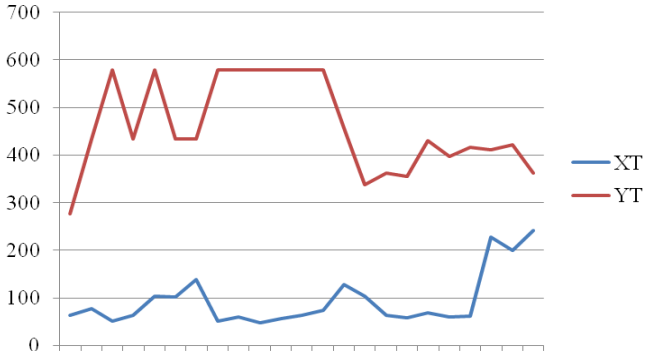


Figure 3: Bridging Component, Individual Scores

TABLE 3:
BRIDGING COMPONENT, DEPENDENT MEANS T-TEST

Bridging Subtest	$\overline{X}$					
	n	Pre	Post	Difference	t	df
Preprimer	24	58.58 (43.30)	151.67 (5.74)	93.08 (45.16)	10.10**	23
Primer	24	20.42 (28.91)	119.54 (15.89)	99.13 (35.66)	13.62**	23
1st Grade	24	17.71 (24.13)	129.71 (44.65)	112.00 (55.18)	9.94**	23
2nd Grade	24	2.71 (7.65)	24.92 (33.03)	22.21 (34.95)	3.11**	23
3rd Grade	24	0.00 (0.00)	25.00 (36.12)	25.00 (36.12)	3.34**	23
Total	24	99.42 (61.62)	450.83 (106.09)	351.42 (144.94)	11.88**	23

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Component 3: Phonemic Awareness

Teacher A utilized the phonemic awareness component, but Teacher B did not. As Figure 4 demonstrates, students mastered the 42 consonant sounds and vowel patterns. However, pretest scores suggest that these students had no previous exposure to these phonological patterns. As with the other components, a dependent means t-test, which utilizes difference scores ($\overline{X}$ = 42.92; SD = 0.29) was used to determine statistical significance. Both consonants and the total pre/post difference (t(11) = 503.00, p = .00) were statistically significant at a 99% confidence interval. See Table 4. Note that there was no deviation in scores among students in the groups for long and short vowel patterns; all students moved from 0 to 5 and 0 to 16 respectively. With no deviation in scores, a t-test could not be appropriately utilized.

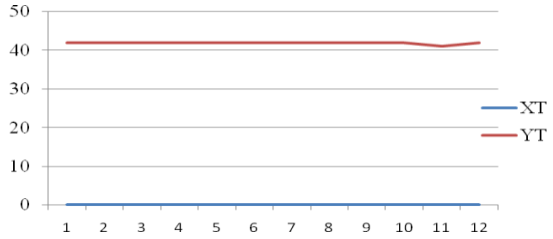


Figure 4: Phonemic Awareness Component, Individual Scores

TABLE 4:
PHONEMIC AWARENESS COMPONENT, DEPENDENT MEANS T-TEST

Phonemic Awareness Subtest	$\overline{X}$					
	n	Pre	Post	Difference	t	df
Consonants	12	0.00 (0.00)	20.92 (0.29)	20.92 (0.29)	251.00**	11
Long	12	0.00 (0.00)	5.00 (0.00)	5.00 (0.00)	NA	NA
Short	12	0.00 (0.00)	16.00 (0.00)	16.00 (0.00)	NA	NA
Total	12	0.00 (0.00)	42.92 (0.29)	42.92 (0.29)	503.00**	11

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Component 4: Literature-Based Instruction

As Figure 5 demonstrates, all students improved their reading abilities. Although scores should be critically evaluated individually given the large standard deviation in post-testing, the pre-test mean for the two samples was at a second grade level ($\overline{X}$ = 2.38; SD = 0.94) and improved to a fifth grade level ($\overline{X}$ = 5.50; SD = 3.61) in post testing. When considering individual scores, only five students improved less than one grade level during the academic year. Every student was at risk, being at least two grade levels behind their academic grade placement in their pretests and had never improved a full grade level in one academic year. These results show promise for Fairview's efficacy as an RTI protocol. A dependent means t-test determined statistical significance (t(19) = 9.37, p = .00). See Table 5.

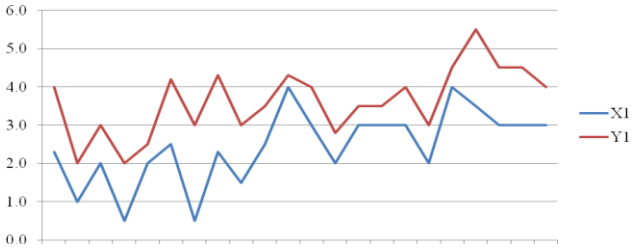


Figure 5: Reading Comprehension, Individual Scores

TABLE 5:
READING COMPREHENSION, DEPENDENT MEANS T-TEST

Reading Comprehension	$\overline{X}$					
	n	Pre	Post	Difference	t	df
Reading Comp	20	2.38 (0.94)	3.61 (.90)	1.23 (0.58)	9.37**	19

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Component 5: ASL Development and Spontaneous Written English

Teachers rate proficiencies regarding use of nouns, introductions, punctuation, use of complete sentences, prepositions, word order, staying on topic and use of adjectives and adverbs. As Figure 6 reveals, all students significantly improved their written language abilities ($\overline{X}$ = 13.30; SD = 5.23). A dependent means t-test determined statistical significance in each subtest and in the overall pre/post total (t(9) = 8.04, p = .00). See Table 6. Figures 7 and 8 provide a pre/post sample comparison for student #14321.

Figure 9 and Table 7 provides pre and post American Sign Language scores for Teacher A's students. Teacher B did not directly teach this component. In this assessment, teachers rate student use of classifiers, ability to set up a story, facial expression, body language, verb usage, order, ability to stay on topic, and overall expression. Not all students improved but there was a mean increase ($\overline{X}$ = 5.38; SD = 6.13) and scores on each subtest and on the total scale were statistically significant (t(12) = 3.17, p = .00).

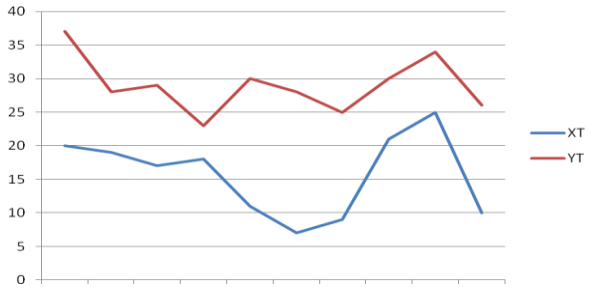


Figure 6: Written Language Component, Individual Scores

TABLE 6:
WRITTEN LANGUAGE COMPONENT, DEPENDENT MEANS T-TEST

Written Language	$\overline{X}$					
	n	Pre	Post	Difference	t	df
Nouns	10	2.80 (0.63)	3.80 (0.63)	1.00 (0.47)	6.71**	9
Introduction	10	0.50 (1.08)	3.20 (0.42)	2.70 (0.95)	9.00**	9
Punctuation	10	1.90 (0.88)	3.60 (0.52)	1.70 (0.95)	5.67**	9
Complete Sentence	10	1.80 (0.79)	3.70 (0.67)	1.90 (0.88)	6.86**	9
Prepositions	10	1.90 (0.99)	3.30 (0.67)	1.40 (0.52)	8.57**	9
Word Order	10	2.60 (1.07)	3.90 (0.74)	1.30 (0.95)	4.33**	9
Staying on Topic	10	3.00 (1.05)	4.20 (0.63)	1.20 (1.03)	3.67**	9
Adjectives/Adverbs	10	1.20 (1.03)	3.30 (0.67)	2.10 (1.10)	6.03**	9
Total	10	15.70 (6.02)	29.00 (4.14)	13.30 (5.23)	8.04**	9

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

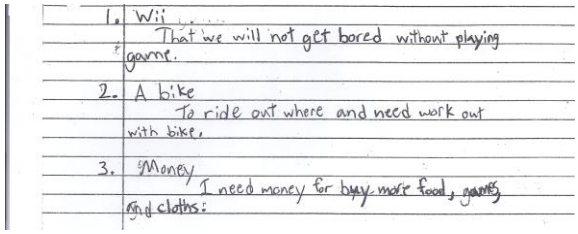


Figure 7: Student #14321 Written Language, Pre-Intervention

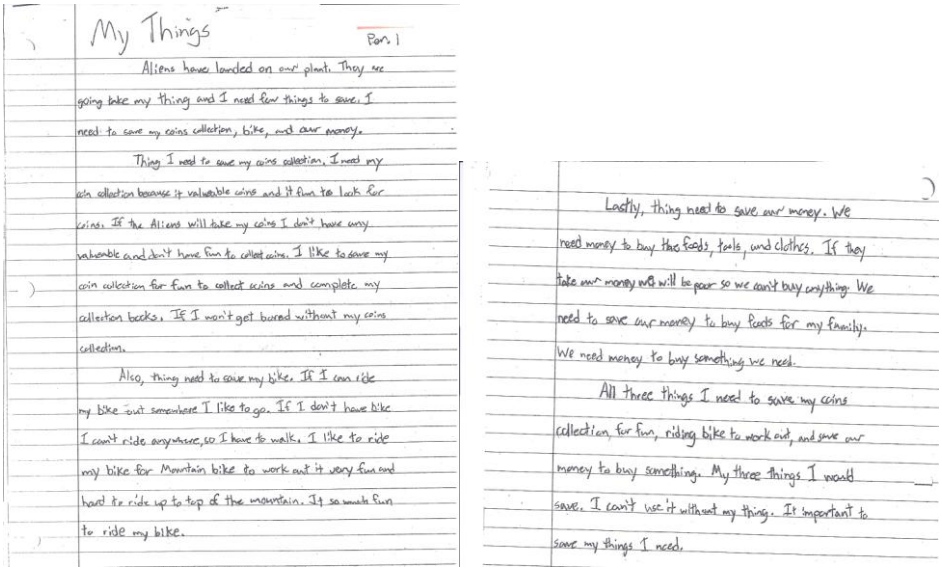


Figure 8: Student #14321 Written Language, Post-Intervention

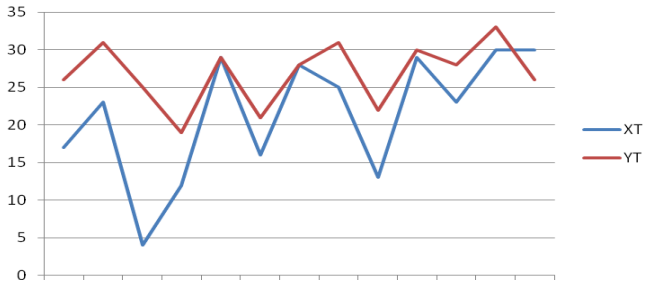


Figure 9: American Sign Language Component, Individual Scores

TABLE 7:
AMERICAN SIGN LANGUAGE COMPONENT, DEPENDENT MEANS T-TEST

Written Language	$\overline{X}$					
	n	Pre	Post	Difference	t	df
Classifiers	13	2.00 (1.15)	2.62 (0.51)	0.62 (0.77)	2.89**	12
Set Up	13	1.62 (1.26)	3.00 (0.71)	1.38 (0.87)	5.74**	12
Expression	13	3.08 (0.95)	3.69 (0.63)	0.62 (0.65)	3.41**	12
Body	13	3.00 (0.91)	3.77 (0.60)	0.77 (0.60)	4.63**	12
Verb	13	2.77 (1.42)	3.08 (0.76)	0.31 (1.11)	1.00	12
Sign Order	13	3.31 (0.85)	2.92 (0.49)	-0.38 (0.96)	-1.44	12
Topic	13	3.46 (0.88)	4.08 (1.04)	0.62 (1.39)	1.60	12
Expression	13	2.23 (1.48)	3.46 (0.66)	1.23 (1.24)	3.59**	12
Total	13	21.46 (8.34)	26.84 (4.22)	5.38 (6.13)	3.17**	12

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

V. Limitations

Fairview's approach provides systematic support for strategic language handling while respecting the individual teacher's professional expertise. FV provides assessment instruments for ASL development, and spontaneous written English. By design, there is local flexibility in the implementation and assessment approach for reading comprehension. In both school settings, obtaining reliable standardized measures of reading comprehension remained problematic. Teachers and administrators were reluctant to provide this data as scores were invalid, in their professional opinions. Actual data from standardized measures revealed inconsistent data trends and flawed results. This is not surprising given that accessibility and inequity in testing is a pervasive and systemic problem facing deaf educators across the United States (Mounty & Martin, 2005).

Site A, the residential school site, administered the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) and the Mississippi Curriculum Test (MCT-2), both standardized measurements of Reading Comprehension, but no achievement patterns could be identified. With the TABE, teachers and administrators complained that the computerized delivery hindered student performance because students could not write on the test. With the MCT-2, students could write on the test, have the test pre-bridged, and have unlimited time; however, the test content construction is based on instructional levels of non-disabled students across the state. Site A also administered the Brigance, a functional assessment of reading, annually, but found scores to be inflated. In contrast to these other measures, the residential school selected the SRA *Multiple Skills Series*, a functional assessment, to determine actual reading comprehension ability to guide instructional planning, for they deemed it was the most accurate.

Site B, the public school site, had similar problems. The teacher reported that students entered her classroom with inflated scores from the vocabulary and reading subtests of the Woodcock-Johnson from other schools, especially for students with strong oral language, or as a result of variation in test administration (i.e., allowing parts of the tests to be signed) or via score interpretation, such as averaging several subtests which inflates scoring. Site B utilizes the Woodcock Johnson in three year cycles and students show growth. However, initial student scores did not consistently reflect students' functional reading ability. She reported this as a consistent trend. She was more comfortable with scores during exit testing using only the Woodcock-Johnson's reading passage comprehension subtest and states no accommodations were given. This teacher also used the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI) as yearly pre and post tests and felt the independent reading level provided was much more reflective of student ability. These are the scores reported by Teacher B. While entry Woodcock-Johnson scores were not consistent with initial SRI pre-tests, exit scores did correlate with the SRI post-tests.

The addition of standardized pre and post reading measures, such as the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT-HI, SAT-9, Stanford 10), the Diagnostic Assessment of Reading (DAR), or other standardized tests, are necessary to validate and compare student progress. Data-driven decisions require valid data, and the data must be from the same test given within a program. Another limitation in this study is that the teachers administered the pre and posttest assessments, potentially resulting in researcher bias.

VI. Summary

The FV intervention program provides a structured approach to assist deaf students with reading. The program illuminates connections between English print and ASL through the use of conceptually accurate signing, code switching, and explicit teaching techniques and tools. Consistent and significant outcomes result when teachers fully implement the FV protocol and consistently and accurately assess student progress. The use of FV as RTI or as an informal reading inventory is a promising technique in programs serving deaf students, but its true impact can only be truly determined through additional rigorous research. Nevertheless, FV remains one of the few protocols that strategically address the three domains for bimodal bilinguals, with heavy emphasis on reading comprehension. While the FV components critically align with research and best practices in ASL/English bilingual education, the data presented herein should still be considered preliminary. Future research of a large scale nature, across delivery options, is needed to determine generalizability of results. Future studies should address reading comprehension protocols at the outset and decide upon a standardized method; in addition, fidelity of implementation and consideration of language handling differences should be delineated. Determination of effectiveness between and across school sites, teacher implementation, and educational settings would also be useful as this study did not compare the results of students between the two sites. While large scale future studies are necessary to further our understanding of effective techniques, the protocols show promise for increasing achievement in reading and assisting students in breaking beyond the fourth grade plateau effect by providing them with systematic tools to attack English print.

References

[1] Andrews, J. F., Leigh, I. W., & Weiner, M. T. (2004). Deaf people: Evolving perspectives in psychology, education and sociology. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
[2] Andrews, J.F., & Karlin, A. (1996). Reading behaviors of deaf bilingual college students. *JADARA*, *36*(1), 28-44.
[3] Andrews, J.F. & Rusher, M. (2010). Codeswitching techniques: Evidence-based practices for the ASL/English bilingual classroom. *American Annals for the Deaf*, 155(4), 407-424.

[4] Ausbrooks, M. (2007). Predictors of reading success among deaf bilinguals: Examining the relationship between American Sign Language and English. Beaumont, TX: Lamar University.
[5] Ausbrooks Rusher, M. (2012, in press) Title: Language interdependence between American Sign Language and English: A review of empirical studies. ERIC (ED530276).
[6] Bailes, C. (2001). Integrative ASL-English language arts: Bridging paths to literacy. *Sign Language Studies*, 1(2), 147-174.
[7] Baker, C., & Jones, S. P. (1998). Encyclopedia of bilingualism and bilingual education. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, Inc.
[8] Bradley, R., Danielson, L, and Doolittle, J. (2007). Responsiveness to intervention: 1997 to 2007. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, May/June, Vol. 39, No. 5, 8-12.
[9] Charrow, V.R. (1981). The written English of deaf adolescents. In M.F. Whiteman (Ed.), *Writing: The nature, development, and teaching of written communication. Vol. 1*. (pp. 179-187). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[10] Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, *49*, 222-251.
[11] Cummins, J. (2000). Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire. Buffalo, NY: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
[12] Cummins, J. (2007). The relationship between American Sign Language proficiency and English academic development: A review of the research. Retrieved June 15, 2009 from http://aslthinktank.com/files/CumminsASL-Eng.pd
[13] Davis, H. & Silverman, R. (1966). Hearing and deafness. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
[14] Dehaene, (2009). Reading in the brain. New York: Viking Penguin, p. 219.
[15] DeLana, M., Gentry, M., & Andrews, J. (2008). The efficacy of ASL/English bilingual education: Investigating public schools. *American Annals of the Deaf, 152*(1), 73-87.
[16] Dixon, C. (1990). Language Experience Approach to Reading (And Writing): LEA for ESL .Prentice Hall.
[17] Easterbrooks, S. R., Lederberg, A. R., Miller, E. M., Bergeron, J. P., & Connor, C. M. (2008). Emergent literacy skills during earlychildhood in children with hearing loss: Strengths and weaknesses. *Volta Review, 108*(2), 91-114.
[18] Frishberg, N. (2000). An interpreter creates the space. In K. Emmorey & H. Lane (Eds.), *The signs of language revisited: An anthology to honor Ursula Bellugi and Edward Klima* (pp. 169-192). Mahweh, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
[19] Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L.S., Compton, D.L., Bouton, B., Caffrey, E., & Hill, L. (2007). Dynamic assessment as responsiveness to intervention. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 39(5), 58- 63.
[20] Garcia, O. (2009). Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
[21] Goldman-Meadow, S. & Mayberry, R. (2001). How do profoundly deaf children learn to read? *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 16(4), 222-229.
[22] Grosjean, F. (1998). Living with two languages and cultures. In I. Parasnis (Ed.), *Culture and language diversity and the deaf experience* (pp. 20-37). New York: Cambridge University Press.
[23] Haskins, B. (2000). Serving and assessing deaf patients: Implications for Psychiatry. *Psychiatric Times, XVII*(12), 29-32.
[24] Hauser, P. C. (2000). Code switching: American Sign Language and cued English. In M. Metzger (Ed.*), Bilingualism and identity in Deaf communities* (pp. 43-78). Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.
[25] Hoffmeister, R. J. (2000). A piece of the puzzle: ASL and reading comprehension in deaf children. In C. Chamberlain, J. P. Morford & R. Mayberry (Eds.), *Language acquisition by eye* (pp. 143-163). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers.
[26] Johnson, R., Liddell, S., & Erting, C. (1989). Unlocking the curriculum. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet Research Institute.
[27] Johnson, J., Watkins, R., & Rice, M. (1992). Bimodal bilingual language development in a hearing child of deaf parents. *Applied Psycholinguistics, (13)*, 31-52.
[28] Kame'enui, E. (2007). A new paradigm, responsiveness to intervention. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, May/June, Vol. 39, No. 5, 6-7.
[29] Kyle, F. E., & Harris, M. (2006). Concurrent correlates and predictors of reading and spelling achievement in deaf and hearing school children. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 11*(3), 273-288.
[30] Larson, M. L. (1994). Translation and linguistic theory. In R. E. Asher (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of language and linguistics, Volume 9* (pp. 4685-4694). Oxford and Tarrytown, NY: Pergamon Press.
[31] Lartz, M., & Lestina, L. (1995). Strategies deaf mothers use when reading to their young deaf or hard of hearing children. *American Annals of the Deaf, 140*(4), 358-362.
[32] LaSasso, C., & Lollis, J. (2003). Survey of residential and day schools for deaf students in the United States that identify themselves as bilingual-bicultural programs. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 8*(1), 79-91.
[33] Lieberman, P. (2000). Human language and our reptilian brain: the subcortical bases of speech, syntax, and thought. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
[34] Livingston, S. (1997). Rethinking the education of deaf students: Theory and practice from a teacher's perspective. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
[35] Mather, S., & Thibeault, A. (2000). Creating an involvement-focused style in book reading with deaf and hard of hearing students: The visual way. In C. Chamberlain, J. P., Morford & R. Mayberry (Eds.), *Language acquisition by eye* (pp. 191-220). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers.
[36] Mayer, C. (2007). What really matters in the early literacy development of deaf children. J*ournal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education* 12(4), 413-431.
[37] Mayer, C., & Akamatsu, C. T. (November 30, 1998). Bilingual-bicultural models of literacy education for deaf students: considering the claims. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 4*, 1-8.
[38] Mayer, C., & Akamatsu, C.T. (2003). Bilingualism and literacy. In M. Marschark & P.E. Spencer (Eds.), *Deaf studies, language, and education* (pp. 136-147). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
[39] Mayer, C., & Akamatsu, T. (2010). Bilingualism and literacy. In M. Marschark & P. Spencer (Eds.), T*he Oxford handbook of deaf studies, language, and education* (Vol. 1; 2nd ed.) (pp. 144-155). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

[40] Mayer, C., & Wells, G. (1996). Can the linguistic interdependence theory support a bilingual-bicultural model of literacy education for deaf students? *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 1*, 93-107.
[41] McQuarrie, L., & Parrila, R. K. (2009). Deaf children's awareness of phonological structure: Rethinking the 'functional equivalence' hypothesis. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education.* 14(2):137-154.
[42] Mitchell, R., & Karchmer, M. A. (2004). Chasing the mythical ten percent: Parental hearing status of deaf and hard of hearing students in the United States. *Sign Language* Studies (4)2, pp. 138-163.
[43] Mounty, J. L., & Martin, D. S. (2005). Assessing deaf adults: Critical issues in testing and evaluation. Washington, D.C: Gallaudet University Press.
[44] Myers, M. (2011). The relationship between English reading comprehension scores and years enrolled at a residential school for the deaf. Unpublished dissertation. Beaumont, TX: Lamar University.
[45] National Reading Panel. (2001). Teaching children to read, an evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. National Institute for Literacy.
[46] Nover, S. (2006, February). Language Planning. Paper presented at the Association of College Educators of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Denver, Colorado.
[47] Nover, S., Andrews, J., Baker, S., Everhart, V., & Bradford, M. (2002). Staff development in ASL/English bilingual instruction for deaf students: Evaluation and impact study. *USDLC Star Schools project report no. 5*. Retrieved May 16, 2005, from http://www.nmsd.k12.nm.us/caeber/documents/year5.pdf
[48] Nover, S., Christensen, K., & Cheng, L. (1998). Development of ASL and English competence for learners who are deaf. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 18(4), 61-72.
[49] Nover, S., & Moll, L. (1997). Cultural mediation of deaf cognition. In M. P. Moeller & B. Schick (Eds.), *Deafness and diversity: Sociolinguistics issues* (pp. 39-50). Omaha, NE: Boys Town National Research Hospital.
[50] Padden, C. (1998). From the cultural to the bicultural: The modern deaf community. In I. Parasnis (Ed.), *Culture and language diversity and the deaf experience*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
[51] Pinker, S. (1998). How the Mind Works. Salt Lake City, UT: Science News. 155(2).
[52] Rayner, K., Foorman, B., Perfetti, C., Pesetsky, D., and Seidenberg, M. (2002). How Should Reading Be Taught? *Scientific American*. March: 85-91.
[53] Sidelnick, M. & Svoboda, M, (2000). The bridge between drawing and writing: Hannah's story. *The Reading Teacher*, Vol 54, No. 2, October, 174-184.
[54] Schleper, D. (2002). Leading from Behind: Language Experience in Action. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University, Laurent Clerc National Deaf Education Center.
[55] Schimmel, C.S. (2010). Owner and CEO of Fairview Learning, Personal Communication, May 10, 2010.
[56] Schirmer, B. (2000). Language and literacy development in children who are deaf. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
[57] Singleton, J.L, Supalla, S., Litchfield, S., Schley, S. (1998). From sign to word: Considering modality constraints in ASL/English bilingual education. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 18(4), 16-29.
[58] Stokoe, William C. (1960). Sign language structure: An outline of the visual communication systems of the American deaf. *Studies in linguistics: Occasional papers* (No. 8). Buffalo: Dept. of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Buffalo.
[59] Stokoe, W. (1976). The study and use of sign language. *Sign Language Studies, 10,* 1-36.
[60] Syverud, S. Guardino, C. & Selznick, D. (2009) . Teaching Phonological Skills to a Deaf First Grader: A Promising Strategy. *American Annals of the Deaf*, Fall, 154 (4).
[61] Traxler, C.B. (2002). Measuring up to performance standards in reading and mathematics: Achievement of selected deaf and hard of hearing students in the national norming of the Ninth Edition Stanford Achievement Test, *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education, 5*, 337-348.
[62] Trezek, B., Wang, Y, & Paul, P. (2010). Reading and deafness: Theory, research, and practice. Clifton Park, New York: Delmar, Cengage Learning.
[63] Wang, Y., Trezek, B., Luckner, J. & Paul, P. (2008). The role of phonology and phonologically related skills in reading instruction for students who are deaf or hard of hearing. *American annals of the Deaf*, Fall, 153(4), 396-407.
[64] Valli, C., & Lucas, C. (2000). Linguistics of American Sign Language: An introduction. Washington, D.C: Gallaudet University Press.

Melissa Ausbrooks-Rusher is an Assistant Professor of Deaf Studies/Deaf Education at Lamar University in Beaumont, TX. A former classroom teacher of deaf students, she prepares masters-level teachers and doctoral-level educational leaders for bilingual programs.

Connie Schimmel is Emerita Associate Professor of Education at Millsaps College in Jackson, MS. Schimmel is also the founder and CEO of Fairview.

Sandra Edwards, a CODA, is Superintendent at the Mississippi School for the Deaf. Edwards worked with Schimmel in the initial development of the Fairview strategies and its early implementation.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1330-1340, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1330-1340

Second Language Acquisition of Complex Structures: The Case of English Restrictive Relative Clauses

Alexandra I. Prentza
Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, 54 124, Thessaloniki, Greece
Email: prentzal@gmail.gr

***Abstract*—This paper examines the formation of Restrictive Relative Clauses (RRC) in Greek and English and investigates the acquisition of English RRCs by advanced Greek learners. On the assumption that L1 Greek and L2 English exhibit parametrically different choices as regards RRC formation which are associated with abstract syntactic features, the current experiment addresses the question of whether parameter resetting is possible in adult L2 acquisition. The results have shown that non-native speakers (NNSs) fared significantly less successfully than native speakers (NSs) in the relevant grammaticality judgement task. The conclusion is that advanced Greek learners fail to acquire the feature specification of the English relative C. The obtained data lends additional support to recent L2 theories which maintain that syntactic divergence between L1 and L2 is associated with prolonged acquisitional problems.**

***Index Terms*—second language acquisition, restrictive relative clauses, syntax, formal features**

I. Introduction

English Restrictive Relative Clauses constitute complex syntactic structures which Greek second language (L2) learners are exposed to in post-intermediate level of proficiency. Although, like non-RRCs, they modify a noun and specify its reference (Haegeman & Gueron, 1999), RRCs are different at a phonological, semantic and syntactic level: they are not separated from the rest of the sentence through intonation (pause) or punctuation (commas), they convey information which is central to the information of the whole construction (Huddleston, 1993) and finally, they are modifiers, unlike non-RRCs which have no syntactic relation to their antecedent (Fabb, 1990). Compare (1a) and (1b):

(1) a. Maria, who has a Ph.D. in European Integration, is now unemployed. (non-RRC)
b. Tonight I will wear the dress which I bought yesterday. (RRC)

Additionally, as will be discussed later in detail, English RRCs are different than Greek RRCs in terms of syntactic features and formation. However, in no course book either published by Greek or English publishing houses are the particular characteristics of these clauses which differentiate them from the equivalent Greek structures presented to Greek learners. Moreover, to the best of my knowledge, most foreign language teachers fail to incorporate this point in their teaching, since such an approach bears on a more theoretical background, that of second language acquisition syntax, which they may lack.

The present papers aims at presenting the differences between Greek and English RRCs as well as at exploring the L2 acquisition of these structures by advanced Greek learners. As regards the exploration of RRC L2 acquisition, empirical evidence will be provided which shows its problematic nature, namely that (ultimate) attainment of the permutation under question is difficult if not unfeasible for L2 learners whose native language (L1) syntactically differs in this respect.

II. Theoretical Framework

This paper will adopt a Universal Grammar (UG) approach (Chomsky, 1981; 1986a; 1995) to second language acquisition (SLA), namely that the construction of L2 grammars abides by the same universal principles, i.e. the fundamental and invariant sets of rules shared by all human languages, that guide L1 acquisition. On the other hand, the structural diversity among human languages is represented by the concept of parameters which, unlike UG principles have to be fixed by experience upon exposure to a linguistic system. According to minimalist assumptions on the architecture of the language system parametric differences between languages, or in other words cross-linguistic variation, have been associated with abstract syntactic features which differ between L1 and L2. Moreover, much recent research has provided convergent evidence that when L1 and L2 differ with respect to formal syntactic features, ultimate attainment of the involved structure(s) is impossible the reason being that L1 influences L2 representations even at advanced stages of proficiency though L1 parametric options (see Tsimpli & Roussou, 1991; Smith & Tsimpli,

1995; Hawkins & Chan, 1997; Beck, 1998; Hawkins & Hattori, 2006; Tsimpli & Dimitrakopoulou, 2007; Prentza & Tsimpli, in press).

A. Subjacency: A UG Principle and Proposed Parameters

English RRCs have been traditionally assumed to involve the movement of a wh-word to the specifier position of the Complementizer Phrase (CP), i.e. in Spec-CP position, in the embedded clause (Chomsky, 1986b) Since wh-movement is involved, then locality constraints on movement apply in these structures and the UG principle of subjacency is considered relevant. The principle of subjacency is usually expressed along the following lines:

(2) Subjacency

A constituent may cross only one bounding node in a single movement.

Given that for English Noun Phrase (NP) and Inflection Phrase (IP) are bounding nodes (or 'domains), when an NP takes a clausal complement, extraction of a wh-word from that clausal complement is ungrammatical, as it violates subjacency:

(# indicates the bounding nodes crossed which induce subjacency violations)

(3) *This is the painting $[_{CP1}$ which$_i$ $[_{IP1}$ ` Penelope heard $[_{NP}$ ` the news $[_{CP2}$ t ́$_i$ that $[_{IP2}$ ` her friend had bought t$_i$]]]]].

Wh-extraction out of a clause headed by a wh-phrase, a wh-island as it is called, also gives rise to subjacency violations:

(4) *This is the land $[_{CP1}$ that$_i$ $[_{IP1}$ #my brother asked me $[_{CP2}$ when e $[_{IP2}$ # I will sell t$_i$]]]].

Other constructions that induce subjacency violations are relative clauses and complex (or sentential) subjects. Notice crucially that since subjacency is a constraint on movement, in non-movement structures this principle does not apply.

In early work it was proposed that different constituents could count as boundary nodes for the principle of subjacency cross-linguistically. In this vein, Rizzi (1982) proposed that bounding nodes are parameterized. While it was stipulated that for English, NP and IP are bounding nodes, Rizzi suggested that for Italian bounding nodes would be NP and CP.

In later work additional proposals were formulated, one of them being that the overt or not movement of wh-operators is parameterized. Related to the assumption that English RRC formation requires a wh-word to move from an argument position in the embedded clause to the non-argument Spec-CP position is the assumption that this movement is triggered by a 'strong' [wh] feature on the relative C for the purposes of 'checking', as Chomsky (1995) proposes. According to Checking Theory functional heads like C dominate a cluster of abstract grammatical features which may be strong or weak and which must be checked by a matching lexical item. Wh-movement is motivated by the checking of abstract specifier features of a functional head. Specifier features must be checked by a maximal projection in a specifier head-relation. While strong features must be checked by overt movement, weak features must be checked by covert movement at the symbolic system of Logical Form[1] (LF). In other words, the morphological strength of the [wh] feature on C is related to the level of application of wh-movement cross-linguistically. Since in languages like English overt movement is necessary but in languages like Japanese or Chinese it is not, it can be assumed that in English the [wh] feature on C is strong, but in Japanese or Chinese it is weak (Haegeman, 1994). Concerning terminology, besides using the strength metaphor, relative C in various languages can be described as being specified (having a strong feature) or unspecified (having a weak feature) for the [wh] feature. Thus, it is claimed that the variability between languages in terms of whether there is overt movement of wh-operators or not is related to whether the predicative C is specified for the [wh] feature or not, which in turn determines the level at which wh-movement applies. In an attempt to make the subsequent discussion clearer, a language will be described and analyzed as a movement or non-movement language in terms of *overt* movement.

B. RRC Formation in English

In English, RRCs are complements to a noun in the main clause which is known as the *head* of the relative clause. This main noun is co-referential with a noun in the relative clause that is null in English. This null noun can be in subject, direct object, and object of a preposition or be part of a possessive construction (Hawkins, 2001). Examples in (8) illustrate object and object of preposition English RRCs which are the focus of this study.

(8) a. The house [which we bought_] is by the seaside. (Object)

b. The fiend [who I sent a letter to_] studies in Italy. (Object of a preposition)

In the above examples, the head noun and the relative clause are linked by a wh-word, but alternatively they can be linked by an overt ('that') or null (Ø) C (Hawkins, 2001):

(9) a. The house [that we bought_] is by the seaside. *overt C*

b. The friend [I sent a letter to_] studies in Italy. *null C*

In the case of object of preposition relatives, the preposition can be either stranded or pied-piped (Ross, 1967) along with the wh-word (Hawkins, 2001):

(10) a. The friend {who} I sent a letter to. *preposition stranding*

{that }

[1] The design of language provides a variety of symbolic systems, including the level of Logical Form (LF) which specifies aspects of meaning, insofar as they are linguistically determined (Chomsky, 1995).

b. The friend to whom I sent a letter. *preposition pied-piping*

A standard account of the structure of English RRCs is that they are CPs which are complements to the head noun (Hawkins, 2001). According to Chomsky (1986b) and subsequent work in syntax, RRC formation in English involves the movement of a wh-operator from a position in the embedded clause to Spec-CP position. The moved wh-phrase leaves a trace (***t***) in the position in which it was generated. As Hawkins & Chan (1997) have pointed out, since wh-operators in English can be either overt (**'who'**, **'which'**) or null (**Op**), an overt operator can only be combined with a null C (example 11a) while a null operator can be combined either with an overt ('that') or with a null C (Ø) (Examples 11b,c).

(11) a. The boy [$_{CP}$ **who Ø** [$_{IP}$ I met ***t***]] will come to the party.

b. The boy [$_{CP}$ **Op that** [$_{IP}$ I met ***t***]] will come to the party.

c. The boy [$_{CP}$ **Op Ø** [$_{IP}$ I met ***t***]] will come to the party.

In the case of preposition stranding, a wh-word is moved to Spec-CP position, while in the case of pied-piping a prepositional phrase containing the wh-word is moved (Hawkins, 2001):

(12) a. The friend [$_{CP}$ **who Ø** [$_{IP}$ I sent a letter to ***t***]].

b. The friend [$_{CP}$ **to whom Ø** [$_{IP}$ I sent a letter ***t***]].

However, a sentence like (13) would be unacceptable in English.

(13) *The boy [$_{CP}$ **who that** [$_{IP}$ I met ***t***]] will come to the party.

According to Rizzi (1990), the distributional restrictions of operators and complementizers and, consequently, the ungrammaticality of sentences like (17) can be attributed to the feature specification of relative C and to a requirement for agreement among heads and specifiers. Rizzi introduced a feature system specifying the different kinds of C:

(14) a. +/- wh

b. +/-pred(icative)

(Rizzi, 1990, p. 67)

Based on this system, Rizzi proposed that relative clauses, which are clauses predicated of nouns, are headed by a [+ predicative] C, while clauses which cannot be predicated are headed by a [-predicative] C. Rizzi argued that specifier-head agreement with respect to this feature is compulsory in the domain of C and suggested that a C specified for [+wh] can occur with a wh-operator in Spec-CP position, whereas a C specified for [-wh] cannot. In this sense, the [wh] feature of the relative CP forces an overt or null operator specified for the [wh] feature to move to Spec-CP position. According to Rizzi, this system of binary features can uniquely define specific morphemes belonging to C. In relative clauses 'that' has the features [-wh] [+predicative], null C (Ø) has the features [+wh], [+predicative], overt wh-operators have the features [+wh], [+predicative] and null operators have a [wh] feature, but with an unspecified value. Given that there is a requirement for specifier-head agreement in terms of the values of these features, a null C can occur both with an overt or null operator but an overt C ('that') can occur only with a null operator (Rizzi, 1990). Based on the above, (13) is ungrammatical because there is a clash between the feature values of 'who' and 'that' as presented below:

(15) The boy [$_{CP}$ **who** $_{[\ +wh]}$ **that**$_{[\ -wh,\ +pred]}$ [$_{IP}$ I met ***t***]] will come to the party.

C. RRC Formation in Greek

In Greek, relativization is possible from the same range of NP positions as in English. This part will be devoted to the description of the structure of Greek object (O) and object of preposition/oblique object (OO) relatives which will be examined in the current experiment.

For the purposes of this work it will be assumed that Greek RRCs, like English RRCs are CPs which are complements to the head noun. In Greek, the morpheme which links the head noun and the relative clause can alternate between the relative pronoun 'o opios' (ο οποίος) that is marked for gender, case and number (In Greek: ο οποίος, η οποία, το οποίο) and the relative pronoun 'pu' (In Greek: που) that is not marked for gender, case or number (Tzartzanos, 1946).

Greek object relatives can be formulated in three ways:

(16) O mathitis **pu ton** katigorisan adika

The student that him blamed-3plural unjustly.

*The student **that** they blamed ***him*** unjustly.

(17) O mathitis **pu** katigorisan adika.

The student that blamed-3plural unjustly.

The student **that** they blamed unjustly.

(18) O mathitis ton opio katigorisan adika.

The student him-who blamed-3plural unjustly.

The student **who(m)** they blamed unjustly.

As these examples show, 'pu' can occur either with or without the resumptive pronoun 'ton', while 'o opios' cannot occur with a resumptive pronoun. It must be noted that in the example (18) 'ton' is not a resumptive pronoun but the article of the relative pronoun 'o opios'. Both the article and the pronoun are marked for case, gender and number and synthesize an agreeing form. Here, 'ton opio' is male in gender, accusative in case and singular in number. Additional evidence that Greek object RRCs can have a resumptive pronoun structure comes from Tsimpli (1997). In her

investigation of resumptive strategies in SLA, Tsimpli assumes that Greek wh-questions optionally allow for a resumptive clitic pronoun co-indexed with the wh-phrase extracted from object position:

(19) Pjon eipes oti **ton** prosebalan xoris logo?
Whom said-2s that him-insulted-3p without reason
*Whom did you say that they insulted **him** without a reason?
(Tsimpli, 1997, p. 641)

Given that relative clauses are formulated with wh-movement, like wh-questions, the assumption about the existence of an optional resumptive pronoun can also be extended in Greek object RRCs. For the purposes of this discussion we will make the assumption that 'pu' and 'o opios' are respectively a neutral and an agreeing form of C heading the CP of the relative clause, as illustrated in (20-22)[2].

(20) O mathitis [$_{CP}$ **pu** [$_{IP}$ ***ton*** katigorisan adika]].
*The student that they blamed him unjustly.
(21) O mathitis [$_{CP}$ **Op pu** [$_{IP}$ katigorisan adika ***t***]].
The student that they blamed unjustly.
(22) O mathitis [$_{CP}$ **Op ton opio** [$_{IP}$ katigorisan adika ***t***]].
The student who(m) they blamed unjustly.

In Greek object of preposition relatives there are two possibilities:

(23) O sinadelfos **pu** i Anna malose **mazi tu.**
The colleague that the Anna argued-3sing. with him.
* The colleague **that** Anna argued **with *him.***
(24) O sinadelfos **me**[3] **ton**[4] **opoio** malose i Anna.
The colleague with him-who argued-3sing. the Anna.
The colleague **with whom** Anna argued.

Preposition stranding is impossible in Greek and so a relative clause like (25) would be ungrammatical in Greek:

(25) *O sinadelfos pou /o opoios i Anna malose mazi.
The colleague that /whom Anna argued with.

Following the same line of thought, the structure of the above sentences is the following:

(26) O sinadelfos [$_{CP}$ **pu** [$_{IP}$ i Anna malose **mazi *tu***]].
*The colleague that Anna argued with him**.**
(27) O sinadelfos [$_{CP}$ **Op me ton opio** [$_{IP}$ i Anna malose ***t***]].
The colleague with whom Anna argued.
(28) *O sinadelfos [$_{CP}$ **Op pu/o opios** [$_{IP}$ i Anna malose **mazi *t***]]
The colleague that/who Anna argued with.

As the above examples indicate, in object and object of preposition relatives, Greek has an alternative resumptive structure which English lacks. Other languages that exhibit a resumptive pronoun strategy in RRCs and, crucially, lack of wh-movement are French (Haegeman, 1994) and Chinese (Hawkins & Chan, 1997). Given that the use of a resumptive pronoun indicates a non-movement structure, it could be argued that when Greek uses resumptive pronouns in RRCs, no wh-operator movement takes place. This idea is reflected in the examples (20) and (26) where, unlike other examples of Greek RRCs, resumptive pronouns are used and null wh-operators are not moved to Spec-CP.

D. A Parametric Difference between Greek and English

As mentioned above, in object and object of preposition relatives Greek allows both a resumptive and a non-resumptive construction, while English disallows resumptive use. Since the existence of resumptive pronouns is taken as evidence of lack of wh-movement (Hawkins & Chan, 1997; Haegeman, 1994), it can be argued that Greek instantiates both movement and non-movement strategies in RRC formation, while English represents only the movement option. But, what is it that forces overt movement in RRC formation? Hawkins & Chan (1997) have suggested that operator movement is the result of a particular specification of the functional features of predicative C. They have claimed that in the initial state of UG the functional category C is a cluster of unspecified parametric options including [predicative], [wh] and [Agr(eement)]. Based on the standard assumption that wh-operators in mature native grammars move to the Spec-CP position (Chomsky, 1995), Hawkins & Chan argued that on exposure to L1 English, first language learners will acquire the fact that the [wh] feature under C is strong requiring that an operator (overt or null) move to the Spec-CP. While the overt ('that') and null (Ø) English complementizer, is specified for the [wh] feature, the Chinese predicative complementizer 'de' is minimally specified for predication and unspecified for [wh]. As a result, wh-operator movement is not possible in Chinese (Hawkins & Chan, 1997). Since Greek instantiates both the possibility of movement and non-movement in the construction of RRCs, it appears to combine elements of English

[2] An investigation of the function of 'pu' and 'o opios' in the relative CP would go beyond the scope of the present discussion, thus, we make the aforementioned assumption but without any strong commitment to it.
[3] The Greek prepositions 'me' and 'mazi' have the same meaning ('with') and are usually used interchangeably. In the case of preposition pied-piping in oblique object relatives, the preposition 'me' seems to be preferred. Example (24) reflects this preference.
[4] 'ton' is not a RP, but the article of the relative pronoun 'o opoios'.

and Chinese-type languages. Hawkins, (personal communication, 2001) has suggested that given the above observations, a possible assumption would be that there are two kinds of 'pu' in Greek: one specified and one unspecified for the [wh] feature. Shlonsky (1992) argues for a similar structure in Hebrew where there are to kinds of predicative 'še'. Apparently 'pu' has the same properties. When 'pu' is specified for the [wh] feature and the operator is an object operator, the form of 'pu' may change into an agreeing 'opios' form or remain unaltered (Examples 17, 18). However, as the example (24) illustrates, when the operator is an oblique object operator and 'pu' is specified for the [wh] feature, then it is required that the form of 'pu' changes into an agreeing 'opios' form. So, it seems that the possibility of two forms when C is specified for [wh] can exist only when the operator is an object operator. It could be hypothesized that the possibility of two forms is related to the presence or absence of preposition. In Greek object of preposition relatives where 'pu' is specified for [wh], the preposition is pied-piped along with the operator, since preposition stranding is impossible in Greek (see example 25). In preposition pied-piping structures, an agreeing form of 'pu' is required.

III. Previous L2 Studies

Most L2 studies report that native and non-native sensitivity to subjacency violations differ.

White, Travis & McLachlan in 1992 tested high and low intermediate Malagasy learners of English by means of a judgement and a question formation task. Malagasy differs from English both in the domains out of which wh-elements can be extracted and in the nature of the position from which the phrase is extracted (gaps). In terms of domains, neither language allows extraction out of a complex NPs or adjuncts. English allows extraction out of object NPs and CPs, while Malagasy only permits extraction out of subject CPs. In terms of gaps, while Malagasy allows only subjects to be extracted, English permits subjects and non-subjects to move. However, subject wh-movement is restricted in order to avoid *that*-trace effects. White, Travis & McLachlan found that Malagasy speakers of both levels are familiar with the domains and gaps in English wh-movement: they rejected extraction out of complex NPs, adjuncts and NP subjects and they accepted movement out of CP objects. Additionally, learners allowed wh-movement both from subject and object position. White, Travis & McLachlan interpreted these results as evidence of parameter resetting in adult L2. Martohardjono & Gair targeting L2 movement operations studied in 1993 the acquisition of English relative clauses and topic constructions by Indonesian learners. Indonesian was assumed to instantiate both movement and non-movement operations in topicalization. Conversely, no movement is involved in relativization. Martohardjono & Gair reported a development in L2 performance with advanced Indonesian learners faring more successfully in rejecting subjacency violations than intermediate learners. Interestingly, it was found that in topic constructions both learner groups perform strikingly well. The researchers claimed that the possibility of movement in L1 Indonesian facilitated the acquisition of English topic constructions, despite the existence of a non-movement alternative construction in L1.

More recently, Hawkins & Chan (1997) studied the acceptability of ungrammatical English RRCs in the L2 grammars of Chinese and French elementary, beginner and advanced L2 learners. They assumed that the existence or not of wh-movement in RRC formation reflects a parametric difference between L1 and L2: while the predicative C in English is specified for the [wh] feature which triggers operator movement, the predicative C in Chinese is not. Hawkins & Chan's results showed that Chinese learners were significantly less accurate in rejecting and correcting ungrammatical RRCs than age and proficiency-matched French learners. However, the fact that Chinese learner performance on ungrammatical CP constructions improves with increasing proficiency was interpreted by the researchers as an indication of their ability to acquire the surface morphophonological properties of the English predicative C. Moreover it was found that, Chinese learners were able to progressively acquire the [CP…gap] pattern of English RRCs, even in cases where a resumptive pronoun is allowed or required in their L1. Crucially though, statistical analyses of items displaying subjacency violations (wh-island and complex NP) have revealed that advanced Chinese learners were significantly less accurate in detecting wh-island violations than French learners and English controls. Hawkins & Chan's explanation of these results was that although advanced Chinese subjects had acquired the surface [CP…gap] structure of English RRCs, they were unable to acquire the parametric option of wh-operator movement involved in English RRCs. On the background of theses results, Hawkins & Chan proposed the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis which constitutes a syntactic characterization of UG availability in SLA: abstract syntactic features (i.e. [wh] on the relative C) which are associated with parameters remain inaccessible in adult L2 acquisition while UG principles continue to guide the process. The L2 acquisition of wh-movement was also investigated in Wong & Hawkins' study in 2000 on English argument questions. The L2 group consisted speakers of Malay, a language which exhibits wh-movement in the relevant constructions but only when the argument is in subject position. Wong & Hawkins reported no significant differences between L2 learners and native speakers in items involving movement of matrix objects as well as of embedded subjects and objects, which, according to Wong & Hawkins indicates that advanced learners are able to acquire wh-movement from positions not found in their L1. However, Wong & Hawkins detected a problem with embedded clauses introduced by 'that' since Malay speakers displayed target deviant performance in that they accepted ungrammatical subject extraction items and rejected grammatical object extraction ones. Thus, Wong & Hawkins argued that even though advanced Malay learners were able to extend wh-movement to positions not found in Malay they failed to acquire the feature specification of the English C and therefore reset the parameter from the L1 to the L2 value. Finally, in a more recent study Kiss-Gulyás (2004) examined the acquisition of

English RRCs by Hungarian learners of English. In Hungarian the relative C is [+pred], [+wh] but 'that' is disallowed in RRC formation. Kiss-Gulyas' findings are in line with Hawkins and Chan's data, since it is reported that Hungarian learners of all levels and, crucially, of near-native proficiency were not able to fully acquire the morphophonological realization of the English [+pred] C. Kiss-Gulyás claimed that the attested persistent inconsistency in L2 performance reveals that L1 parametric options cannot be reset as regards the function of C in English.

IV. Research Hypothesis

On the assumption that UG is in some way accessible to L2 learners (i.e. at least through its principles) making available the [wh] feature, whether languages specify C for that feature or not is subject to parameter setting (Hawkins, 2001). Regarding the issue of parameter *re*setting in adult L2 acquisition, i.e. the possibility of acquiring in non-primary L2 development abstract syntactic features which differ between L1 and L2, this paper will adopt a formal features deficit account. In particular, the prediction is that since L1 Greek and L2 English instantiate syntactically different options regarding RRC formation, the Greek learners of the experiment will fail to acquire the feature specification of the English relative C even at advanced stages, although they may superficially appear to have acquired the [CP…gap] structure of English.

V. The Experiment

A. Method

Participants

The experimental group of this study consisted of 10 adult Greek speakers (age range: 22-25) who held the Cambridge Proficiency in English and were thus considered advanced learners. Greek learners had been studying English for an average of 9.9 years at the time the test, and were exposed to the language after the age of 9. Therefore, it can be safely argued that they are adult learners of the language. All participants were full-time postgraduate students at the University of Essex and they had a 10-month exposure to English in a naturalistic setting. None of the non-native participants was studying linguistics either at undergraduate or postgraduate level. Apart from Greek learners, 10 native speakers of English (age range: 20-27) were used as a control group. Data from the English natives was used to confirm the administrator's judgements about which sentences are acceptable in English and which are not. Eight participants of the control group were postgraduate students and two were undergraduate students at the University of Essex.

Materials

To elicit data a Grammaticality Judgement (GJ) task was designed. A GJ task was chosen to other types of data collection because relative clauses constitute complex structures which are not frequent in L2 spontaneous production or even in the guided production of learners (see White, 1989; Wong & Hawkins, 2000). In an attempt to balance the complexity of the targeted structure, care was taken to ensure that the sentences of the test were as natural as possible and without too high lexis. The task consisted of 30 test items and 12 distractor items. From the test items, 20 were ungrammatical and 10 grammatical[5]. Ungrammatical items aimed to test the acceptability of structures which induce movement violations in the L2, while grammatical items aimed at to examine whether learners have acquired movement from object and object of preposition NP positions targeted by this study. Only subjects who were 90% accurate in this within-GJ syntax test judging as probably or definitely acceptable 9 out of the 10 grammatical sentences were included in final the experiment[6]. Grammaticality also cut across the distractor items resulting in 6 grammatical and 6 ungrammatical sentences. There were also two introductory practice items which, like the distractor sentences, were not subjected to analysis**.**

The variables used in the design of the grammatical items were movement position, i.e. object and object of preposition NP, and operator type, i.e. overt or null (OoP, NoP respectively). Four out of the ten items were instances of object relatives, while six were instances of object of preposition relatives. In the object relative type, half of the sentences involved overt operators and half null. In the object of preposition type, two involved null operators, while the remaining four overt operators. In the overt operator subtype, half of the items were instances of preposition stranding (PrS) (a property not available in L1 Greek) while the other half were instances of preposition pied-piping (PrP) (the only option in L1 Greek). Sentences in (33) provide examples of grammatical Object RRCs, while sentences in (34) exemplify grammatical OO RRCs:

(33) a. The friend who(m) Vicky will visit lives in London (O RRC, OoP)
b. Have you read the latest book that Isabel Alliente has written (O RRC, NoP)

(34) a. The salary which he had to live on was extremely poor (OO RRC, OoP, PrS)
b. The man with whom they have been talking is my supervisor (OO RRC, OoP, PrP)
c. The new job that he has applied for is very well paid (OO RRC, NoP)

[5] The decision to include fewer grammatical items than ungrammatical reflects the concern of not designing a too big test instrument which would be difficult to complete.

[6] This procedure excluded four participants from the experimental group, the result being a group of 10 learners.

The variables used in the design of the ungrammatical items were movement position, i.e. object and object of preposition NP, subjacency violation type, namely wh-islands and complex NPs, and Resumptive Pronoun (RP) existence or not. From the twenty items, eight were object relatives and twelve object of preposition relatives. In each type, half of the sentences represented wh-island violations and the other half complex NP violations. Additionally in the object RRCs, half of the items of the wh-island violation type also instantiated resumptive pronoun use, while in the other half no resumptive pronouns were used. The same distinction was found in the complex NP violation type. In the object of preposition RRCs across violation types, two sentences featured resumptive pronoun use, while four did not. Sentences (35-36) are examples of ungrammatical object and object of preposition RRCs respectively:

(35) a. * This is the employee whom Anna heard the rumor that the boss will promote (O RRC, Compl. DP viol.)
b. * I've head the song that the band asked their manager when they will record it (O RRC, wh-isl. viol., PR)

(36) a. * I read the provisions of the contract that there is a good possibility that their lawyer will object to them.
(OO RRC, Compl. DP viol., PR)
b. * I've just met the colleague who(m) Michael asked me when Jenny argued with
(OO RRCs, wh-isl. viol.)

Procedure

Before proceeding to the GJ task, participants read written instructions in their native language. They were asked to decide on the (un)acceptability[7] of a sentence as quickly as they could and were not allowed to go back and change any of their answers. When participants judged a sentence as unacceptable, they were asked to underline the part of it that was causing the ungrammaticality. Responses which attributed the ungrammaticality of an item to the wrong factors were excluded from the analysis. Participants had to indicate their judgements using a five-point Likert type scale from -2 to +2 as follows: -2 would be given to a definitely unacceptable sentence, +2 to a definitely acceptable one and 0 if they thought that a sentence was neither acceptable or unacceptable, or in other words, had equal chances of being acceptable or unacceptable realizing an 'in-between' and not a 'don't know' option (Sorace, 1996, p. 37). Note that, according to these instructions, the '0' category was not used to encode pure indeterminacy and, therefore, the items judged in this way were not eliminated in the statistical analysis. Participants were also given two more choices encoding (un)acceptability: -1 and +1: participants were instructed that they ought to use them when they were not as certain about the(un)acceptability of a sentence as they were when they used the -2 and +2 choices. In other words, the difference between the extremes of the scale (-2, +2) and the intermediate categories (-1 +1) is whether the participants judge a sentence as definitely or probably (un)acceptable. Consequently, in data analysis and in the interpretation of the results the two points on the negative and positive part of the scale were not conflated into one choice, a decision which together with the use and interpretation of the '0' category differentiates this experiment from much of L2 acquisition research regarding methodology. For statistical purposes and in order to capture the aforementioned contrasts, during data inputting we matched the -2 to +2 scale to a five-point positive scale ranging from 0 to 4. The advantage of this scale is that for both acceptable and unacceptable items, the higher the score, the better the response regarding both accuracy and certainty. Table 1 presents the interpretation for each category in the two 5-point scales:

TABLE I.
INTERPRETATION OF TEST CATEGORIES

Unacceptable	*Acceptable*	*-2 to+ 2 scale*	*0 to 4 scale*
definitely unacceptable	definitely acceptable	-2 / +2	4
probably unacceptable	probably acceptable	-1 / + 1	3
Neither acceptable not unacceptable		0	2
probably acceptable	probably unacceptable	+ 1 / -1	1
definitely acceptable	definitely unacceptable	+2 / -2	0

Analysis

Significant and non-significant differences in between-group comparisons (i.e. Greek learners vs. English controls) were assessed be means of independent samples t-tests. This analysis was preferred to one-way ANOVA which is used in many similar experiments since the participant groups of this experiment were two. Although it is not impossible to analyze the above results with one-way ANOVA (such analysis was also attempted and yielded similar results), independent samples t-tests constitute a more accurate and suitable procedure for the present data (Scholfield, 2001). Significant and non-significant differences in within-group comparisons regarding the experimental conditions as these were outlined in the *Materials* Section were assessed be means of paired samples t-tests.

B. Results

Results will be presented first for object relatives and then for object of preposition relatives. For each type, between-group comparisons will ne presented first, and within-group comparisons will follow.

Starting with object relatives, Fig. 1 presents group accuracy rates in the ungrammatical items of the test:

[7] Note that the term '(un)acceptability' was used instead of '(un)grammaticality' since the latter could discourage participants from taking part in the experiment as they may sound too 'formal' or academically oriented. In the presentation and interpretation of the results however the terms will be used interchangeably. The task was administrated in groups of two or three each time and the administrator was present during this process.

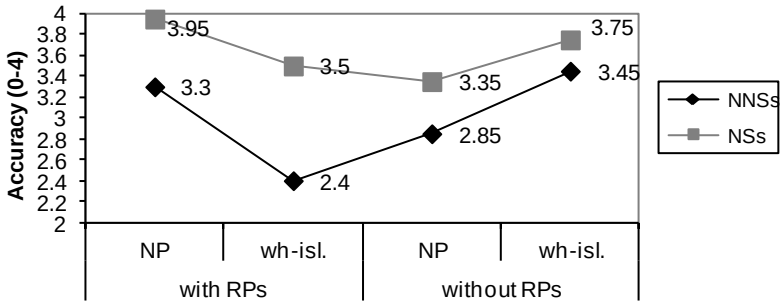


Figure 1. Accuracy in Ungrammatical Object RRCs

Regarding between-group comparisons, independent samples t-test conducted on the rates of Fig. 1 yielded significant differences between the learner and the control group in both ungrammatical structures involving RPs. Greek learners fared significantly less accurately in rejecting ungrammatical object RRCs violating the wh-island and the complex NP constraint in the presence of RPs ($p = 0.015$ and $p = 0.05$ respectively). Conversely, in the items where no RPs were used, the learner groups were as accurate as the English controls in judging the sentences as ungrammatical (both ps > 0.05).

Turning next to within-group comparisons, paired-samples t-test have revealed that Greek learners accepted significantly more ungrammatical items with RRs violating the wh-island constraint than ungrammatical items without RPs inducing the same violation ($p = 0.021$). As for the control group, the analysis has returned a significant difference in the rejection rates of items violating the complex NP constraint: items with RPs were judged more accurately than items with RPs ($p = 0.037$).

Fig. 2 that follows presents participant scores in grammatical object relatives:

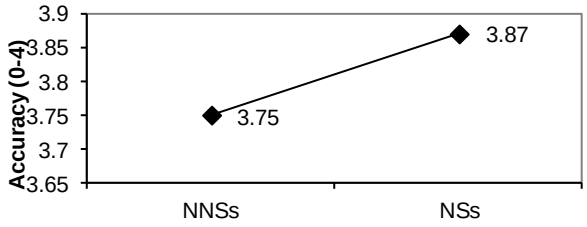


Figure 2. Accuracy in Grammatical Object RRCs

Independent samples t-test conducted on the scores above showed that the performance of the L2 group was not significantly less accurate than the performance of the control group.

Next, the analysis for the object of preposition relatives will be presented. Fig. 3 provides the descriptive statistics for these items.

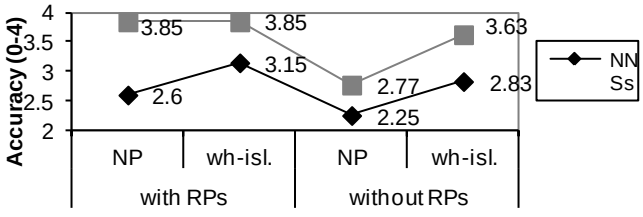


Figure 3. Accuracy in Ungrammatical Object of Preposition RRCs

With respect to between-group comparisons, independent samples t-test conducted on the rates of Fig. 3 returned significant differences between the Greek learner and the English control group in the three out of the four structures involved. In particular non-native speakers achieved significantly lower rejection scores than the natives in object of preposition RRCs with RPs violating the complex NP and the wh-island constraint, as well as in items without RPs inducing wh-island violations ($p = 0.004$, $p = 0.004$ and $p = 0.031$ respectively).

Within-group group comparisons conducted through paired-samples t-test have shown no significant differences in the Greek learner group (all *ps* > 0.05). In the control group on the other hand, it was found that as in the object relatives, the English natives were more accurate in rejecting complex NP violation items with RPs than without RPs ($p = 0.001$).

Finally, Fig. 4 presents group rates in grammatical object of preposition relatives:

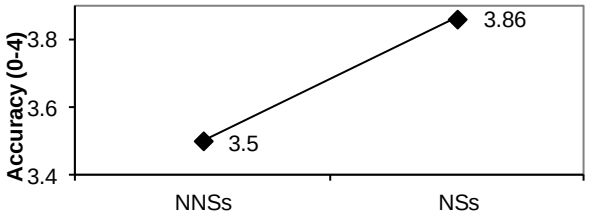


Figure 4. Accuracy in Grammatical Object of Preposition RRCs

The statistical analysis on the scores of Fig. 4 revealed that Greek learners were significantly less successful than the English controls in accepting grammatical English object of preposition relatives ($p = 0.027$).

VI. Discussion

The discussion presented here focuses on the results obtained on English RRC L2 acquisition. Adopting a formal features deficit account the prediction was that since L1 Greek and L2 English represent different parametric options as regards RRC formation, Greek learners will encounter problems in acquiring the feature specification of the English relative C although superficially they may appear to have acquired the [CP…gap] structure of English RRCs.

Data on grammatical set of the test has revealed significant between-group differences only in object of preposition relatives with the native group accepting them at a higher rate than the non-native group. However, recall that Greek speakers who were finally included in the experiment had correctly accepted 9 of the 10 grammatical test items and passed the within-GJ task syntax test. Thus, it can be argued that the difference found in this case may not be indicative of the fact that Greek learners have not acquired the [CP…gap] structure of object of preposition RRCs, but could be related to the contrast of object and object of preposition relatives as regards the complexity of the extraction mechanism involved. Wolfe-Quintero (1992) has argued that concerning English RRCs, L2 learners seem to follow an implicationally related acquisition order. From extraction from Verb Phrases (VPs) (object RRCs), L2 learners move to extraction from Prepositional Phrases (PPs) in VPs (object of preposition RRCs). Other studies (Hyltenstam, 1984; Tarallo & Myhill, 1983) have also suggested that the relativization of NP positions lower in the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy[8] (NPAH) (object of preposition) seems to be more problematic for L2 learners than the relativization of NP positions higher in the NPAH (direct object). Therefore, not surprisingly, Greek learner performance in object of preposition RRCs is not as successful as English native performance. However, given the learners' overall successful performance in the within-syntax GJ test, this finding does not necessarily show that they have not acquired the structure of English RRCs. Additionally, in the object RRC they were as accurate as the English controls. Based on the above, it could be claimed that advanced Greek learners have acquired the [CP….gap] structure of English object and object of preposition RRCs.

Turning next to the ungrammatical set, the analysis has shown that Greek learners are significantly less accurate than the English controls in nearly all the conditions of the task: both types of subjacency violations (i.e. wh-island and complex NP constraint) gave rise to learner performance which deviated from the native norm especially when resumptive pronouns were used. Assuming the presence of resumptive pronouns suggests lack of wh-movement, learner performance in resumptive pronoun structures not only shows the transfer of an L1 property of RRC formation in L2 but also constitutes additional evidence that no movement is involved in advanced Greek learner L2 representations of RRCs. Within-group comparisons on non-native data have lent additional support to the claim that resumptive pronoun presence is related to lower accuracy rates: object relatives with resumptive pronouns were judged as more acceptable than object relatives without resumptive pronouns across both subjacency violation types. Conversely, in native data, resumptive pronouns had the opposite effect since they enhanced the ungrammaticality effect inducing higher rejection scores. These findings add support to the claim that the mental representations of wh-movement in RRC structures is different for the natives and the non-natives of this experiment. What is interesting in the case of L2 learners of a language like Greek is that, according to the theoretical assumptions on RRC formation presented in Section II, their L1 instantiates both movement and non-movement structures having two kinds of relative complementizers, one specified for the [wh] feature and one not. The obtained results indicate that the existence of a C unspecified for [wh] and, consequently, the possibility of a resumptive structure in L1 RRCs may prevent the acquisition of L2 wh-movement structures even when wh-movement exists as a possibility in L1. This finding contradicts Martohardjono & Gair's (1993) data on the acquisition of English topic constructions by speakers of Indonesian, a language which unlike L2 English exhibits both movement and non-movement possibilities in topicalization. Martohardjono & Gair claimed that

[8] According to NPAH, accessibility in relative clause formation of certain NPs is can be represented by the following: Accessibility Hierarchy Subject>Direct Object>Indirect Object >Object of Comparison (Comrie & Keenan, 1979)

the L1-L2 parallelism in terms of movement facilitated the acquisition of the L2 relevant structure. However, the performance of the Greek learners of this study has shown that they may be unable to reset the parametric option in C and thus allow for wh-operator movement, despite the fact that their L1 realizes a wh-movement structure, albeit does not require it. This is a finding that strongly supports the impossibility of parameter resetting in postchildhood L2 acquisition. According to the present experiment, problems in acquiring the parametric L2 value are noted not only when the L1 does not instantiate the L2 value, but also, as in the case of Greek, when the L1 does not instantiate *only* the L2 value. The obtained results also contradict the findings of White, Travis & McLachlan's study (1992) based on which the researchers propose that parameter resetting in L2 acquisition is feasible. The present findings are compatible with no parameter-resetting views on RRC acquisition like Hawkins & Chan's (1997) and Kiss-Gulyas' (2004). More specifically, it appears that the predictions of Hawkins & Chan's (1997) Failed Functional Features Hypothesis can be extended to a language like Greek which combines elements of Chinese and English-type languages instantiating partial movement in the sense that both possibilities of movement and non-movement exist.

Based on the above, and despite any methodological limitations inherent in any language acquisition experiment, it can be argued that the prediction about the inaccessibility of abstract syntactic features in post-puberty L2 acquisition is verified by the current experiment.

VII. Conclusion

The present work has attempted to present a formal description of the differences between Greek and English RRCs. To this end, it was assumed that Greek instantiates both movement and non-movement possibilities in RRCs formation, while English exhibits only movement structures. It was hypothesized that these differences can be explained in terms of parametric variation associated with a divergence as regards abstract syntactic feature specification. On this basis, an investigation of whether adult Greek learners of English can reset the parameter from the L1 to the L2 value and acquire the feature specification of the English C was undertaken. The aim was to examine the issue of persistent optionality in the L2 acquisition of complex structures like RRCs. The empirical study presented here has provided evidence in support of formal features deficit accounts like the ones put forward by Tsimpli & Smith (1991), Smith & Tsimpli (1995) as well as by Hawkins & Chan (1997) which maintain that ultimate attainment of syntactic structures representing different parametric options between L1 and L2 is problematic. Parametric choices and the related abstract syntactic features are subject to maturational effects and are thus unavailable to the L2 learner as means of analyzing the L2 input (Tsimpli & Mastropavlou, 2007; Prentza & Tsimpli, in press). This results to L2 grammars that may superficially approximate the native norm but are essentially different with respect to abstract feature specification. Finally, with respect to the more practical aspect of language teaching, this paper, besides offering a detailed account of RRC formation in English and how this differs from a number of languages and, essentially, from Greek, would also like to propose that although the theory predicts prolonged acquisitional problems in areas where L1 and L2 syntax differ, conscious effort from the teacher and the learner could greatly improve L2 performance provided that foreign language teachers fully understand all the aspects of the phenomena they are to teach.

References

[1] Beck, M. L. (1998). L2 acquisition and obligatory head movement: English-speaking learners of German and the local impairment hypothesis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 20, 311-348.
[2] Chomsky, N. (1981). Lectures on Government and Binding. Dordrecht: Foris.
[3] Chomsky, N. (1986a). Knowledge of Language. New York: Praeger.
[4] Chomsky, N. (1986b). Barriers. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
[5] Chomsky, N. (1995). The Minimalist Program. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
[6] Comrie, B & E.L. Keenan. (1979). Noun phrase accessibility revisited. *Language* 55, 646-664.
[7] Fabb, N. (1990). The difference between English restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses. *Journal of Linguistics* 26, 58-78.
[8] Haegeman, L. & J. Gueron. (1999). English Grammar: A generative Perspective. Oxford: Blackwell.
[9] Hawkins, R. (2001). Second Language Syntax: A Generative Introduction. Oxford: Blackwell.
[10] Hawkins, R. & C. Chan. (1997). The partial availability of Universal Grammar in second language acquisition: the 'failed functional features hypothesis' *Second Language Research* 13, 187-226.
[11] Hawkins, R. and H. Hattori. (2006). Interpretation of English multiple wh-questions by Japanese speakers: a missing uninterpretable feature. *Second Language Research* 22, 269-301.
[12] Huddleston, R. (1993). Introduction to the Grammar of English. (5th edn.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[13] Hyltenstam, K. (1984). The Use of Typological Markedness Conditions as Predictors in Second Language Acquisition: The Case of Pronominal Copies in Relative Clauses. In R. Andersen (ed.), *Second languages: a cross-linguistic perspective*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 41-58.
[14] Kiss-Gylyas, J. (2004). The acquisition of English Restrictive Relative Clauses by Hungarian learners of English. Budapest: Akadémiai Kiádo.
[15] Martohardjono, G., & Gair, J. (1993). Apparent UG inaccessibility in second language acquisition: misapplied principles or principled misapplications? In F. Eckman (ed.), *Confluence: Linguistics, L2 acquisition and speech pathology*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 79-103.
[16] Prentza, A. and I. M. Tsimpli (in press). The interpretability of features in second language acquisition: evidence from null and postverbal subjects in L2 English. *Journal of Greek Linguistics*.

[17] Rizzi, L. (1982). Issues in Italian Syntax. Dordecht: Foris.
[18] Rizzi, L. (1990). Relativized Minimality. Cambridge Mass.: MIT Press.
[19] Ross, J. (1967). Contraints on variables in Syntax. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. MIT.
[20] Scholfield, P. (2001). Unpublished class notes, University of Essex, 2001
[21] Shlonsky, U. (1992). Resumptive pronouns as a last resort. *Linguistic Inquiry* 23, 443-68.
[22] Smith, N. & I.M. Tsimpli (1995). The mind of a savant. Language Learning and Modularity. Oxford: Blackwell.
[23] Sorace, A. (1996). The use of Acceptability Judgements in Second Language Research. In Ritchie, W. & T. Bahtia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. San Diego: Academic Press, 375-405.
[24] Tarallo, F. & J. Myhill (1983). Interference and natural language processing in second language acquisition. *Language Learning* 33, 55-76.
[25] Tsimpli, I. M. (1997). Resumptive features and minimalism: evidence from second language acquisition. *Proceedings of the 21st Annual Boston University Conference on Language development*. Somerville, Mass.: Cascadilla Press (vol. 1), 257-268.
[26] Tsimpli, I. M. & M. Dimitrakopoulou. (2007). The Interpretability Hypothesis: evidence from wh-interrogatives in second language acquisition. *Second Language Research* 23, 215-242.
[27] Tsimpli, I.M. & M. Mastropavlou. (2007). Feature interpretability in L2 acquisition and SLI: Greek clitics and determiners. In J. Liceras, H. Zobl & H. Goodluck (eds.), *The role of formal features in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 143-183.
[28] Tsimpli, I. M, & A. Roussou. (1991). Parameter resetting in L2? *UCL Working Papers in Linguistics* 3, 149-69.
[29] Tzartzanos, A. (1996). The syntax of Modern Greek (2nd edn.). Thessaloniki: Kyriakidis
[30] White, L. (1989). Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[31] White, L., Travis, L. & A. McLachlan. (1992). The Acquisition of Wh-Question formation by Malagasy learners of English: Evidence for Universal Grammar. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics* 37, 341-368.
[32] Wolfe-Quintero, K. (1992). Learnability and the acquisition of extraction in the relative clauses and wh-questions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 14, 39-70.
[33] Wong, B. & R. Hawkins. (2000). An unexpected wh-phrase extraction asymmetry in the advanced L2 English of Malay speakers. *Working Papers in Linguistics (Special issue, Proceedings of GASLA 4)* 4, 226-241.

Alexandra I. Prentza was born in Ioannina, Greece in 1978. She holds a BA in English Language and Literature from the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece (2000), an MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Essex, United Kingdom (2001) and a Ph.D in Linguistics from the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece (2010). In her doctoral dissertation she studied feature interpretability in relation to the Null Subject Parameter in Second Language Acquisition.

For the last four years she has been teaching English as a foreign language to the primary school of Cross-Cultural education in Ioannina. The majority of her pupils are bilingual and trilingual. From 2001 up to 2005 she has taught English in the secondary and tertiary education as well. She has also taught language development courses in the Department of Speech Therapy in the Technological Institute of Epirus from 2007 up to 2011. She has participated as instructor in teacher training programs of the Greek Ministry of Education. She has published articles on second language syntax, bilingualism and Modern Greek syntax.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1341-1354, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1341-1354

The Compensation Strategies of an Advanced and a Less Advanced Language Learner: A Case Study

Ana Belén Cabrejas-Peñuelas
Instituto Interuniversitario de Lenguas Modernas Aplicadas, Universidad de Valencia, Blasco Ibáñez 32, Valencia 46010, Spain
Email: ana.belen.cabrejas@uv.es

***Abstract*—This article presents the findings of a study that aims at investigating the compensation strategies used by an expert and a less expert language learner. Analyses of the think-aloud protocols, writing plans, drafts, the video recordings of the writing sessions and the follow-up interviews have given as a result a whole range of strategies. Compensation strategies have been found to be useful to make up for lack of linguistic knowledge and to keep the composing going. The advanced and less advanced learners have been found to use very similar strategies; however, while the advanced learner showed a careful orchestration of strategies leading to successful prose, the less expert used several strategies in a linear fashion that did not have good results for the quality of her essay. The results may have implications for teaching less able students.**

***Index Terms*—expert learners, less expert learners, compensation strategies, L2 writing, think-aloud protocol**

I. Introduction

Current studies investigating language learners' strategy use conclude that all students use strategies to learn the target language. Of those, compensation strategies are widely employed to compensate for lack of linguistic knowledge, which include using a new grammatical structure; revising extensively; reducing information (Uzawa & Cumming, 1989); rehearsals (Raimes, 1987); rereading for retrospective or prospective functions, the former as a way of assessing that the words chosen capture the writers' intended meaning and the latter to compare their writing against the topic assignment and the ideas the writers plan to develop (Manchón *et al*., 2000b; Wolfersberger ,2003; Murphy & Roca de Larios, 2010); translation (Cumming, 1989; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Wolfersberger, 2003); resorting to the L1 (Woodall, 2002; Beare & Bourdages, 2007); generating and assessing lexical alternatives (Cumming, 1989; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Wang, 2003; Sasaki, 2004); feeling for the language through sound and sense (Swain & Lapkin, 1995); using their L2 knowledge; guessing; substituting a lexical item; coining words; referring to the dictionary (Wolfersberger, 2003) and backtranslation (Manchón *et al*., 2000a; Wang, 2003; Wolfersberger, 2003). Some researchers have also reported that advanced learners differ from less advanced ones in how they use compensation strategies. Knowledge of how these types of students differ should provide teachers with tools to help their weaker learners. The purpose of this study is, therefore, to report on how an advanced and an intermediate student of English as a foreign language differ in the compensation strategies they use.

II. Theoretical Framework

Researchers focusing on the L2 composing process have been concerned with different approaches at different times. Early L2 studies focus on L2 behaviors when composing, while later theories study different types of L2 writers or the features unique to L2 composing. Early bibliography on ESL writing deals with some general assumptions, such as the fact that L2 writings share similarities with L1 writings, the notion of transferability of writing abilities and strategies between the L1 and L2 and the influence of task complexity on the quality of the text. Among the later theories, psycholinguistic studies of L2 writing have tried to describe the specific skills needed for L2 writing. L2 learner variables have been the focus of attention, which includes the level of L2 linguistic knowledge (Carson *et al*., 1990; Yau, 1991; Pennington & So, 1993; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) and writers' procedural knowledge (Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Cumming, 1989).

Within the process-oriented trend, a major focus of investigation is the strategies L2 writers use while writing, since successful and unsuccessful writers have been found to differ especially in the quality and appropriateness with which the strategies are employed (Manchón, 2001, p. 49). The writing process is recursive, that is, writers constantly return to earlier stages of the process in order to carry out later ones. It is essentially a search for meaning that is aided with the use of writing strategies. Such strategies have been divided strategies into *control mechanisms*, which advanced writers employ to monitor the gist, the organization of their compositions and the linguistic expression, and *problem-solving mechanisms*, which entail the existence of a problem, a solution search process and the existence or not of a solution to

the problem. Advanced and emergent planning (i.e. thinking about the content in advance or while writing) are two types of control mechanisms, while repetitions and rereadings of the text already composed are problem-solving mechanisms, which serve to make up for lack of linguistic knowledge, as pointed out by a number of investigations with EFL writers (Roca de Larios *et al*., 2001; Wolfersberger, 2003). Repetitions are used for compensating for the limited capacity of the working memory and rereadings for revision, planning or transcription purposes (Manchón, 2001, p. 56). Compensation strategies are defined as any strategy that is used to compensate for lack of linguistic knowledge. Compensation strategies can be applied at different levels - lexical, sentential and discourse/rhetorical levels – and with different general purposes: *to maintain the same level of writing achieved in the L1* (translation, repetition, rehearsing, dictionary use, backtranslation, rereading, using a new grammatical structure, and revising extensively) and *to complete the task within a given amount of time and without excessive cognitive effort* (guessing, going by the sound, substituting a lexical item, coining words, reducing information, and using line numbers rather than copying) (Uzawa & Cumming, 1989, p. 185).

Advanced and novice writers differ in how they compensate for their missing knowledge. Indeed, advanced writers make extensive reareadings of their texts and repeat to keep their writing going or for revision purposes; however, less advanced writers often do very little rereading or reread and repeat large chunks of text, but they do not have good overall results (Wolfersberger, 2003). These results indicate that L2 proficiency affects the use of L2 compensation strategies. A wealth of literature (Zamel, 1983; Arndt, 1987; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Raimes, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Cumming *et al*., 1989; Yau, 1991; Pennington & So, 1993; Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Smith, 1994; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) has concentrated on finding out the role of L2 proficiency and the writer's procedural knowledge in L2 writing expertise. For example, Jones & Tetroe (1987) compared the writing processes of a group of subjects writing in two languages and found that their students used the same planning strategies in both their L1 and L2. The results also indicated that the ESL writers' language proficiency affected the quantity, not the quality, of planning. Jones & Tetroe further concluded that, if the planning models used when writing in the L2 had been transferred from the L1, lack of abstract planning could not be attributed to lack of L2 expertise. Instead, lack of L2 expertise affected the quality of the texts, but it did not interfere in the planning process. Similarly, for Cumming *et al*., (1989) the use of problem-solving strategies in the L1 and L2 was not related to second language proficiency, but to the learners' levels of writing expertise. It was however true that the higher the writing expertise and the writers' L2 proficiency level, the higher the grades in the compositions they obtained. These conclusions suggest that L2 proficiency has an important influence in explaining L2 writing ability.

There are however other studies (Carson *et al*., 1990; Yau, 1991; Pennington & So, 1993) that add more support to the hypothesis that L2 proficiency plays a major role in L2 writing ability. For example, Carson *et al*. (1990), who examined the L1 and L2 reading and writing abilities of a group of ESL learners, claimed that there was a weak positive correlation between L1 and L2 writing scores; however, the correlation was stronger as the learners' L2 proficiency level increased. Also, Pennington & So (1993) concluded that there was no relationship between process skill and product quality in the L2; instead "writing quality in an L2 was related to general proficiency level in that language" (p. 58). The results of the above studies have therefore not shed enough light on the role of L2 proficiency and the writer's procedural knowledge on L2 writing expertise. The present study aims at exploring the effects of language proficiency, amount of L2 writing experience and past instruction on L2 writers' use of compensation strategies. The two writers selected have different proficiency levels, differing amounts of writing experience and different past instruction and, thus, they should differ in how they compensate for their missing knowledge.

III. Research Questions

The following questions will be addressed:

a. What are the compensation strategies used by the advanced learner? And by the less advanced learner?

b. Do the L2 learners differ in how they use compensation strategies? How different are they?

IV. Materials and Methods

The current study attempts to investigate the compensation strategies used by an advanced and a less advanced language learner while writing an argumentative essay in English. It is part of a larger study that examined the composing processes of advanced and less advanced language learners in a Spanish setting.

A. Participants

Two students were selected from the student population at the University of Valencia (Spain). They were selected based on several criteria: the mean grade obtained in all academic terms or GPA (Grade Point Average), the grade in the latest writing course they had taken, the TOEFL score obtained for this study, their experience in writing in English and the opinions that their professors had of them. Alicia[1] was considered an advanced learner and Eva an intermediate language learner. Eva was an EFL undergraduate student at the time of this study with limited contact with the English

[1] Pseudonyms have been used to refer to the writers.

language except for in-class time and the requirements for the classes, which comprised readings and writing essays. The differences between the two participants were due to *length of exposure to English*, *overall level of general education*, *writing experience*, *past instruction*, and *kinds of tasks* (see Table 1). All these differences were likely to have contributed to their use of compensation strategies. Table 1 also provides background information for each writer, which includes academic status, age, writing course, course grade and GPA. "Writing Course" refers to the latest English class the students had taken and the grade they scored. GPA refers to the students' overall grade point average at the end of the academic year 2001. Both students took the TOEFL exam from the TOEFL Test Preparation Kit by the Educational Testing Service (1995) and scored as follows: Alicia obtained 613 and Eva 443. Alicia's score is equivalent to the C2 level according to the Common European Framework or proficiency level in the Cambridge examinations and Eva's score corresponds to the B1 level or pre-intermediate level.

TABLE 1.
BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR THE WRITERS

	Alicia	**Eva**
Academic status	Content and organization	Grammar
Age	23	21
Writing course	Poesy XIX and XX	English III
Course grade	A	C
GPA	A	C^{+}
Writing experience	Wrote in three languages frequently, Spanish, English and German.	Wrote not very often.
Past instruction	Use of a fixed structure. Her teachers pointed out some errors: too long paragraphs and ideas not always clear.	Her teachers intended students to write error-free compositions. They taught the importance of structure and using a plan.
Kinds of tasks	Narrative, descriptive and argumentative essays.	Narrative and descriptive essays.

B. Materials and Procedure

We collected data via different methods, including the writers' compositions, think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires and the researcher's observations of the students' behaviors in the videotapes in the hope that a large number of data collecting methods helped to confirm or put into question the results obtained. The think-aloud protocols and the interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim for further analysis. The writing assignment used required the students to compose an argumentative essay, which was hoped to stimulate "knowledge transformation" (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) and to involve greater use of compensation strategies due to its greater cognitive difficulty. The topic intended to be controversial and to involve two or more opposing positions. In the assignment, the topic was stated as follows: "The use of marijuana should be legalized", borrowed from Gaskill (1986). The students were told to write a well-developed composition arguing for or against the statement and to provide support for their positions.

The study that follows next combines two forms of verbal report – self-revelation and self-observation – in researching the writing process. In self-observations the learner reports what s/he has done and s/he does so within a short or long period from the event, while in self-revelations (also known as "think-aloud protocols") the learner provides an ongoing report of his thought processes while writing his task. Think-aloud protocols are not influenced by time as they are concurrent with the actual writing and, hence, the effects of time are minimized. However, they may pose a load on writers' cognitive processes. In this study, the self-observations were obtained from interviews occurred immediately after the writing of the final draft, while the self-revelations came from having the students think aloud while writing. The writers were told in Spanish to write and verbalize everything that went through their minds as they wrote and were asked not to stop talking at any moment; however, no modeling of the method was provided so as not to influence their choice of language, as we were particularly interested in their choice of the mother tongue. A few minutes before the actual writing session, the procedure was explained and the writers tried it out in the first writing session, while the researcher carefully listened in and encouraged them to keep talking occasionally. The researcher left the room when the writers had clearly grasped the technique (usually a few minutes). It should be noted that the results of this study can only be applied to time-compressed tasks, as the writers had one hour and a half to complete their compositions. The protocols were collected, transcribed and then reviewed and analyzed for composing strategies. The interviews were carried out individually, were informal and lasted about forty-five minutes.

The results indicate that Alicia and Eva had two very different approaches to writing in English, which were corroborate by the observations of the writers and the think-aloud protocols (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.
A SUMMARY OF ALICIA'S AND EVA'S INTERVIEWS

	Alicia	**Eva**
Teaching focus	Content and organization	Grammar
Writing processes Written or mental outline	Written outline. Little specificity in her written outline	Written outline
Non-elaborated	Yes	Yes
Organization	Yes, her teacher	No
Reader	Yes	No
Purpose in mind		
Revising processes		
Uses several drafts	Yes	Not always
Global revisions	Yes	No
Time devoted to revise ideas to make them clearer (out of 100%)	20%	5%
Time devoted to check for mechanical and grammatical mistakes (out of 100%)	5%	20%
Problems with the composition on the legalization of marijuana	Assessing whether the written text matched her intended meaning; connecting old and new ideas.	Building grammatically complex sentences; vocabulary.

Taking into account the methodological recommendations made in previous investigations (Ericsson & Simon, 1993) in the transcriptions of the subjects' verbalization non-verbal elements (hesitations, repetitions, paralinguistic features, and pauses) were also included, since they contribute to enrich the results. In addition, the following distinctions were made when preparing the protocols for analysis: a) distinction of the subjects' written text from the processes which generated it (planning, formulation and revision); b) identification of readings, repetitions and pauses, including the duration of such pauses; c) identification of any revisions made to the written text; and d) specification of off-task behaviors, such as drinking water, which may be indicative that the subject was thinking about the task at hand, and off-task comments, such as the time left for the end of the task, which may explain for example why a subject decided not to include any more arguments in his final version and, thus, recopied parts of his first draft. Once the transcriptions of the protocols had been made, the researcher created a coding scheme including the compensation strategies found in previous studies (see Table 3) and added "using line numbers rather than copying from her first draft". The analysis of the protocols was made by the researcher and an English graduate student, who transcribed 30% of them. The interrater agreement was 78.05%. When there was no agreement as to which strategy was being used, both raters checked and discussed the individual cases until they reached an agreement.

TABLE 3.
TYPES OF KEY COMPENSATION STRATEGIES

Compensation strategies (Manchón et al. 2000a; Raimes 1985; Sasaki 2004; Uzawa & Cumming 1989; van Weijen et al. 2009; Wolfersberger 2003; Woodall 2002)
1. *Strategies aiming at maintaining the same level of writing achieved in the L1*
1. Translation
2. Repetition
3. Rehearsing
4. Dictionary use
5. Backtranslation
6. Rereading the text produced so far, the assignment sheet and the notes/outline
7. Using a new grammatical structure
8. Revising extensively
2. *Strategies aiming at completing the task within a given amount of time and without excessive cognitive effort*
9. Guessing
10. Going by the sound
11. Substituting a lexical item
12. Coining words
13. Reducing information
14. Using line numbers rather than copying from the first draft

Two raters evaluated the subjects' compositions following the procedures specified by Jacobs *et al.*, (1981). The raters were two Spanish professors at the University of Valencia who agreed to participate in this investigation. They were told to read the compositions twice, underline the mistakes and decide on the score for content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. In case there was a discrepancy of more than two points, a third rater was consulted and the scores of the two closest raters were used. In order to judge the overall quality of the essays additional measures were used to analyze content, lexical complexity and grammatical accuracy: a) number of ideas to study the

complexity of the content developed; b) number of paragraphs to assess syntactic complexity; c) lexical density[2] to evaluate lexical complexity; and d) the ratio of the number of grammatical errors to the total number of sentences in a piece of writing to assess grammatical accuracy[3] (see Table 4).

TABLE 4.
NUMBER OF IDEAS, PARAGRAPHS, MEASURES OF LEXICAL DENSITY, AND GRAMMATICAL ERRORS IN ALICIA'S AND EVA'S DRAFTS.

	Alicia	**Eva**
Number of ideas expressed in the final draft	12	5
Number of paragraphs produced in the final draft	11	6
Measures of lexical density (NLex/N x 100)[a]	46.65%	44.92%
Number of grammatical errors	0.285	1.6

a NLex: number of lexical word tokens (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs), N: number of all tokens.

The writers' dominant language while composing was also determined to find out about the writers' favored language. The results can be used to try to elucidate whether or not the variable "dominant language" in the composing process has a bearing on the language used for the compensation strategy of backtranslating. Manchón *et al.*, (2000a, p. 18) define "dominant language" as "the language (L1 or L2) used by the writer to plan, monitor and evaluate the writing process". This variable was accounted for by first counting the total number of words in the protocol and the number of L1 and L2 words. The total number of words in the two drafts were counted and subtracted from the total number of words in the protocol. Next, the number of L2 words in the drafts was subtracted from the resulting number. Percentages of L1 and L2 words used in the composing process were then calculated. The data depict two distinct patterns of use: whereas Alicia's composing behavior was mainly verbalized in her L2, Eva showed a preference for her L1 (see Table 5).

TABLE 5.
DOMINANT LANGUAGE IN THE INFORMANTS' L2 COMPOSING

Informants	**Dominant language in L2 composing**	
	L2	**L1**
Alicia	61.22%	38.78%
Eva	43.91%	56.09%

C. Results

Grades for the composition in this study

Eva's scores for the composition reveal that her essay lacked overall quality, since she presented shortcomings at all levels – content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics (see Table 6). Also, she expressed few ideas in her draft, had few paragraphs and made many grammatical mistakes, which contributed to obscure meaning (see Table 4 above). In contrast, Alicia's essay had good overall quality in spite of some shortcomings in language use. The number of ideas and number of paragraphs in her text were indicative that Alicia tried to develop her argumentation with different ideas and these were deep and probing. The measure of lexical density was medium, which implies that it could be easily understood, and the ratio of the number of grammatical errors to the total number of sentences was low and, thus, the text was correct in general.

L2 Strategies for maintaining the L1 level

Translation

The most widely known compensation strategy used by novice L2 writers is translation from their L1 into their L2 (Raimes, 1985; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Manchón *et al.*, 2000a; Wolfersberger, 2003; Sasaki, 2004; van Weijen *et al.*, 2009). During her composing processes, Eva used Spanish and English; however, her protocol reveals that her English was encased in Spanish because she was thinking in Spanish. Generating content in the L2 implied great cognitive effort, which explains why she used her L1 while planning and generating text and her ideas were then translated. It seems that her L2 level was not high enough to write in English and, yet, it was not low enough to write her essay in Spanish and then translate it into English:

(1) [writes & talks] los famosos coffee-shops … the famous coffee-shops … donde cannabis o marihuana … [writes] where cannabis is freely available … [talks] no han hecho nada por reducir el crimen [talks & writes] have done anything to reduce crime ¿o criminality? Criminality.

Eva's L1 helped her to retrieve lexical items, but also grammatical structures and then repeated them in the hope that the terms in the L2 would come to her mind:

(2) [talks] porque si el gobierno permite su uso … [talks & writes] if the government permits ... its freely … [talks] its freely ... consumition? Consumición … consumption [talks & writes] con-sump-tion [checks the dictionary & talks]

[2] The formula for calculating lexical density was adapted from Laufer and Nation (1995) who measured vocabulary size and use in second language written production. The formula was as follows: Lexical density = number of different lexical words x 100 / total number of tokens

[3] As in Li, Y. (2000: 236), the ratios were calculated to control for texts of unequal length in the writing samples. The formula used was as follows: Number of grammatical errors = number of grammatical errors / total number of sentences

consumición … consumption, yo diría consumo, consumo, consumption. OK. [writes] consumption [talks] consumption … what? [she's forgotten what she wanted to say]

In excerpt (2) Eva deployed some strategies: translation, repetition, word coining, dictionary use and use of synonyms and, yet, they were ineffective because the individual strategies were inappropriately orchestrated. She concentrated on spelling matters rather than meaning and, thus, she forgot what she wanted to say. Despite using translation widely, Eva commented on the danger of translating from her native language into English if she relied on Spanish too much:

INTERVIEW: "Intento no pensar en español cuando escribo en inglés, aunque lo utilizo cuando necesito ideas o cuando estoy en medio de un párrafo y no me sale."

[I try not to think in Spanish when I'm writing in English; however, I use it when I need ideas or when I'm in the middle of a paragraph and I can't get it done]

TABLE 6.
SUMMARY OF EVA'S AND ALICIA'S SCORES BASED ON JACOBS ET AL. (1981)

SCORES **EVA**	Rater # 1 / Rater # 2	SCORES **ALICIA**	Rater # 1 / Rater # 2
Content *16 / 16* *Organizat.* *9 /13* *Vocabulary* *13 / 13* *Language use* *10 / 10* *Mechanics* *4 / 4* *Total:* *52 / 56*	R1 & 2: VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, OR not enough to evaluate. R1: VERY POOR: does not communicate, no organization, OR not enough to evaluate. R2: FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing or development. R1 & 2: FAIR TO POOR: limited range; frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage; *meaning confused or obscured*. R1 & 2: VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, OR not enough to evaluate. R1 & 2: GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but *meaning not obscured*.	*Content* *30 / 30* *Organizat.* *17 / 17* *Vocabulary* *17 / 17* *Language use* *17 / 21* *Mechanics* *5 / 5* *Total:* *86 / 90*	R1 & 2: EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis. R1 & 2: GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing. R1 & 2: GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range; occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured. R1: FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions; frequent errors; *meaning confused or obscured*. R2: GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions; minor problems in complex constructions; *meaning seldom obscured*. R1 & 2: EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions; few errors

Repetition

Repetition of words and little phrases was also employed by the less advanced L2 writers, mainly because it is simple. Writing represented such a strenuous effort for Eva that she repeated trying to find the words she needed to complete her sentences:

(3) [Starts to write her first draft] [talks and writes] Many people hold strong views … [repeats] many people have strong views [checks her notes] many people hold strong views … [writes and talks] for and against … for an against … for and against [checks her notes] […].

Also, as Eva was planning as she was going, she repeated words or little phrases in an attempt to find how to continue, to find the right word and the exact form of words. However, she overused repetition, because she did not know what she wanted to say and had to resort to her notes to find a way of continuing. Such notes were produced while planning and were a kind of blueprint for the ideas that she later developed in her essay.

Unlike Eva, Alicia repeated very few times and did so in an attempt to put her thoughts onto paper, since she planned as she was writing. Such repetitions helped her to find the words she needed and seemed not to be due to working memory limitations, since she managed her L2 fluently and efficiently as successful English writers do.

(4) [reads] However, I would like to express a compromise between both parts, which should prevent … (2') [talks] should prevent … [talks & writes] legalization from … (2') worsening the situation of … (2') marijuana consume.

Backtranslation

As in other studies (Manchón *et al*., 2000a; Wang, 2003; Wolfersberger, 2003), Eva backtranslated from her L2 back into her L1. Cumming (1990, p. 495) explained backtranslation as follows:

If unsure of linguistic (especially lexical) items in the second language, these writers frequently back-translated (from their second language to their mother tongue) to verify their intended sense. The tendency of writers to do such back translation confirms that conceptual relationships were equated, cognitively, across first and second languages.

Manchón *et al.* (2000a, p. 24-5) distinguished between direct translation of the segment rescanned (DT), translation with omissions (OM) and paraphrasing (PR), all of which were grouped under the name "backtracking through the L1". Direct translation is a word-for-word translation of the writers' text from the L2 back into their L1. Translation with omissions consists in a translation into the L1 omitting part of the segment translated. Finally, paraphrasing involves the writer taking a mental picture of the segment that he is going to translate into the L1 and rewording the original text. This study provides evidence for a more sophisticated type of translation, which involves paraphrasing the information in the L2 and omitting part of it using the L1 (PR_{L2} + OM). For Eva, this study only reports instances of direct translation of the already written text, as in (5) and the written notes/outline, because she did not go back to reread or translate beyond the sentence she was working on:

(5) TEXT: …in general the effects produced are similar although there is a fundamental difference between them

PROTOCOL: … in general the effects produced are similar … the effects produced are similar … marijuana … […] [Talks] although there is a difference between them … [writes & talks] but although … **there is a fundamental difference between them … una diferencia importante entre ellas** … **una diferencia importante entre ellas** …

[PROTOCOL: **there is a fundamental difference between them … an important difference between them … an important difference between them …**]

Eva's protocols indicate that she translated from Spanish into English to generate content and then backtranslated to verify that the words chosen conveyed her ideas, as in (5) above, a strategy also observed in Wang's (2003) and Wolfersberger's (2003) studies.

In contrast, Alicia did not employ direct translation, translation with omissions and paraphrasing from her L2 back into her L1. Instead, she made use of paraphrasing in the L2 plus omission in the L1 (PR_{L2} + OM):

(6) TEXT 2ND DRAFT: In favour of my opinion, I will not make use of some arguments that have been defended by consumers to support marijuana legalisation, like the claim that it does not create any dependence or that it even has some benefits in the treatment of illnesses or pains, because they are mere hypotheses that medicine and doctors have not confirmed yet, or the side-effects of which have not been sufficiently studied.

PROTOCOL: [Rewrites a paragraph in her 1st draft & talks] I'm going to say … In favour of my opinion, (comma) I will not make use of some arguments … of some arguments that have been defended by consumers to support marijuana legalisation … marijuana legalization, (comma) like the claim that it does not create any dependence [talks] uff, qué tarde, me encerrarán aquí … any dependence [writes] or that it even has some benefits in the treatment of illnesses or pains, [talks] I'll skip a piece because it is superfluous **I will only use some arguments like the claim de esto y de lo otro** [talks & copies] because they are mere hypotheses.

[PROTOCOL: [...] phew, it's so late, I'll get locked here … [...] [talks] I'll skip a piece because it is superfluous **I will only use some arguments like the claim about this and that** [talks & copies] because they are mere hypotheses.

Alicia made use of her L1 and L2 to decompose her already written text. She reworded her text by first omitting information in the L2 ("that have been defended by consumers to support marijuana legalisation") and then by substituting information. In this way, writers "may be representing to themselves not only the surface text, but also the text they have developed in their heads" (Manchón *et al.*, 2000a, p. 26). However, Alicia also omitted information through her L1. The key idea is triggered by the word "claim" and the translation omits parts of the already written text. It seems therefore that more advanced learners of English do not need to backtranslate to decompose the text in terms of ideas developed and to get a mental picture of the text written so far.

Rehearsal and going by the sound

Rehearsing, defined as "voicing ideas on content and trying out possible ideas" (Raimes, 1985, p. 242), is possible thanks to the think-aloud protocol and can be found orally and in writing with a grammatical purpose or to check the ideas on an audience. Raimes (1985; 1987) commented on the compensatory purpose of rehearsal. In this study, both the advanced and the less advanced learners used this technique; however, Eva rehearsed more frequently (Eva rehearsed 11 times and Alicia 9 times). Like other studies (Raimes, 1987; Wolfersberger, 2003), the present study does not find correlation between amount of rehearsing and writing quality and even finds counterproductive results. Eva started her sentences and rehearsed to express her ideas in English once some words had already been written. She also rehearsed to find individual words and the syntax needed to put down onto paper the ideas that were clear to her in her L1:

(7) "[writes & talks] taken … take o taken? Take … the case of Holland which is one …."

On occasions, when rehearsing, she seemed to make a decision based on the sound of the words, as in (8). However, as a rule Eva preferred to check the dictionary.

(8) [Talks & writes] People … [talks] la gente estará bajo los efectos de la marijuana, under the effects? under the effects no me suena mucho, over the effects? [Talks & writes] People will be under the effects [talks] no me suena mucho, luego lo busco.

[[Talks & writes] People … [talks] people will be under the effects of marijuana, under the effects? under the effects doesn't sound familiar to me, over the effects? [Talks & writes] People will be under the effects [talks] it doesn't sound familiar to me, I'll look it up later.]

Although advanced learners may also use the strategies of translation, rehearsing, backtranslation and repetition, they use them combined with other strategies either simultaneously or in sequence, which results in good quality essays

(Macaro, 2006, p. 327). In excerpt (9) Alicia rehearsed to decide on the adverb that followed "go", used the dictionary to find the translation of a word that was clear to her in her native language and reread her text. She was able to make decisions based on her knowledge of the L2, which explains why she did not accept the translation provided by the dictionary and used another alternative of her own.

(9) But I would like to go …for no pega to go … beyond prejudice [checks the dictionary & talks] desmontar el argument

… dismantle … eso no me vale (3') [reads] and I would like to go beyond the prejudice [writes & talks] and even turn it upside down.

[But I would like to go … for it doesn't go … go … beyond prejudice [checks the dictionary & talks] oppose the argument … dismantle … that's not good (3') [...]

Alicia rehearsed with different purposes, such as to find the most appropriate word or grammatical structure and to find the correct form of the word. In (10), she tried to decide based on her knowledge of the sound of the word; however, when unable to make a decision, she used the dictionary. Therefore, the compensation strategies of rehearsing, going by the sound and using the dictionary may be found together:

(10) [Talks and writes] Theirs is a … (7') [talks] hypocritic hypocritable [checks the dictionary and talks] hypocritical, hypocritic no me pega. Ah sí, está bien … hypocritical.

[talks] hypocritic hypocritable [checks the dictionary and talks] hypocritical, hypocritic doesn't sound familiar to me. Oh yes, it's fine …hypocritical]

Dictionary use

Both the advanced and the less advanced learners in this study resorted to the bilingual Spanish-English dictionary to find solutions for their lexical problems, as reported in other studies with L2 learners (McDonough, 2001; Wolfersberger, 2003). Eva and Alicia used their bilingual dictionaries mainly to check spelling and appropriacy of meaning. Alicia used the dictionary 23 times and produced 1,937 words in the first and final drafts, whereas Eva did so 17 times and produced 911 words. 9 were distracting uses of the dictionary for Alicia (39.13%) and 9 for Eva (52.94%), because they forgot what they wanted to say and had to repeat, translate or go back to previous sections of their compositions to get their ideas back. However, unlike Eva, Alicia also used it to check the preposition that followed nouns, adjectives and verbs.

Again, in (11) Alicia used a cluster of strategies that supported each other, as concluded for other successful writers (Macaro, 2001; 2006) and that led to effective writing: she planned as she was writing, used the dictionary to check the translation of a word in her L1, guessed between two alternatives based on her L2 knowledge and reread the sentence she was working on before making a decision. This strategy cluster may in turn be connected with another strategy cluster pertaining to looking up a new word in the dictionary and this one to another related to memorizing the new word for future use (Macaro, 2006, p. 327).

(11) [Talks & writes] When taking into consideration … (4') the limited budgets young people … [checks the dictionary & talks] disponer "have available" podría servir o "have at their disposal"] [reads] When taking into account the limited budgets young people [writes & talks] have at their disposal I truly think that it is preferable.

[checks the dictionary & talks] have "have available" could be used or "have at their disposal"]

Rereading the text produced so far, the written assignment and the notes/outline

Alicia's and Eva's composing behaviour reveals that rereading the text produced so far (RRAWT), the written assignment (RRA) and the notes/outline (RRN/O) (also called "backtracking through the L2" for all three in Manchón *et al.*'s (2000a, p. 24) study) are compensation strategies employed by advanced and less advanced learners of English, who differ in their reading behaviors, such as number of readings, extension and purpose. While Alicia read extensively at the end of and during composing, Eva seldom reread or reflected on whole chunks of texts, but she merely concentrated on the sentence she was writing, as in Gaskill (1986).

Examination of Eva's protocol reveals that she reread her text, but she did so fewer times than Alicia, because she also backtranslated as a way of generating content (see Table 7). Thus, the tendency in both informants is that the greater the use of RRAWT, the less DT and vice versa, a conclusion also drawn in Manchón *et al.*'s (2000a) study. Indeed, Eva's rereadings concerned the text already produced to find a way of continuing (72%). She also read her written notes, although she resorted to them few times (16%), because she had not planned extensively for the content of her composition. Finally, she reread her assignment sheet on three occasions (12%) to verify the arguments given and to copy them in her draft. Similarly, Alicia's rereadings were mostly rereadings of the text written so far (82.14%), while only a modest percentage were rereadings of the assignment sheet and written notes/outline (5.36% and 12.5%, respectively). However, unlike Eva, she reread frequently and extensively while composing and at the end of her composition. She also reread small chunks of text while in the middle of putting her thoughts on paper. The relative distributions were tested with a chi-square test and were statistically significant ($X^2 = 5{,}991$, df = 2, $p<.05$).

TABLE 7.
USE OF REREADING THE ASSIGNMENT SHEET, THE NOTES OR OUTLINE AND THE ALREADY WRITTEN TEXT BY THE TWO INFORMANTS

	RR (A)	**RR (N/O)**	**RR (AWT)**	**Total**
Alicia	6 (5.36%)	14 (12.5%)	92 (82.14%)	112
Eva	3 (12%)	4 (16%)	18 (72%)	25

Revising extensively

Unlike Eva, Alicia made extensive revisions of her first draft, such as reorganizing the introduction, creating new paragraphs, moving others around and adding information to her text aiming at keeping up the standard attained when writing in her L1. Such extensive revisions happened combined with other strategies either simultaneously or in sequence, forming, thus, a strategy cluster:

(12) [Checks her 1st draft & talks] (11') A ver, aquí voy a cambiar un poco porque no me gusta que un párrafo empiece por "I". [Writes & talks] In favour of my opinion I will not make use of some arguments … of some arguments that have been defended by consumers to support marijuana legalisation … marijuana legalisation, like the claim that it does not create any dependence [talks] me salto un trozo porque es un poco superfluo I will only use some arguments like the claim de esto y de lo otro [talks & copies] because they are mere hypotheses […] [Checks her 1st draft] (7') Vale.

[[Checks her 1st draft & talks] (11') Let's see, here I'll change it a little bit because I don't like a paragraph to start with "I". […] [talks] I'll skip this part because it is a bit superfluous I will only use some arguments like the claim of this and that […] [Checks her 1st draft] (7') Ok.]

In (12) Alicia read her first draft before starting the task of rewriting the paragraph she was working on, rewrote some parts and eliminated others. She finished rereading her first draft again and, when she was happy with the result, she considered it finished.

On the subject of her revisions, Alicia related in the interview that she hardly ever deleted any of the ideas contemplated but, when necessary, she included new ones and tried to match them against the existing content. In contrast, Eva did not make any major revisions in her drafts but, instead, she concentrated on minor changes. Indeed, her first and final drafts were almost identical:

INTERVIEW: "…idéntico. Lo que puedas darte cuenta que no has hecho al principio, pero suele ser casi siempre el mismo."

[… identical. Wherever you have not done at the start, but it is almost always the same one]

VIDEOTAPE DATA: Isabel starts her sentences with an idea in mind; however, she often becomes distracted with minor problems, such as vocabulary and spelling conventions. Those "premature revisions" have however little, if any, positive effect.

L2 Strategies for completing the task within a given amount of time and without excessive cognitive effort

Going by the sound

Going by the sound is also a strategy that Alicia employed for solving lexical problems. By relying on the sound of words, Alicia was able to choose whether or not the words combined appropriately in the sentence, the exact form that a word took or the correct preposition, unlike less skilled writers who are more likely to resort to their L1:

(13) [Talks and writes] […] I would also submit marijuana legalisation to the acceptance of legally … (4') [talks] uff, qu éfeo

esto. [Reads] I would also submit marijuana legalisation to the … [eliminates "of legally"] [talks & writes] acceptance of rules and conditions […]

[[...] phew, how ugly it is.]

Since she was thinking aloud and writing, Alicia was able to judge how her words sounded. She reread the sentence she was working on and then revised. Thus, Alicia selected the strategies of going by the sound and rereading, which tailored the requirements of the task because she had found a dissonance between form and meaning. These strategies were preceded by planning and followed by revising. However, unskilled writers such as Eva use "revising by ear" less, that is, they do not make changes on the basis of what sounds "good" (Zamel 1983).

Coining words

In an attempt to retrieve the lexical items needed to express her intended meaning, Eva made use of an L1-based strategy: she coined one word similar to the one in her L1. In (14) below, when Eva tried to find a suitable word for "uso," she coined "consumition" and checked its appropriacy by retrieving different synonyms in her L1 ("consumición, consumo" [consumption]), by using the dictionary, and repeating. This type of lexical retrieval is similar to that reported by Wang (2003), which involved searching in the L1 and generating a range of synonyms.

(14) [talks] porque si el gobierno permite su uso … [talks & writes] if the government permits ... its freely … [talks] its freely ... consumition? Consumición … consumption [talks & writes] con-sump-tion [checks the dictionary & talks] consumición… consumption, yo diría consumo, consumo, consumption. OK. [writes] consumption [talks] consumption … what? [she's forgotten what she wanted to say]

However, Eva's strategy orchestration was not successful because it did not contribute to fluent writing, as she forgot the meaning she wanted to express.

Guessing

Alicia also employed the compensatory strategy of guessing to make decisions about prepositions or the most appropriate verb in a sentence:

(15) [Talks & writes] Legalising a substance … (12') [non-audible] able to alter certain human states and about which …

[reads] Legalising a substance able to alter certain human states and about which … [substitutes "about" for "of"] of which [talks & writes] consequences may be unknown.

Closer study of the protocol reveals the use of a group of strategies that supported each other: planning, rereadings of the text under examination and guesses. These aided to keep Alicia's flow of composing going in a manner similar to advanced native English writers. In contrast, observations of the protocols and the video recordings suggest that Eva preferred not to guess. Instead, when in doubt about the spelling or the translation of a word, she resorted to the dictionary or her material.

Substituting a lexical item

When assessing a lexical choice, as in (16), Alicia retrieved another alternative in her L2, but, unlike in other studies (Wang 2003), when she doubted about its appropriateness or correctness in terms of meaning or use, she did not switch to her L1 for assessing and making a better choice. Instead, she had the cognitive ability to do so in her L2.

(16) [Talks & writes] The opponents of marijuana legalisation also criticise it because they believe … [reads] The opponents of marijuana legalisation also criticise it because they believe … [writes & talks] that it would … (30') [reads silently & talks] evoke no me gusta la palabra … uy por favor no me sale la palabra … [writes & talks] it would have as a consequence that …

[reads silently & talks] evoke I don't like the word … oh please I can't think of the word … [writes & talks] it would have as a consequence that ….]

Eva also substituted lexical items; however, she did so less often than Alicia and these were mostly words that she knew how to use such as "opinion" and "point of view", "cannabis" and "marijuana" and, thus, she did not need to resort to her L1 for assessing their suitability.

Reducing information and using a new grammatical structure

Alicia also eliminated information contained in her first draft when writing the final version of her composition, but she did so to write her essay within a reasonable period of time. On a few occasions she used a new grammatical structure; however, she did not simplify the syntax of her language as Uzawa & Cumming's (1989) intermediate students did; instead, such changes seemed to be motivated by style concerns:

(17) [Reads] I would also submit marijuana legalization [talks] ay, esto lo cambio porque no quiero empezar un párrafo con "I";

entonces voy a decir [revises & then writes] marijuana legalization should be submitted to the acceptance of rules and conditions […].

[[Reads] I would also submit marijuana legalization [talks] ah, I'll change this because I don't want to start a paragraph with "I"; then, I'll say [...].

In contrast, Eva did not consider any grammar changes once her ideas were on paper. It was as if once the content was on paper, it could not be reconstructed anew.

Using line numbers rather than copying from her first draft

Alicia also displayed a strategy that helped her to keep her writing within certain time limits: she wrote down the line numbers of the content included in the first draft rather than copying. Such strategy allowed Alicia to make extensive revisions of her text, which included old parts from her first draft and new ones that she included in the second draft:

INTERVIEW: "No suelo borrar ninguna de mis ideas pero cuando es necesario incluyo nuevas y las trato de acoplar al contenido que ya tengo."

[I hardly ever delete any of the ideas contemplated but, when necessary, I include new ones and try to match them against the existing content]

V. Discussion

The expert and less expert learners of English in this study often used very similar strategies to compensate for their missing knowledge. However, they differed in the total number of compensation strategies used and in how effective they were (see Table 8). As in Uzawa & Cumming (1989), they followed two different tendencies: strategies for *maintaining the same level of writing achieved in the L1* and strategies for *completing the task within a given amount of time and without excessive cognitive effort*. The intermediate writer Eva used the compensation strategies of repetition, translation of words and little phrases, rehearsing, going by the sound, rereading, backtranslation, dictionary use, guessing, substituting a lexical item, and coining words, but these did not result in good writing, because they were inappropriately orchestrated. In contrast, the more effective learner Alicia did not use translation, backtranslation and coining words and added using line numbers rather than copying as well as compensation strategies aimed at an organizational level, such as revising extensively, reducing information and using a new grammatical structure, which subsequently affected her choice of words. Also, she showed a careful orchestration of strategies leading to effective prose. For example, when using the dictionary (see examples 2 and 11 above) Alicia and Eva deployed different strategies and their results were results were also different (see Table 9). Therefore, these two different approaches suggest that successful orchestration of strategies served to distinguish between the two writers in this study and it was key to their success differences. It is however true that Alicia's and Eva's past writing experience and instruction may also explain their use of compensation strategies. Alicia's extensive writing experience in Spanish, English and German and the writing instruction received that focused on text content and organization no doubt influenced her into using

effective compensation strategies. Also, she had practiced narrative, descriptive and argumentative essays and, thus, she was accustomed to dealing with tasks of varying difficulty[4]. However, the weaker learner Eva had had less writing experience and had received instruction that concentrated on the product rather than on the process, which may explain why she used simple compensation strategies or inefficient strategy clusters that did not result in good writing.

TABLE 8.
COMPENSATION STRATEGIES USED BY THE TWO INFORMANTS AND PURPOSES FOR USING THEM

Compensation strategies	Alicia	Eva	Purposes for using the strategies
1. Translation	0	37	a. Checking that the words capture the writer's intended meaning b. Keeping the writer's flow of composing
2. Repetition	25	72	a. Keeping the information in mind b. Trying to find a way of continuing
3. Rehearsing	18	15	a. Word-search b. Finding the correct spelling of words
4. Dictionary use	23	19	a. Checking spelling concerns b. Grammatical accuracy c. Word-search
5. Backtranslation	0	38	a. Checking that the words capture the writer's intended meaning
6. Rereading	112	25	a. Comparing the text with the assignment sheet and the outline b. Keeping the flow of composing going
7. Guessing	4	2	a. Using the right spelling or word
8. Going by the sound	9	1	a. Finding the right word or expression
9. Substituting a lexical item	22	10	a. Finding a better word that matches the writer's intended meaning
10. Coining words	0	2	a. Writing out a word the spelling of which the writer is unsure of
11.Using a new grammatical structure	6	0	a. Using the correct grammatical structure b. Using the grammatical structure that best expresses the writer's intended meaning.
12. Revising extensively	11	0	a. Grammatical accuracy b. Checking that the text says what the writer intends c. Reorganising content or the structure of the text
13. Reducing information	1	0	a. Completing the composition within the given time
14. Using line numbers rather than copying from the first draft	3	0	a. Completing the composition within the given time
TOTAL:	234	221	

TABLE 9.
ALICIA'S AND EVA'S STRATEGY USE WHEN RETRIEVING A LEXICAL ITEM

Problem	Alicia	Eva
Lexical retrieval	Metacognitive strategy: Planning Compensation strategies: - Using the dictionary - Guessing between two alternatives - Rereading the sentence/paragraph Cognitive strategy: Deduction (conscious application of rules by using her L2 knowledge)	Metacognitive strategy: Planning Compensation strategies: - Translating - Word coining - Backtranslating - Translating - Using the dictionary - Using synonyms in the L1

Repetition, rehearsing (Raimes, 1985, 1987; Wolfersberger 2003), dictionary use (Wolfersberger, 2003), guessing, going by the sound, substituting a lexical item and using line numbers rather than copying may contribute to assist L2 learners to compensate for lack of linguistic knowledge in their L2. Nonetheless, repetition, rehearsing and dictionary use seem to work well if the learners know their intended meaning and resort to them to find the right words or as a strategy that helps them to plan how to continue. Both Eva and Alicia rehearsed, repeated and checked the dictionary throughout their composing and they both had similar purposes; however, only Alicia was able to deploy efficient strategy clusters. It seems that her higher proficiency allowed her to "choos[e] and evaluat[e] from a range of strategies, [which was] more effective than linear deployment of several strategies" (Macaro, 2006, p. 328), more typical of the inexperienced learner Eva. Macaro concluded that orchestration of strategies suggests that the writer has a higher level

[4] Grabe (2001) proposed five levels of writing purpose, which were conceived as levels of difficulty from Level 1 (lowest) to Level 5 (highest) and, thus, writers need to have mastered one level of the hierarchy to be able to write texts of the following level. Argumentative essays are situated at Level 5.

of metacognition. This result coincides with those of Porte's (1995) and Macaro's (2001), who also concluded that their young learners used individual strategies that were not appropriately orchestrated. For example, Porte (1995) found that a subvocalizing strategy was counterproductive when copying sentences in some subjects, while Macaro (2001) concluded that applying prior knowledge of the topic was ineffective in a reading task when his subjects did not combine it with evidence found later in the text.

Other strategies work well for advanced learners, such as rereading the AWT for local or global purposes, RRA and RRN/O. Alicia made extensive use of RRAWT, because she did not backtranslate from her L2 back into her L1. Eva, however, made a large number of direct translations and very little rereading. Thus, there is an inverse correlation between number of RRAWT and number of DT. It may be possible to explain the differences in rereading and backtranslation behaviors by positing that they both presented very different composing behaviors, although they were both interested in communicating meaning. Indeed, Alicia wrote her L2 text fluently from sentence to sentence and within the sentence in a manner similar to native English writers, whereas for Eva generating content in English supposed a strenuous effort and had to resort to translating from her L1 into her L2.

Closer examination of the subjects' writing behaviours reveals that the variable "dominant language" in the L2 composing process has also proved to influence the differences in rereading and backtranslation behavior, as pointed out in Manchón *et al*. (2000a, p. 31). Eva was the informant that used the least English while composing (43%) and she was also the one that reread the least in the L2 (25 rereadings *versus* 112 for Alicia). In contrast, Alicia used more English in her writing (over 61%) and was the one that reread the most in the L2. Thus, this study also concludes that the more use of the L1 in the composing process, the more use of the L1 while rescanning. However, unlike Manchón et al.'s investigation, the present study also finds that the more use of the L2 in the composing process, the more use of the L2 while rescanning. This difference may be due to the fact that in Manchón *et al*.'s study the informants were all intermediate English students, whereas Alicia was an advanced learner and, therefore, she had a higher proficiency level.

Eva translated from Spanish into English while planning to maintain the same level of writing attained in her L1. This translation was only possible because she used her immediate knowledge of the L2, which was the quickest and most accurate way of producing text. Eva translated, repeated, coined words and substituted lexical items; however, these strategies were deployed in a linear fashion and, thus, they did not contribute to a good quality product. In contrast, the more advanced writer Alicia did not use translation at all, because her higher L2 proficiency helped her to write in her L2. It seems that translation is valid for those writers whose L2 is not high enough to write completely in English, but is not low enough to write one draft in their L1 and then translate it into English (Wolfersberger, 2003, p. 9).

Backtranslating serves the purpose of verifying that the text conveys the ideas that the writer plans to communicate, as pointed out in different investigations (Manchón *et al*., 2000a; Wolfersberger, 2003). It seems that students feel more at ease with the words they have selected by backtranslating them into their L1, as observed in Wang (2003, p. 361). This strategy brings more benefits since backtranslation of their L2 texts helps novice learners to find new ways of continuing, the process does not come to a stall and, thus, learners need to look for their own words. This study may contribute to refine Manchón *et al*.'s (2000a) study on backtracking through the writers' L1, since the advanced learner Alicia was found not to use backtranslation at all and to employ a more sophisticated strategy than Manchón et al.'s intermediate students, given that the subject not only had to paraphrase content in her L2 and transform it into a new version, but she also had to select the parts of the text that were more relevant and omit other information by using her L1. This finding may be explained by the fact that argumentative essays are more cognitively demanding (Cumming, 1989) and, thus, L2 learners make use of their linguistic resources in their composing (which are wider than those of the monolingual learner) and are brought to bear in processes such as backtranslation (Manchón *et al*., 2000a). In contrast, Eva worked at a simpler level due to her lower proficiency: she made direct translations of small segments of text to verify the meaning expressed and to generate further content, but made no attempts to make more complex backtranslations. Given the very small number of informants in this study, future research needs to ascertain whether or not these results apply with other successful and unsuccessful learners, other text types and purposes for backtranslating.

VI. Conclusions and Limitations of the Study

The advanced and the less advanced learners were found to use very similar strategies to compensate for their missing knowledge, but they often differed in the how they deployed them. Not only did the better writer employ the majority of strategies that Eva had used, but she also used others that helped her to put her words onto paper. Indeed, Alicia showed a careful orchestration of strategies that were appropriate to the task at hand. Eva, however, worked at a simpler level and used several strategies that were presented in a linear fashion and did not result in effective prose.

One limitation of this study is the small sample of participants, which make it difficult to generalize the results. Also, the time-compressed nature of the task is a further limitation and, thus, the results may differ in other contexts. Finally, the use of the think-aloud protocol may have had an impact on the writers' strategy use, since the procedure may have overloaded their memory. Although it may be problematic to draw conclusions from this experiment for classroom practice, writing teachers need to discuss the compensation strategies used by advanced learners, including repetitions and going by the sound, as they are proof of their usefulness during L2 writing. Teachers may also encourage students to use strategies aiming at maintaining the same level attained in their L1 through exercises that require students to develop their own content and to make extensive revisions of their texts.

For future study, a larger number of participants may be employed to see if the results can be made extensive to other advanced and less advanced learners of English and of other languages. It could also be interesting to see whether or not the students use the same strategies in naturalistic contexts, where students are not required to write within a given time. Finally, some students may be trained to use compensation strategies and to check whether or not they contribute to effective writing.

REFERENCES

[1] Ardnt, V. (1987). Six writers in search of texts: A protocol based study of L1 and L2 writing. *ELT Journal* 41, 257-267.
[2] Beare, S. and Bourdages, J. S. (2007). Skilled writers' generating strategies in L1 and L2: An exploratory study. In G. Rijlaarsdam et al. (ed.), *Studies in Writing Vol. 20, Writing and Cognition: Research and Applications*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, 151-161.
[3] Beraiter, C. and Scardamalia, M. (1987). The psychology of written composition. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
[4] Carson, J.E., Carrel, P.L., Silverstein, S., Kroll, B., and Kuehn, P.A. (1990). Reading-writing relationships in first and second language. *TESOL Quarterly* 24, 245-266.
[5] Cumming, A. (1989). Writing expertise and second language proficiency. *Language Learning* 39, 81-141.
[6] Cumming, A., Rebuffot, J. and Ledwell, M. (1989). Reading and summarizing challenging texts in first and second languages. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal* 2, 201-219.
[7] Cumming, A. (1990). Metalinguistic and ideational thinking in second language Composing. *Written Communication* 7, 482-511.
[8] Educational Testing Service. (1995). *TOEFL Test Exercise Book*. TOEFL Preparation Kit. USA.
[9] Ericsson, K. A. and Simon, H. A.. (1993). Protocol Analysis: Verbal Report as Data. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
[10] Gaskill, W. H. (1986). Revising in Spanish and English as a Second Language: A Process-Oriented Study of Composition. PhD Dissertation, University of California.
[11] Grabe, W. (2001). Notes toward a theory of second language writing, in T. Silva & P. K. Matsuda (eds.). *On second language writing*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, 39-57.
[12] Jacobs, H. L. et al. (1981). ESL composition profile, in *Testing ESL Composition: A Practical Approach. English Composition Program*. Rowley, MA: Newbury, 30-32.
[13] Jones, C. S. and J, Tetroe. (1987). Composing in a second language, in A. Matsuhashi (ed.). *Writing in a Real Time: Modelling the Production Processes*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex, 34-57.
[14] Laufer, B. and P. Nation. (1995). Vocabulary size and use: lexical richness in L2 written production. *Applied Linguistics* 16, 307-322.
[15] Li, Y. (2000). Linguistic characteristics of ESL writing in task-based e-mail activities. *System* 28, 229-245.
[16] Macaro, E. (2001). Learner strategies in second and foreign language classrooms. London: Continuum.
[17] Macaro, E. (2006). Strategies for language learning and for language use: Revising the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal* 90, 320-337.
[18] Manchón, R. M. (2001). Trends in the conceptualization of second language composing strategies: A critical analysis. *International Journal of English Studies* 1, 47-70.
[19] Manchón, R. M., Roca de Larios, J. and Murphy, L. (2000a). An approximation to the study of backtracking in L2 writing. *Learning and Instruction* 10, 13-35.
[20] Manchón, R. M., Roca de Larios, J. and Murphy, L. (2000b). La influencia de la variable "grado de dominio de la L2 en los procesos de composición en lengua extranjera: Hallazgos recientes de la investigación. In C. Muñoz (ed.) *Segundas Lenguas: Adquisición en el Aula*. Barcelona: Ariel Lingüística, 277-297.
[21] McDonough, J and McDonough, S. (2001). Composing in a foreign language: An insider-outsider perspective. *Language Awareness* 10, 233-247.
[22] Murphy, L. and Roca de Larios, J. (2010). Searching for words: One strategic use of the mother tongue by advanced Spanish EFL Writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 19, 61-81.
[23] Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know. New York: Newbury House.
[24] Oxford, R.L. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: concepts and relationships. *International Review of Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching* 41, 271–278.
[25] Oxford, R. L., Cho, Y., Leung, S. and Kim, H. Y. (2004). Effect of the presence and difficulty of task on strategy use: an exploratory study. *International Review of Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching* 42, 1-47.
[26] Pennington, M.C. and So, S. (1993). Comparing writing process and product across two languages: A study of 6 Singaporean university student writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 2, 41-63.
[27] Porte, G. K. (1995). Writing wrongs: Writing as a strategy for underachieving EFL writers. *ELT Journal* 49, 144-151.
[28] Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled writers do as they write: A classroom study. *TESOL Quarterly* 19, 229-258.
[29] Raimes, A. (1987). Language proficiency, writing ability, and composing strategies: A study of ESL college student writers. *Language Learning* 37, 439-467.
[30] Roca de Larios, J., Manchón, R. M., and Murphy, L. (2008). The foreign language writer's strategic behaviour in the allocation of time to writing processes. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 17, 30-47.
[31] Roca de Larios, J., Marín, J. and Murphy L. (2001). A temporal analysis of formulation processes in L1 and L2 writing. *Language Learning* 51, 497-538.
[32] Sasaki, M. (2004). A multiple-data analysis of the 3.5 year development of EFL student writers. *Language Learning* 54, 525-582.
[33] Sasaki, M. and Hirosi, K. (1996). Explanatory variables for EFL students' expository writing. *Language Learning* 46, 137-174.
[34] Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language Learning. *Applied Linguistics* 17, 210-233.

[35] Uzawa, K. and Cumming, A. (1989). Writing strategies in Japanese as a foreign language: Lowering or keeping up the standards. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 46, 178-194.
[36] van Weijen, D., van den Bergh, H., Rijlaarsdam, G. and Sanders, T. (2009). L1 use during L2 writing: An empirical study of a complex phenomenon. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 18, 235-250.
[37] Wang, L. (2003). Switching to first language among writers with differing second-language proficiency. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 12, 347-375.
[38] Whalen, K. and Ménard, N. (1995). L1 and L2 writer's strategic and linguistic knowledge: A model of multiple-level discourse Processing. *Language Learning* 45, 381-481.
[39] Wolfersberger, M. (2003). L1 to L2 writing process and strategy transfer: a look at lower proficiency writers. *TESL-EJ* 7, http://tesl-ej.org/ej26/a6.html (accessed 2/2/2011).
[40] Woodall, B. R. (2002). Language-switching: using the first language while writing in a second language. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 11, 7-28.
[41] Yau, M. (1991). The role of language factors in second language writing. In L. Malave and G. Duquette (eds.). *Language, Culture and Cognition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 266-283.
[42] Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly* 17, 165-187.

Ana Belén Cabrejas-Peñuelas is an Associate Professor at the University of Valencia, Spain, where also received her PhD degree. Her research has mainly focused on the revision processes of native and non-native English writers, L2 writing strategies and the use of the L1 while composing in a second language.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1355-1362, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1355-1362

Reflective Leadership in EFL

Suleyman Davut Göker
Department of English Translation and Interpretation, Faculty of Humanities, Girne American University, North Cyprus via Mersin 10, 98000 Turkey
Email: gokersd@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—There seems to be a large discrepancy between leading and learning roles of EFL (English as a foreign language) teacher, learner and principal, which often makes EFL schools fail to build a coherent, collaborative system that supports powerful, equitable learning for all learners. Based on the discrepancy above, in this article, I introduce a reflective leadership framework (RLF) for EFL learners, teachers, and principals, which offers a vision of desirable practice for these three stakeholders with particular roles rather than a set of recipes or a change theory. Reflective leadership is used to describe the concept that learners, teachers and principals should be leaders and learners. I argue that with this reflective leadership type, in which all individuals are empowered to lead for learning, EFL schools could be more effective due to their unique contexts. In this leadership framework, 3 distinct concepts-learning, teaching, and leading-are mutually supportive for more powerful connections between leading and learning. This leadership type particularly offers a theoretically grounded framework for EFL schools, which desire to initiate a communicative curriculum with new leadership roles for students, teachers, and principals by drawing on the following bodies of literature: leading for learning, school-based management, creating a reflective learning community.**

***Index Terms*—reflective leadership, reflective learning community, leading for learning**

I. Introductİon

Even though effectiveness of a leader is mostly measured in quantitative outcomes, it is our ability to reflect on, and optimize our relationships that help us achieve these goals. In other words, our accomplishments are a reflection of what our relationships have allowed us to achieve in connection with others, guiding and mentoring them as a natural outgrowth of good relationships. Therefore, leadership takes place in the context of relationships, and quality relationships are crucial to good outcomes.

Considering the relationships of teachers, learners, and principals in an EFL school, and opportunities created along pathways to learning, there continues to be a communication breakdown among the leadership tasks and skills assigned to learners, teachers and principals and this role conflict creates a chaotic atmosphere together with challenges associated with the adoption of communicative language teaching in those schools, which employ learner-based task and activities which feature learner leadership and autonomous learning. However, Knapp, Copland, and Talbert (2003) argue that leading for learning involves finding and creating strategic opportunities and relationships along pathways to learning , that have the greatest influence on the interactions of students, teachers, and content. Learner's opportunities for learning reside in these interactions, and learning depends on how teachers implement curriculum, design communicative tasks, and engage learners in these tasks, as well as how learners approach their teachers, other learners, and their work. Through similar types of opportunities, principals also look at the learning environment they have created and learn to establish and support teachers' and learners' learning. Each learning acts as context for the other two. Teachers and principals, like students, develop and change from the inside out—through individual practice and reflection—and from the outside in—through contact with the experiences and theories of others. The purpose of this article is to frame the concept of reflective leadership defining the leadership roles for teachers, students, and principals under a school-based reflective management model (SBRM) developed by Göker (2006a). It further identifies potential outcomes of demonstrating these reflective leadership behaviors in a synchronized way.

Reflection and Reflective Teaching and Learning

Reflective thinking, with its roots in the work of many educational theorists and practitioners, is not an innovation in teaching and learning. It has been around for more than 50 years. For example, scholars like Richards, Lockhart, Ramirez, and Wallace have carried out studies to help EFL teachers and learners to learn in a reflective environment. The concept of reflection is already installed in a range of learning theories and therefore has various meanings. Within communicative English language teaching (ELT) methodology, reflection is predominantly conceptualized as process of critical analysis through which learners, teachers and principals extract knowledge from their experience. For the purposes of this article, growth through reflection occurs when members of a group subject their personal beliefs about teaching and learning to a critical analysis, and thus take more responsibility for their actions (Korthagen, 1993). This critical analysis puts classroom experiences into context for teachers, learners, and principals, thus providing them with a much richer understanding of what takes place in the classroom and in their own construction of reality. Critical

analysis of teaching in context is one of the more effective ways to encourage developmentally and culturally appropriate reflective practice (Milner, 2003).

In the reflective learning community model, sustainable change, resulting in improved teaching and learning, is best generated when educators engage in collective learning processes characterized by reflective analysis of current conditions, experimentation with new possibilities for practice, and ongoing assessment of the relationship between practice and the effects of practice (Kofman & Senge, l993; Sergiovanni, l996). A combination of a self-reflective culture and leadership in schools is essential to create a learning community. Several aspects of a learning culture have been identified: a spirit of trust and mutual respect in collective processes, common understandings about organizational activities and initiatives, shared purposes and goals, and an ongoing search for new and better ways of working (Hajnal, Walker, & Sackney, l998).

I propose that a self-reflective culture in EFL schools as learning communities could, and should, be developed by the leadership strength of these three stakeholders: the learners, teachers, and principals. In addition, all changes involve reflective learning and growth for learners, teachers, and principals simultaneously to create a communicative and reflective learning community.

Why is Reflective Leadership Needed in the EFL Contexts?

The concept "autonomous learning" occurred in the early 1960's together with debates about the development of life-long learning skills and independent thinking and many scholars gave their interpretation towards this concept, such as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning"(Holec, 1981); "situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of those decisions"(Dickinson, 1987); "a recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems"(Benson, 1997) and so on (Jingnan, 2011). Over the past 25 years, learner autonomy has been a popular focus for discussion and increasingly influential in foreign language education together with the development of reflective teaching.

The 1970s became an era of change and innovation in language teaching and learning processes. Many of the innovative methods of the 1970s had a very short shelf life because they were linked to highly specific claims and to prescribed practices (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Good teaching was seen as correct and proper use of of the method and its prescribed principles and techniques. Likewise, learners were often viewed as passive recipients who should submit themselves to a regime of exercises and activities. What is called the "post methods" era thus lead to a focus on the processes of learning and teaching rather than ascribing a central role to methods as the key to successful teaching and attention shifted to how teachers could develop and explore their own practice through reflective teaching and action research (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). In order to foster this kind of reflective teaching, learners also had to take responsibility for their own learning, such as planning learning tasks, selecting learning method, and evaluating learning process. However, creating such a reflective learning community requires a combination of a self-reflective culture and leadership in schools where principals should also be responsible for common understandings about organizational activities and initiatives, shared purposes and goals. From this stand point of view, the thinking was that teacher reflection and research could lead to the revitalization of teaching and learning from the inside, rather than trying to make teachers, principals, and learners conform to an external model. By consistently acting as models or mentors, teachers and school leaders reinforce the core values and mission of the school (Deal & Peterson, l994), and learners act respectively.

In this sense, the TEFL context may be viewed as the pioneer of change and innovation in teaching methodology as compared to other subject areas due to the following reasons. It, first of all, has a wide range of teaching materials including online teaching tasks, handouts, activities, thousands of web pages for EFL teachers and learners as most textbooks, published in Britain and America, are designed with an eye to sales and ignore the the cultural values of the students' countries. All language curricula should be developed based on a needs and goal analysis of each EFL school, which make EFL teaching different from other subject area teaching. The ongoing practice of individualized instruction in EFL, such as one-to-one teaching, home study, self-access learning, self-directed learning, and the movement toward learner autonomy, also values the needs and active involvement of the language learner.

There have also been many changes in the contexts and resources for EFL learning, as learning is not confined to the classroom setting. EFL teaching and learning seems to access more resources (e.g., computer-assisted language learning or audio–visual laboratories, TV, tapes) than most other subject areas. Videos, computers, and the Internet are accessible to almost all teachers and learners, and in some schools the language laboratory has been turned into a multimedia center that supports online learning. After finishing each task or activity, learners should reflect the work they did and write a few words to remain for themselves of their performance they would consider in future self-access work. Different types of syllabi such as grammatical, lexical, grammatical–lexical, situational, topic-based, notional, functional–notional, mixed or multistrand, procedural, or process are implemented in each EFL school (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In addition, different types of tests depending on the learner needs in each school are administered (proficiency, achievement, placement, or diagnostic).

Given these unique contextual characteristics, a diversified EFL school curriculum can be regarded as a network of interacting systems, which requires effective reflective leadership skills of teachers, learners, and principals collectively. Because such a complex and interacting system does not lend itself to effective leadership of any of these stakeholders only (Göker, 2007). Rather, this curriculum implies a reflective learning community where leaders engage in collective

learning processes to diagnose problems, adapt materials, and design original learning activities. It is evident that the EFL context is substantially different from contexts for other subject area teaching.

Building Reflective Leadership in an EFL School

Educational systems throughout the world have recently embraced (at least in principle) an evolution from largely centralized structures to more decentralized ones. The rationale for decentralized schooling, and particularly school-based management (SBM), argues that the school is the primary unit of change; those who work directly with students have the most informed and credible opinions about educational arrangements that will be most beneficial to their students. Leaders, at the center of changes, should determine their own readiness for change before undertaking the complex process of changing schools and they can discover their change readiness by becoming reflective practitioners who know themselves and engage in professional learning (Zimmerman, 2011). A substantial research literature has demonstrated that SBM can be used effectively to improve student and teacher performance (Göker, 2005, 2006a; Brown, 1990; Ceperley 1991; Conley & Bacharach, 1990). Based on the research findings about SBM, reflective teaching and learning, and the uniqueness of EFL contexts, I argue that a reflective learning community can be created for principals, teachers, and students to implement a quality EFL curriculum as it results from active ongoing efforts of teachers, principals, and students and a shared commitment to SBRM principles, role changes, and the selection of appropriate measures to bring these about. (Göker, 2005, 2006a).

To develop a reflective leadership framework (RLF), there must be some principles to create a learning community which offers leaders reflective tools guiding self-assesment and planning to discovering more powerful connections between leading and learning, the RLF comprises these principles:

1. Powerful and equitable student learning is the central goal of leadership.
2. EFL schools are reflective learning communities where action research is used under a school-based organizational structure in which all individuals are empowered to lead, as well as contribute to, particular strategies that focus on learning.
3. EFL schools develop a sense of community with shared vision and goals and the primary focus in these schools is communicative competence.
4. Reflective teaching is an essential part methodology.
5. Learners, teachers, and principals determine their own readiness for change.
6. EFL schools recruit quality teachers (Farrell, 2001; Göker, 2006a, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).
7. EFL schools engage in continuous restless self-examination and have the policy of openness about performance data within the school.
8. Teachers convey and reinforce high expectations and learners are encouraged to use their creative imagination and powers of problem solving with communicative tasks and activities.
9. Positive reinforcement is a very effective system for the teacher and the students.
10. Accountability: As accountability systems evolve, they are likely to have considerably stronger impacts if they move in the direction of more precise incentives for individual schools. Analysis of state achievement growth as measured by the National Assessment of Educational progress shows that accountability systems introduced during the 1990s had a clear positive impact on student achievement (Raymond & Hanushek, 2003; National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2004).
11. Well-established mechanisms are used in EFL schools.for monitoring the progress of learners, classes, the school as a whole.
12. Students are active and they have responsibility for their own learning, and thus student self-esteem is raised (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Young, 1991).
13. There are strong home–school partnerships in EFL schools.
14. Language learning is not confined to the classroom in EFL schools in terms context and resources which provides access to more authentic input and learning processes.

II. Roles in the Reflective Leadership Framework (RLF)

A growing body of implementation research on SBM reports that the roles of all educational stakeholders—superintendents, other central office personnel, board members, principals, teachers, other school staff, and often parents, community members, and students—are profoundly affected. It is also reported that SBM and shared decision making strategies directly challenge and tend to change the complex and well-entrenched patterns of institutional and individual behaviors that have remained untouched by top-down reforms (Ceperley 1991; Hord, 1992; Snipes, Doolittle & Herlihy, 2002). What happens when an EFL school under SBM desires to initiate changes intended to reflect a more communicative approach to English language learning with the leadership roles under the the RLF?

Since such an EFL school under SBM has complex and interacting system, it does not lend itself to effective leadership of any of these stakeholders only. Therefore, if an EFL school desires to adopt reform strategies to create a reflective learning community, these new expectations involve role changes for teachers, students, and principals because they become participants in whole-school change and are asked to engage in reflective practice. I focus on reflective leadership role changes for only principals, teachers, and students. Leadership, then, not only refers to administration; teachers and students also take action on school-wide issues and are therefore modeling reflective

leadership. Central to these assertions about reflective leading for learning is the notion that reflective leaders not only set the stage for learning but also take concrete steps along pathways to learning. In this sense, the reflective leadership framework (RLF) comprises new leadership roles for principals, teachers, and learners.

Principal Roles in the Reflective Leadership Framework (RLF)

Recent research suggests that regular reflection increases leaders' learning and may make them more effective (Densten and Gray, 2001; Stoeckel and Davies, 2007). In the constantly changing learning environment of today's EFL schools, the practice of reflection may be of great value to new generations of leaders. Today's schools require a new kind of principal, one whose main responsibility involves leadership that focuses on strengthening teaching and leading for learning (Elmore, 2002; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Hess, 2003; Southern Regional Education Board, 2003; Thomas B. Fordham Institute & Broad Foundation, 2003).

Leading for learning involves developing clarity and coherence in the improvement agenda (Knapp et al., 2003). In this sense, principals connect activities along multiple pathways to one another and to student, reflective, and sytem learning . Principals have the challenge and obligation to develop an environment that not only attracts the best teachers available, but one that also retains and develops them throughout their career (Watkins, 2005).

I propose that under the RLF, it is the role of the principal that is subject to the greatest degree of change. The principal:

1. Is not a *boss* but a *head learner*;
2. Not only sets the stage for learning but also takes concrete steps along pathways to learning;
3. Serves as leader for learner learning;
4. Learns to establish and support teachers' and students' reflective learning through creating coherence;
5. Works collegially with staff, sharing authority with them;
6. Builds professional communities that value learning, acts strategically and shares leadership;
7. Engages external environments that matter for learning;
8. Serves as a curriculum developer, supervisor, and instructional manager;
9. Plans and coordinates the assessment policy and practices;
10. Leads other teachers in improving learning strategies through staff development, collaborative lesson preparation, and selection and development of learning and teaching resources;
11. Promotes a professional exchange culture within the school and establishes links with other schools for sharing of experiences in learning, teaching, and curriculum development;
12. Envisions himself or herself as the chief reflective practitioner;
13. Articulates his or her personal values and beliefs about teaching and learning;
14. Facilitates active learning, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills;
15. Is a developer of reflective learning for learners and teachers;
16. Uses a range of self, peer, and student monitoring and evaluating techniques. (Göker, 2006a, p.191)

Leading for learning means creating powerful and equitable learning opportunities for students, professionals, and the system, and motivating participants to take advantage of these opportunities (Knapp et al., Cop., 2003). Leaders can accomplish this by committing themselves to the following areas of action: Establishing a focus on learning, building professional communities that value learning, engaging external environments that matter for learning, acting strategically, and creating coherence (Knapp et al., 2003; Ouchi, 2003). The vision offered focuses on providing all learners, regardless of the difficulties they face, the means to master challenging skills and to develop habits of mind for further learning, as well as independent learning.

The question is, "How does inquiry into performance focus on what learners and teachers are learning and how do EFL school principals as leaders influence learning through these roles, and what reflective ideas and tools are needed under the RLF? To pursue this end, EFL school principals engage three learning agendas: student learning, reflective learning, and system learning (Cohen & Hill, 2001; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001).

Student learning. Students' opportunities for learning reside in the interactions among learners, teachers, and content. Learning—the outcomes of all these interactions—depends on how teachers implement curriculum, design academic tasks, and engage students in these tasks, as well as how learners approach their teachers, each other, and their work (Knapp et al., 2003). EFL school principals establish a focus on learning and students by consistently communicating that student learning is the shared mission of students, teachers, principals, and the community. If language learning is to be successful, the students' needs, rather than the grammar or functions of English, must form the core of the curriculum and the instruction. The focus must be on the skills of creative and critical thinking, information processing, reasoning, inquiry, and evaluation (Butterworth & O'Connor, 2005; Göker, 2005, 2006a).

Reflective learning. "Let's try it out and see how it works" is an active learner's phrase; "Let's think it through first" is the reflective learner's response. Teachers' learning includes the knowledge, skills, and perspectives they acquire while preparing for and renewing their practice. Opportunities for effective professional development include those that come from interacting with other professionals who offer ideas, critique, inspiration, and moral support in the renewal process (Farrell, 2001).

Given time to reflect, most principals want to provide more powerful and equitable learning opportunities. However, principals' abilities depend on their understanding of existing and potential connections between leading and learning in

their particular setting. As part of professional development, principals can use reflective tools including strengthening electronic portfolios with reflective writing, optimizing video as a self-assessment tool, accessing relevant resources on the Internet, tapping into online peer mentoring, and encouraging reflection through learning communities.

EFL school principals can learn to establish and support teachers' and students' reflective learning through creating coherence (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2002), building professional communities that value learning, acting strategically and sharing leadership, and engaging external environments that matter for learning.

System learning. Opportunities for system learning arise through strategic planning endeavors; evaluation of policies, programs, and resource use; action research focused on system-wide issues; and application of indicators to measure progress toward defined goals (Knapp et al., 2003). Through inquiry into how a school functions and performs, principals can support system learning (Snyder, 2002). This may include insight into the functioning of the SBRM system, as a whole, to develop and evaluate new policies, practices, and structures that enhance its performance.

Teacher Roles in the Reflective Leadership Framework (RLF)

Learning from examining one's own teaching, from carrying out classroom research, from creating teaching portfolios, from interacting with colleagues through critical friendships, mentoring and participating in teacher networks, are all regarded as ways in which teachers can acquire new skills and knowledge (Bartlett, 1990; Jacobs and Farrell, 2001; Pickering, 2003). Bartlett (1990) points out that becoming a reflective teacher involves moving beyond a primary concern with instructional techniques and "how to" questions and asking "what" and "why" questions that regard instructions and managerial techniques not as ends in themselves, but as part of broader educational purposes.

Through guided reflection on field experiences, self-analysis and evaluation, professional development can be assured. Teachers must reflect, analyze, and adjust or change their practice whenever it is necessary; otherwise, thinking would actually become a waste of time. What really will make the difference when reflective/action research practice is performed is the fact that the results are empowering in helping ESL/EFL teachers become better teachers (Pacheco, 2005). Many different approaches can be employed if an EFL teacher wishes to become a critically reflective, including peer observation, written accounts of experiences, self-reports, teachers' diaries, recording lessons, reflective inquiry groups, and collaborative action research.

Reflective teaching suggests that experience in teaching alone is not enough for professional growth, but that experience along with reflection can be an effective path for EFL teacher's professional development. A substantial research literature also demonstrates that peer coaching is one of the most effective means to improve student and teacher performance and to bridge the gap between theory and practice. It helps teachers to deepen collegiality, increase professional dialogue, and gives them a shared vocabulary to talk about their craft. In peer coaching, the key to teacher satisfaction and learning, and to program success is teacher ownership of the process (Göker, 2006b; Seferoğlu,2001; Gottesman, 2000).

Developing a reflective teaching philosophy can help clarify decisions about choice of classroom activities, materials, and teacher evaluation. The following statements describe the reflective EFL teaching philosophy and teacher roles supporting the RFL (Adler & Reed, 2000; Farrell, 2001; Göker, 2005, 2006a):

1. EFL classroom becomes a kind of laboratory where the teacher can relate teaching theory to teaching practice.
2. EFL schools develop clarity and coherence in the improvement agenda.
3. Teachers are learners, reflective practitioners, critical enquirers, and context-sensitive professionals.
4. Teachers take concrete steps along pathways to learning, and setting the stage for learning.
5. Language learning is a gradual process that involves trial and error.
6. Teachers become a critically reflective.
7. Teachers serve as facilitators of learning, rather than as presenters of information.
8. Teachers learn how to use reflective tools to encourage reflection.
9. There is a consistent focus throughout on learning English to develop practical and functional skills, rather than as an end in itself.
10. Learners are engaged in practical tasks that relate to real world uses of English.
11. There is an appropriate balance between accuracy-focused and fluency-focused activities.
12. Realistic and communicative uses of language are given priority.
13. Maximum use is made of pair and group activities where students complete tasks collaboratively.
14. Assessment procedures reflect and support a communicative and skill-based orientation to teaching and learning.
15. Learners develop the ability to monitor their own learning process and ways of setting personal goals for language development.
16. Learners have an awareness of the learning process and their own learning styles, strengths, and weaknesses.
17. Teachers expand their repertoire of routines, skills, and strategies to try out new strategies in the classroom.
18. Teachers monitor themselves and get feedback from others on their practice.
19. Teachers develop an understanding of different styles of teaching and determine learners' perceptions of classroom activities.
20. Teachers navigate the complex interplay among the values and cultural norms of schools, students, and teachers.

Due to the fact teacher collaboration is essential, I argue that, under the RFL, teachers will be asked to become key partners in schools with the previously described roles and to assume leadership roles in staff development, mentoring, and curriculum development.

Learner Roles in the Reflective Leadership Framework (RLF)

Reflective learners evaluate their strengths and weaknesses, setting themselves realistic goals with criteria for success. In language learning process, this means understanding how to assess themselves on their performance in four skills; writing, reading, listening, and speaking. Reflective learners self-improve and develop their personal effectiveness, and invite feedback from their peers and teachers. They also deal positively with praise, setbacks and criticism.

Realistic learner beliefs and learner autonomy will be created, and thus the learners' self-confidence and motivation will be increased if learners are to become active participants in decision-making regarding their own learning, then it is essential that they be able to state their own learning goals (Adler & Reed, 2000; Farrell, 2001). Reflective learners are said to demonstrate self-awareness and motivation, awareness of the process of learning, and independence. Learners need to be exposed to situations that require them to lead, in order to develop individual skills that will enable them to be successful group and community leaders. Effective student leaders step out and risk failure because they know failure and disappointment are a normal part of growth. Current communicative language teaching and learner-centered courses will require the following new roles for learners, in addition to the ones indicated in the RLF philosophy:

1. develops habits of mind for further learning as well as independent learning;
2. manager of his or her own learning;
3. creative and critical thinker, and information processor;
4. independent learner;
5. has more awareness about his or her self-regulated learning strategies;
6. needs analyst;
7. collaborator and team member;
8. peer tutor;
9. meaning negotiator; and
10. reflective learner.

Learners with these roles should not be isolated from operational and policy decisions in a reflective learning community, because they will influence the teaching philosophy and principles by giving advice and input.

III. Predictable Gains and Outcomes under RLF

Through creating a learning environment where teachers, learners, and principals demonstrate reflective leadership, there can be significant outcomes to be gained in EFL schools.

1. Involvement in reflective-based managerial activities will contribute to the development of educators' perceptions of the nature and quality of the total school climate.
2. In EFL schools sustainable change, resulting in improved teaching and learning, is best generated.
3. EFL schools will be reflective learning communities. Community members will be critical friends and confidentiality and trust built up in the community will increase job satisfaction.
4. EFL schools will be able to cope with global developments, contribute to the personal growth of students, and build a competent workforce to sustain the social, economic, and cultural development of EFL context.
5. Accountability systems to be introduced at EFL schools will a clear positive impact on student achievement.
6. EFL learners will be managers of their own learning.
7. Materials development and adaptation will be conducted within the school. EFL teachers will be able to develop tasks and activities instead of teaching from textbooks imposed on them.
8. EFL school principals, as leaders, will directly influence learning.
9. Each EFL school has a unique context and a diversified and flexible language curriculum can be created within the school.
10. EFL teachers and principals will be in charge of curriculum development and evaluation where teaching, learning, and leading will be integrated.
11. Teaching for testing will end as an environment is created in which teaching and testing are integrated. Testing offices can be converted to databanks where all evaluation procedures will take place and can be accessible to everybody.
12. EFL departments within universities can have their own curriculum, instead of imitating those of other universities. Some students may enter an English-language university lacking a working knowledge of English. Universities assist their students to develop proficiency in the language of instruction for them to achieve and complete their own graduation outcomes through English support programs intended to provide an intensive instruction in literacy as a foundation for further study in all content areas.
13. Students will be involved in curriculum evaluation and the curriculum will be made relevant for them.
14. Learner input in deciding what to learn and how to acquire their learning will be high, as they will not be told to do what is required by the school.
15. Students will have more awareness about their self-regulated learning strategies.

IV. Conclusions

EFL schools, as reflective learning communities, need to develop a policy and manage external pressures and internal pressures that push schools and the people in them to develop and change in relation to their resources; they need to ensure that they and the people in them can change and develop an integrative concept and practice of reflection. Due to these pressures, changes in EFL teaching have been happening at ever-faster rates with ever-increasing complexity. Innovations are offered for adoption; some are accepted and others are not. Curriculum reforms have been handed down from education ministries, instructional technology innovations are being applied at all levels, research from many disciplines is informing classroom-based innovations, and action research is becoming more commonplace, thus resulting transformations of teachers at the local level. All these are linked to a paradigm shift resulting in a greater focus on reflective practice, rather than on methods and methodology. Without effective leading for learning, all these forces could merely create fragmented and short-lived initiatives in EFL teaching.

To make leading for learning more concrete, there are two paths to follow. First, to illustrate a reflective practice, a strong and reflective learning-focused community should be created which offers professional support, renewed commitment, a setting for managing conflicts, and helps with problems of practice. Second, I outline what I propose are the key elements of reflective learning; elements that, taken together, provide a reflective leadership framework within which to develop both an expansive concept of reflection and a range of integrative individual and collective reflective practices is essential. It is therefore hoped that, via such a reflective learning environment, greater success can be achieved in the design and implementation of ELT innovations.

References

[1] Adler, J., & Reed, Y. (2000). Researching teachers' 'take-up' from a formal in-service professional development programme. *Journal of Education, 25*, 192–226.

[2] Bartlett, Leo. (1990). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 2002-214). New York: Cambridge University Press.

[3] Benson, P. (1997). The Philosophy and Politics of Learner Autonomy. In P. Bensyon & P. Voller (Eds.). *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*, pp.29-30. London:Longman.

[4] Brown, D. J. (1990). Decentralization and school based management. London: Falmer Press.

[5] Butterworth, M., & O'Connor, M. (2005). Thinking through English. New York: Chris Kington.

[6] Ceperley, P. (1991). Site-based decision-making: Policymakers can support it or undermine it. *The Link, 10*(21), 7–9.

[7] Cohen, D. K., & Hill, H. C. (2000). Instructional policy and classroom performance: The mathematics reform in California. *Teachers College Record, 102*, 294–343.

[8] Conley, S. C., & Bacharach, S. B. (1990). From school-site management to participatory school-site management. *Phi Delta Kappan, 71*, 539–544.

[9] Crookes, G., & Schmidt R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning, 41*, 469–512.

[10] Deal, T., & Peterson, K. (l994). The leadership paradox: Balancing logic and artistry in schools. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

[11] Densten, I. L., and Gray, J. H. (2001). Leadership development and reflection: What is the connection? *International Journal of Educational Management*, *15*(3), 119–124.

[12] Dickinson, L. (1987). Self-instruction in language Learning, pp. 9-12. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[13] Elmore, R. (2002). Bridging the gap between standards and achievement: The imperative for professional development in education. Washington, DC: Shanker Institute.

[14] Farrell, T. (2001). Tailoring reflection to individual needs: A TESOL case study. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 27*, 23–38.

[15] Fink, E., & Resnick, L. (2001). Developing principals as instructional leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan, 82, 598–606.*

[16] Göker, Süleyman D. (2005). A School-based management and supervision model (SBMS) in EFL Schools. *The Internet TESL Journal*, January 2005.

[17] Göker, Süleyman D. (2006a). Leading for learning: Reflective management in EFL. *Theory into Practice.* Spring 2006, Volume. 45, No. 2, pp. 187-196.

[18] Göker, Süleyman D. (2006b). Impact of peer coaching on self-efficacy and instructional skills in TEFL teacher education". *System, An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*. 2006. 34/2 pp. 239-254.

[19] Göker, Süleyman D. (2007). Supervision without outside 'Super' visor in ELT (English Language Teaching). *GAU Journal, Social and Applied Sciences.* Fall 2007/3.

[20] Gottesman, B. (2000). Peer Coaching for Educators, Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press.

[21] Hajnal, V., Walker, K., & Sackney, L. (l998). Leadership, organizational learning and selected factors relating to the institutionalization of school improvement initiatives. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 44*(1), 70–90.

[22] Hess, F. (2003). A license to lead? A new leadership agenda for America's schools. Washington, DC: Progressive Policy Institute, 21st Century School Project.

[23] Holec, H. (1981). Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning, pp. 2-5. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

[24] Hord, S. M. (Ed.). (1992). The new alliance of superintendents and principals: Applying the research to site-based decision making. *Issues About Change, 2*(1), 20–23.

[25] Jingnan,Shen. (2011). Autonomy in EFL Education. *Canadian Social Science*, Vol. 7, No. 5, 27-32.

[26] Jordi, Richard. (2011). Reframing the concept reflection: Consciousness, Experiental learning and reflective learning practices. American Association for Adult and Continuing Education. 61(2) 181-197.

[27] Knapp, Michael S.; Copland, Michael A.; & Talbert, John E. (2003). Leading for learning: Reflective tools for school and district leaders, CTP Research Report. Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy, Seattle, WA.; DeWitt Wallace/Reader's Digest Fund, Pleasantville, NY.

[28] Kofman, F., & Senge, P. (l993). Communities of commitment: The heart of the learning organization. *Organizational Dynamics, 22*(2), 5–23.
[29] Korthagen, F. (1993). Two modes of reflection. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 9*, 317–326.
[30] McLaughlin, M. W., & Talbert, J. E. (2001). Professional communities and the work of high school teaching. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[31] Milner, H.R. (2003). Teacher reflection and race in cultural contexts: History, meaning, and methods in teaching. *Theory into Practice 42*, 173–180.
[32] National Association of Elementary School Principals. (2002). Leading learning communities: Standards for what principals should know and be able to do. Alexandria, VA: Author.
[33] National Assessment of Educational Progress. (2004). The nation's report card, 26 August 2004 (accessed 20 September 2011). Available from http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/.
[34] Ouchi, W. (2003). Making schools work: A revolutionary plan to get your children the education they need. New York: Simon & Schuster.
[35] Pacheco, A. Quesada. (2005). Reflective teaching and its impact on foreign language teaching. *Revista Electrónica "Actualidades Investigativas en Educación"* Volumen 5, Número Extraordinario, Año 2005.
[36] Raymond, Margaret E., & Eric A. Hanushek. (2003). High-Stakes research. *Education Next* 3,no.3 (Summer):48-55.
[37] Richards, J., & Lockhart, C. (1994). Reflective teaching in second language classrooms. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
[38] Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2001). Approaches and methods in language teaching (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
[39] Seferoğlu, S. S. (2001). Peer coaching: A new approach in professional development of teachers. *Education and Science (Eğitim ve Bilim),* 26, (119), s. 20-25.
[40] Sergiovanni, T. J. (l996). Leadership for the schoolhouse. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
[41] Snipes, J., Doolittle, F., & Herlihy, C. (2002). Foundations for success: Case studies of how urban school systems improve student achievement. New York: Manpower Development Research Corporation.
[42] Snyder, J. (2002). New Haven Unified School District: A teaching quality system for excellence and equity. In A. M. Hightower, M. S. Knapp, J. A. Marsh, & M. W. McLaughlin (Eds.), *School districts and instructional renewal* (pp. 94–110). New York: Teachers College Press.
[43] Southern Regional Education Board. (2003, March). Good principals are the key to successful schools: Six strategies to prepare more good principals. Atlanta, GA: Author.
[44] Stoeckel, P. R., and Davies, T. G. (2007). Reflective leadership by selected community college presidents. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice, 31*(11), 895–912.
[45] Thomas B. Fordham Institute & the Broad Foundation. (2003). Better leaders for America's schools: A manifesto. Washington, DC: Author.
[46] Watkins, Paul. (2005). The Principal's role in attracting, retaining, and developing new teachers: Three strategies for collaboration and support. *The Clearing House* Vol. 79, No. 2 (Nov. - Dec., 2005), pp. 83-87.
[47] Young, D. (1991). Creating a low anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *Modern Language Journal, 75*, 426–439
[48] Zimmerman, Judith. A. (2011). Principals preparing for change: The importance of reflection and professional learning. *American Secondary Education 39(2),* 107–114.

Suleyman Davut Göker, EdD, is an associate professor of Educational Administration and Supervision and the chair of Department of English Translation and Interpretation, Faculty of Humanities at the Girne American University, North Cyprus. His research focuses on reflective management and supervision and curriculum development in EFL schools. He received his EdD in Educational Administration and Supervision from Dokuz Eylul University, Turkey.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Suleyman Davut Goker began his career as a director at Diltek English School in Istanbul. He worked as an EFL lecturer at the School of Foreign Languages, Dokuz Eylul University and completed his M.A and Ph.D. in Izmir. He worked as a part-time legal interpreter at the Criminal Courts, Izmir and English examiner of the European Law Students' Association (ELSA) and ISIAC. During his Ph.D study, he has been to Glasgow University as a visiting scholar. He developed an instructional supervision model in ELT for the Ministry of National Education, Turkey. In 1999, he was appointed as an assistant professor of ELT and and director to English Preparatory School, European University of Lefke. He acted as the head and M.A. TEFL coordinator of ELT Department, EUL between 2000 and 2004. In 2002, he went to Bahrain and Jordan as a university representative for a prospective affiliation agreement and the International Education fair. In May 2004, he has been to College of Education, The Ohio State University as a visiting scholar for 5 months and he completed a postdoc research study entitled "The Impact of Peer Coaching on EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy and Instructional Skills". He worked as assistant professor of ELT to the Faculty of Education, Eastern Mediterranean University between September 2004 and September 2006. He was appointed as Associate Professor in July 2008. As of 15 September 2006, he has been acting as head of Department of Translation and Interpreting at GAU.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1363-1369, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1363-1369

Survey on Anxiety in Reading Chinese-English Syntactic Differences: A Case of English Reading Anxiety in Taiwanese University Students

Yu-Hsiu Liu
De Lin Institute of Technology, Taipei, Taiwan
Email: liu.674@osu.edu

Keiko K. Samimy
The Ohio State University, Columbus, U.S.A
Email: samimy.2@osu.edu

***Abstract*—This survey study investigated the potential role of Chinese-English syntactic differences in English reading anxiety among 189 Taiwanese university students. With the use of the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS; Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999) and the Survey of Anxiety in Reading Chinese-English syntactic differences (SARCE; a self-designed measure), the study showed that Chinese-English syntactic differences in the passive and relative constructions were a significant factor attributing to the participants' English reading anxiety.**

***Index Terms*—foreign language reading anxiety, Chinese-English syntactic differences, The English relative clause, the English passive, Taiwanese university students**

I. Introduction

Foreign language (FL) reading is complex because it is affected by a complex mix of linguistic and nonlinguistic factors inextricably linked together. Among many factors, anxiety has long been found to have a debilitating effect on foreign language reading (e.g., Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999). A high level of reading anxiety usually distracts language learners' attention from meaning and language forms and may further undermine learners' FL reading development in the long run (Gass & Selinker, 2001). Despite the tremendous impact of anxiety on FL reading, comparatively little research has been conducted to examine what leads to reading anxiety in the foreign language learning context, particularly in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context in Asia. Hence, this study was conducted to fill a gap in previous research. The primary focus of this study was to examine whether syntactic differences acted as a potential influence on the reading anxiety experienced by Chinese learners of English as a foreign language.

II. Review of Literature

Up to now, relatively few attempts have been made to investigate FL reading anxiety. The most seminal research on FL reading anxiety was conducted by Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999). In their study "Foreign Language Reading Anxiety," they employed the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) to assess American university students' reading anxiety in Japanese, Russian, and French. They found that anxiety had a tremendous impact on students' FL reading and that FL reading anxiety was different in nature from overall FL anxiety. Apart from Saito, Horwitz, and Garza, an increasing number of researchers have attempted to investigate FL reading anxiety in association with other variables, such as assessment methods (Oh, 1992), reading comprehension ability (Brantmeier, 2005; Sellers, 2000), gender (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004), the use of reading strategies (Zhou, 2008), and so forth. With respect to assessment methods, Oh (1992) used the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (CIQ) to examine the influence of testing methods on FL reading anxiety. Her study showed that different assessment methods would produce different levels of FL reading anxiety among Korean university students. Regarding the variable of reading comprehension ability, both Sellers (2000) and Brantmeier (2005) utilized the FLRAS to assess FL reading anxiety in American learners of Spanish. It was found that anxious learners tended to have a lower level of reading comprehension ability than did their less-anxious counterparts. In addition to assessment methods and reading comprehension ability, FL reading anxiety has also been studied together with the variables of gender and the use of reading strategies. With respect to gender, Matsuda and Gobel (2004) employed the FLRAS and the FLCAS to measure FL reading anxiety associated with gender. Their study indicated that gender was not a significant predictor of Japanese students' anxiety in reading English as a foreign language. As for the use of reading strategies, Zhou's survey research showed that, in China, anxious EFL readers and less anxious EFL readers differed in their use of reading strategies; that is, highly

anxious readers were unable to use reading strategies efficiently while processing texts written in English. Overall, previous research has shown that anxiety does not work in isolation to affect FL reading. Multiple factors should also be taken into consideration in the interpretation of FL reading anxiety.

While previous studies have highlighted the significant influence that anxiety can have on FL reading, the scope of most anxiety research is rather limited. Most anxiety research tended to examine FL reading anxiety together with individual differences (e.g., gender, reading comprehension ability, etc.) at the expense of linguistic variables (e.g., syntactic differences, orthography, and so forth). Since FL reading is a complex cognitive process affected by first language (L1) and second language (L2) variables (Koda, 2007), linguistic variables such as syntactic differences should not be overlooked as we examine the influence of anxiety on FL reading. The syntactic differences between two languages are worthy of exploration, especially when we consider reading anxiety in learners whose native language differs tremendously from the FL with respect to syntax (e.g., Cheng, 1993; Cheung, Chan, & Chong, 2007; Li & Thompson, 1989).

Comparing English and Chinese for example, since English is an alphabetic language and Chinese is a logographic language, many syntactic differences have been observed to exist between the two languages. For instance, unlike English, which follows a strict word order of subject-verb-object (SVO), a typical Chinese sentence permits both the SVO word order and the SOV word order (Odlin, 1989). In addition, Chinese is a "topic-prominent language", whereas English is a subject-prominent language (Li & Thompson, 1989, p. 15; Xiao, 2002). These syntactic differences can play a significant role in the way Chinese learners read English (Chen, 2005; Green, 1996; Yip & Matthews, 2000). Many studies have shown that Chinese students' English reading problems and production errors usually result from syntactic interference (e.g., Odlin, 1989) and from students' lack of awareness of Chinese-English syntactic differences (Chan, 2004a, 2004b; Cheng, 1993). In this sense, Chinese-English syntactic differences may be a crucial factor to consider as we investigate the role of anxiety in Chinese speakers' English reading. Unfortunately, it appears that no research has ever been conducted to examine how Chinese-English syntactic differences shape English reading anxiety in Chinese students.

Considering the limitations of previous research, the present study aimed to investigate the interplay between syntactic differences and FL reading anxiety among Asian students, a less examined population in anxiety research. Specifically, this study employed the FLRAS (Saito et al., 1999) and a newly designed instrument, "The Survey on Anxiety in Reading Chinese-English Syntactic Differences" (SARCE) to examine how Taiwanese university students perceived the role of Chinese-English syntactic differences in their English reading anxiety.

III. Research Questions

Three research questions were posed to investigate the role of Chinese-English syntactic differences in Taiwanese university students' perceptions of English reading anxiety:

1. To what extent do Taiwanese university students experience anxiety in reading English?
2. What are the underlying common factors behind Taiwanese university students' English reading anxiety associated with Chinese-English syntactic differences?
3. What role do Chinese-English syntactic differences play in Taiwanese university students' English reading anxiety?

IV. Methodology

A. Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 189 Taiwanese university students from assorted majors at a university in Northern Taiwan. A total of 250 questionnaires were distributed to accessible participants, and 213 questionnaires were returned. The response rate was 85%. Of the 213 questionnaires, 24 were incomplete and were eliminated. Hence, the selected sample of this study was 189 students, consisting of 85 males (45%) and 104 females (55%).

B. Procedure

The participants were asked to respond to the FLRAS first, to read two assigned articles (i.e., Article A and Article B) next, and to respond to the SARCE last.

C. Instruments and Materials

1. The Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS)

Developed by Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999), the FLRAS has been viewed as a highly valid and reliable instrument to measure foreign language reading anxiety (Gonen, 2007; Matsumura, 2001; Miyanaga, 2005; Saito et al., 1999). The FLRAS is a 20-item questionnaire based on a five point summated Likert-type scale. The response categories range from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* and inquire about "students' self-reports of anxiety over various aspects of reading, their perceptions of reading difficulties in their target language, and their perceptions of the relative difficulty of reading as compared to the difficulty of other language skills" (Saito et al., 1999, p. 204). Since the FLRAS was developed to measure non-Asian students' FL reading anxiety in the U.S. context, the original FLRAS was adapted to meet the needs of the present study. The only difference between the adapted FLRAS and the original

FLRAS is the wording. Despite that, the adapted FLRAS retains the same number, content, and ordering of the items on the original FLRAS.

2. Texts With and Without Chinese-English Syntactic Differences

Two articles, Article A ("Alice") and Article B ("Marianne") were used to examine whether the amounts of Chinese-English syntactic differences have a potential influence on the participants' levels of English reading anxiety (please view Appendix A). Drawn from two reading sections of the Practice Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the two articles (each containing 223 words) are relevant because both discuss the life and work of a famous American writer, with Article A being about Alice Walker, and Article B being about Marianne Moore. Despite these similarities, the two articles differ in the amounts of Chinese-English syntactic differences that they contain. Article A is written using the subject-verb-object (SVO) order, which resembles the Chinese word order, while Article B contains a large number of passive sentences and relative constructions (13 out of 15 sentences (87%) are either passivized or relativized), which is uncommon in a typical Chinese article. In other words, Article A contains neither passive sentences nor relative constructions, whereas Article B includes a great number of the two constructions. More Chinese-English syntactic differences are found in Article B than in Article A.

3. The Survey on Anxiety in Reading Chinese-English Syntactic Differences (SARCE)

As a measure of participants' post-reading anxiety deriving from a text containing large Chinese-English syntactic differences (i.e., Article B), the SARCE contains 20 survey items on a four point Likert-type scale, with response categories of *strongly disagree, disagree, agree,* and *strongly agree*. Based on previous research findings that Chinese students' English reading problems originate primarily from syntactic differences between the Chinese relative and the English relative constructions, and between the Chinese passive and the English passive voice (e.g., Odlin, 1989), the original survey items were grouped into four domains, with 4 items on awareness of syntactic differences between the assigned texts (i.e., Article A and Article B), 5 items on the English relative construction, 5 items on the English passive, and 6 items on overall feelings of anxiety in reading the assigned texts.

The SARCE was pilot-tested with 15 Taiwanese university students to ensure its reliability before group administration. Prior to pilot testing the SARCE, five Taiwanese university students were invited to participate in cognitive interviews to ensure clarity and appropriateness of the survey items. The internal consistency of the 20 items on the SARCE was tested by Cronbach's alpha. The reliability results of the pilot test showed that the Cronbach's alpha for items in the first domain was .78; the Cronbach's alpha for items in the second domain was .83; the Cronbach's alpha for items in the third domain was .79; and the Cronbach's alpha for items in the fourth domain was .74. In addition, content validity and face validity of the SARCE were also established by two ESL teachers and a panel of three experts who specialized in second language acquisition, second language reading, and survey research.

V. Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS), version 18.0 was used to analyze the survey data. The analyses consisted of the use of descriptive statistics (e.g., means, standard deviations, percentages, frequencies, etc.), a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis, and an exploratory factor analysis.

VI. Results and Discussion

A. Levels of Reading Anxiety in English

The Cronbach's alpha of the modified FLRAS was .81 (n = 189), showing that the slightly modified FLRAS was a reliable instrument for use in this study. The mean FLRAS score of the participants was 65.8 (*SD* = 10.06).

Measured by the FLRAS scores, the participants' levels of English reading anxiety were compared using the principles suggested by Sellers (2000) and Gonen (2007). Accordingly, the high-anxiety group included individuals whose mean scores were one or more standard deviations above the total mean; the low-anxiety group contained those whose mean scores were one or more standard deviations below the total mean; and the remainder of the participants were in the mid-anxiety group. The table below shows the frequency distribution of the three groups:

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE HIGH-, MID-, AND LOW-ANXIETY GROUPS ON THE FLRAS

Group	N	%	Mean	*SD*
High-anxiety[a]	25	13.2	82.76	4.23
Mid-anxiety[b]	133	70.4	67.64	5.23
Low-anxiety[c]	31	16.4	50.84	4.56
Total	189	100.0		

Note. a. High-anxiety group: Individuals whose FLRAS scores >77 (total M of the FLRAS+ 1SD)
b. Mid-anxiety group: Individuals whose FLRAS scores: 57-77
c. Low-anxiety group: Individuals whose FLRAS scores < 57 (total M of the FLRAS - 1SD)

As shown in Table 1, the high-anxiety group has the highest mean score of 82.76 (*SD* = 4.23) on the FLRAS among the groups. The mid-anxiety group consisted of the largest number of participants (n = 133, 70.4%), followed by the low-anxiety group (n = 31, 16.4%). Table 1 also shows that the numbers of the participants in the high- and low-anxiety

groups were very close, with a 3.2 percentage points difference between the two groups. Despite the low-anxiety group, the majority of participants (83.6%) reported that they had experienced anxiety while reading English.

A closer look at the participants' FLRAS scores shows that the total means and standard deviations of the FLRAS scores of the current study are much higher than those reported by Gonen (2007), Huang (2001), and Saito et al. (1999). This finding indicates that the participants in this study experienced higher levels of reading anxiety than did participants recruited in previous research. The fact that the participants had higher reading anxiety also corresponds to the observed group composition, in which 13.2% of the participants were placed in the high-anxiety group, 70.4% in the mid-anxiety group, and 16.4% in the low-anxiety group. In other words, approximately 83.6% of the participants experienced mid- to high levels of reading anxiety.

The aforementioned findings confirm the existing anxiety research, demonstrating that FL reading is anxiety-provoking for language learners (e.g., Gonen, 2007; Saito et al., 1999; Sellers, 2000; Zhou, 2008). Furthermore, the findings also support recent studies conducted by Hou (2008), Hsiao (2002), Hsu (2004), and Huang (2001) by showing that English reading anxiety is an overarching problem facing most Taiwanese students.

B. Results of the SARCE

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations of the 20 items on the SARCE. The largest mean value was 2.91 (item 18), whereas the smallest was 2.24 (item 11). The mean differences of the items were very small, varying less than one point from the total mean of 2.63 (N = 189, SD = .76). A closer examination of the items with means higher than the total mean (i.e., items 16, 18, 19, 20) shows that the participants were more anxious when reading a text containing large Chinese-English syntactic differences (i.e., Article B).

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TWENTY ITEMS ON THE SARCE

Item	Mean	*SD*	N
1. Confusion about reading Article B that contains many English RCs	2.50	.719	189
2. Unfamiliarity with Chinese-English differences in the passive voice	2.54	.768	189
3. Syntactic differences between Article A and a typical Chinese article	2.83	.663	189
4. Syntactical differences and reading comprehension	2.76	.701	189
5. Familiarity with the English RC	2.59	.742	189
6. Problem of reading the English RC	2.40	.704	189
7. Difficulty in analyzing the English RC	2.72	.698	189
8. General anxiety in reading the English RC	2.32	.703	189
9. Anxiety in reading Article B that contains many English RCs	2.48	.726	189
10. Familiarity with English passives	2.39	.725	189
11. Problem of reading English passives	2.24	.747	189
12. Difficulty in analyzing English passives	2.54	.788	189
13. General anxiety in reading English passives	2.26	.701	189
14. Anxiety in reading Article B that contains many English passives	2.36	.720	189
15. Feeling of depression due to poor comprehension of Article B	2.58	.826	189
16. Anxiety in having Article B as a reading test	2.81	.711	189
17. Anxiety in reading Article B at leisure	2.59	.729	189
18. Chinese-English syntactic differences and English reading anxiety	2.91	.770	189
19. Discomfort in reading texts with large syntactic differences	2.78	.832	189
20. Confidence in reading Article B	2.80	.728	189

C. The Underlying Structure of the SARCE

To examine the underlying structure of the SARCE, an exploratory factor analysis using principal components analysis with varimax rotation was performed on 20 items of the SARCE for the 189 participants. The KMO value of .87 and the Barlett's test of sphericity (p = .00) showed appropriateness of using the factor analysis on the data.

An examination of a scree plot shows that three components with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted: (1) *the English passive*, (2) *anxiety in reading a text containing large syntactic differences*, and (3) *the English relative clause*. Together the three components explained 50.4% of the total variance of the participants' English reading anxiety associated with Chinese-English syntactic differences. The results of the analysis are summarized in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF THE EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE SARCE

Component	Loading	Communality	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance Explained	Cumulative Percent of Variance Explained
The English Passive (alpha= .876)			4.413	22.065%	22.065%
Item 13	.841	.806			
Item 11	.822	.773			
Item 12	.778	.681			
Item 14	.761	.742			
Item 10	.599	.535			
Item 2	.568	.612			
Anxiety in Reading a Text Containing Large Syntactic Differences (alpha = .821)			3.003	15.013%	37.078%
Item 16	.814	.747			
Item 17	.797	.731			
Item 20	.764	.699			
Item 15	.643	.580			
The English Relative Clause (alpha=.725)			2.656	13.28%	50.358%
Item 7	.712	.598			
Item 5	.687	.587			
Item 1	.683	.646			
Item 9	.487	.550			

As shown in Table 3, the first rotated component, with 22.07% of the variance explained, consisted of six items (2, 10-14): #2, *Unfamiliar with the differences between Chinese passives and English passives, I am not sure if I interpret Article B correctly*; #10. *I am familiar with the English passive*; #11, *I usually get stuck in my reading of English when I encounter English passives*; #12, *I sometimes have difficulty in processing English passives*; #13, *I am anxious whenever I come across passive sentences in my reading of English*; and #14, *I feel anxious reading Article B because there are many passive sentences in Article B*. Since the items concerned the participants' feelings of anxiety and learning difficulties with the English passive, the first component was named "the English passive."

The second rotated component, with approximately 15.01% of the variance explained, contained four items, including #15, *I am frustrated because I cannot comprehend Article B very well;* #16, *I would be more anxious if I were given Article B, rather than Article A, to read in an exam*; #17, *I would be more anxious if I were given Article B, rather than Article A, to read in my free time*; and #20, *I feel less confident when reading Article B.* Given that the above items described the participants' overall reaction after reading a text containing large Chinese-syntactic differences (i.e., Article B), the second component was named "anxiety in reading a text containing large syntactic differences."

The third rotated component, with 13.28% of the variance explained, comprised four items, such as #1, *Because Chinese has no relative clauses, I feel confused when reading Article B that contains many relative clauses*; #5, *I am familiar with the English relative construction*; #7, *I sometimes have difficulty in processing sentences containing relative clauses*; and #9, *I feel anxious reading Article B because there are many relative clauses in Article B*. The third component was labeled "the English relative clause" in that the items loaded on the third component were relevant to the participants' feelings of anxiety and learning difficulties with the English relative clause.

The extracted components *the English passive* and *the English relative clause* echo previous research findings that syntactic differences between Chinese and English, particularly the relative and the passive constructions, can interfere with Chinese students' English as a second or foreign language reading (Chan, 2004a, 2004b; Cheng, 1993; Odlin, 1989). Chinese-English syntactic differences associated with the relative and passive constructions should thus be considered a potential factor in explaining Chinese students' reading of English. The findings of this study also add insight to the existing research by showing that Chinese-English syntactic differences may not only lead to English reading problems but also shape the way Chinese students perceive English reading anxiety, as identified by the second extracted component (i.e., *anxiety in reading a text containing large syntactic differences*).

D. The Relationship between the FLRAS and the SARCE

The descriptive results of the SARCE showed that the majority of participants (78%) agreed that Chinese-English syntactic differences are an important factor that causes English reading anxiety. In addition, the Pearson correlation coefficient, .647, showed that there was a moderate, positive relationship between the FLRAS and the SARCE (p = .00). The proportion of variability shared by the FLRAS and the SARCE was 41.86%. The correlation analysis showed that the participants who received high scores on the FLRAS tended to score highly on the SARCE, and vice versa. These results showed that English reading anxiety is related to, but distinct from, reading anxiety arising from Chinese-English syntactic differences.

VII. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was conducted in an attempt to explore the link between Chinese-English syntactic differences and Taiwanese university students' English reading anxiety. The overall results of the study showed that Chinese-English

syntactic differences played a crucial role in shaping the participants' English reading anxiety. In addition, the participants experienced a mid-to-high level of English reading anxiety and their English reading anxiety could be explained by three underlying common factors: the English passive, the English relative clause, and an authentic text containing gross Chinese-English syntactic differences. Using psychological and linguistic perspectives, this study is also important in that it shows that FL reading anxiety is subject to the influence of syntactic differences, especially between an alphabetic language such as English and a non-alphabetic language such as Chinese.

Two implications for English as a foreign language (EFL) reading instruction can be derived from the results of this study. First, in view of the result that the participants experienced overall anxiety in reading English, there is a need for English reading teachers to create a low-anxiety reading environment for EFL learners. Teachers should be aware that the process of FL reading is impacted by cognitive, social, and psychological factors. Diagnosing why students are unable to read well is as important as teaching them how to read well. Since acute reading anxiety can impair students' long-term development of reading skills in the L2/FL, reducing students' reading anxiety is of great importance in English reading classrooms. Second, considering the important role of Chinese-English syntactic differences in English reading anxiety, reading teachers should bear in mind that gross Chinese-English syntactic differences in the relative and passive constructions could be a potential source of English reading anxiety for Chinese learners of English. Teachers should help students build an awareness of how Chinese and English differ in word order. Specifically, as suggested by Sun and Cong (2005) and Tsao (1986), teachers may consider doing an error analysis and a contrastive analysis of the Chinese passive/relative clause and the English passive/relative clause for their students. In so doing, students can become more familiar with the English passive and the English relative clause and thus suffer less from reading anxiety and difficulties caused by the two constructions.

Future research should investigate more deeply the question of whether syntactic differences between an alphabetic language and a non-alphabetic language or among languages of the same writing system have a long-term impact on the formation of FL reading anxiety. Apart from the survey technique, researchers may consider using the qualitative research paradigm to better investigate the influence of syntactic differences on foreign language reading anxiety. After all, reading anxiety is a multidimensional construct that needs to be further defined using more than a single research paradigm.

APPENDIX A READING MATERIALS

Article A: Alice

Alice Walker makes her living by writing, and her poems, short stories, and novels have won many awards and fellowships for her. She was born in Eatonton, Georgia. She went to public schools there, and then to Spelman College in Atlanta before coming to New York to attend Sarah Lawrence College. She graduated from Sarah Lawrence College in 1966. For a time she lived in Jackson, Mississippi, with her lawyer husband and small daughter. About *Langston Hughes, American Poet*, her first book for children, she says, "After my first meeting with Langston Hughes I vowed I would write a book about him for children someday. Why? Because I, at twenty-two, knew next to nothing of his work, and he didn't scold me; he just gave me a stack of his books. And he was kind to me; I will always be grateful that in his absolute warmth and generosity, he fulfilled my deepest dream (and need) of what a poet should be."

"To me he is not dead at all. Hardly a day goes by that I don't think of him or speak of him. Once, just before he died, when he was sick with the flue, I took him a sack full of oranges." She said she still remembered how happy she was when Langston Hughes said he liked oranges, too.

Article B: Marianne

Marianne Moore once said that her writing could be called poetry only because there was no other name for it. Indeed her poems appear to be extremely compressed essays that happen to be printed in jagged lines on the page. Her subjects were varied: animals, laborers, artists, and the craft of poetry. From her general reading came quotations that she found striking or insightful. She included these in her poems, scrupulously enclosed in quotation marks, and sometimes identified in footnotes. Of this practice, she wrote, "'Why the many quotation marks?' I am asked…When a thing has been said so well that it cold not be said better, why paraphrase it? Hence my writing is, if not a cabinet of fossils, a kind of collection of flies in amber."

Her first book of poems was published in London in 1921 by a group of friends associated with the Imagist movement. From that time on her poetry has been read with interest by succeeding generations of poets and readers. In 1952 she was awarded the Pulitzer Prize for her Collected Poems. She wrote that she did not write poetry "for money or fame. To earn a living is needful, but it can be done in routine ways. One writes because one has a burning desire to objectify what it is indispensable to one's happiness to express…"

REFERENCES

[1] Brantmeier, C. (2005). Anxiety about L2 reading or L2 reading tasks? A study with advanced language learners. *The Reading Matrix, 5*(2), 67-83.

[2] Chan, A. Y. W. (2004a). Noun phrases in Chinese and English: A study of English structural problems encountered by Chinese ESL students in Hong Kong. *Language, Culture & Curriculum*, *17*(1), 33-47.
[3] Chan, A. Y. W. (2004b). Syntactic transfer: Evidence from the interlanguage of Hong Kong Chinese ESL learners. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(1), 56-74.
[4] Chen, M. Y. C. (2005). English prototyped small clauses in the interlanguage of Chinese/Taiwanese adult learners. *Second Language Research*, *21*(1), 1-33.
[5] Cheng, T. Y. (1993). The syntactical problems Chinese college students meet in reading English technical textbooks. Retrieved May 17, 2009, from ERIC: http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail?vid=7&hid=113&sid=b0ebec5d-93bf-419a-bbe0-8c02df5b9947%40sessionmgr102
[6] Cheung, H., Chan, M., & Chong, K. (2007). Use of orthographic knowledge in reading by Chinese-English bi-scriptal Children. *Language Learning*, *57*(3), 469-505.
[7] Educational Testing Services. (1998).TOEFL test preparation kit: Workbook. Princeton: Educational Testing Services.
[8] Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2001). Second language acquisition: An introductory course. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[9] Gonen, S. I. K. (2007). *L2 reading anxiety: Exploring the phenomenon.* Paper presented in JALT conference, Retrieved December 28, 2009 from http://jalt-publications.org/archive/proceedings/2006/E082.pdf
[10] Green, C. (1996). The origins and effects of topic-prominence in Chinese-English interlanguage. *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *34*(2), 119-135.
[11] Hou, T. C. (2008). The relationship between English reading anxiety and English reading comprehension among EFL non-English majors in a vocational high school. Unpublished master's thesis, Chaoyang University of Technology, Taichchung, Taiwan.
[12] Hsiao, T. Y. (2002). Unidimensionality of the Chinese version of the foreign language reading anxiety scale. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *95*, 927-933.
[13] Hsu, Y. C. (2004). A study on junior college students' reading anxiety in English as a foreign language. Unpublished master's thesis, National Chung Cheng University, Chiayi, Taiwan.
[14] Huang, H. Y. (2001). Chinese university foreign language students' anxiety about reading in English. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Washington State University, Washington, The United States.
[15] Koda, K. (2007). Reading and language learning: Crosslinguistic constraints on second language reading development. *Language Learning*, *57*, 1-44.
[16] Li, C. N., & Thompson, S. (1989). Mandarin Chinese: A functional reference grammar. Berkeley: University of California Press, Ltd.
[17] Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System*, *32*(1), 21-37.
[18] Matsumura, Y. (2001). An inquiry into foreign language reading anxiety among Japanese EFL learners. *The Society of English Studies*, *31*, 23-38.
[19] Miyanaga, C. (2005). How reliable and valid is the adapted version of the foreign language reading anxiety scale (FLRAS) for Japanese university students? *Language and Culture*, *4*, 1-17.
[20] Odlin, T. (1989). Syntax. In *Language Transfer* (pp.85-110). New York: Cambridge University Press.
[21] Oh, J. (1992). The effects of L2 reading assessment methods on anxiety level. *TESOL Quarterly*, *26*(1), 172-176.
[22] Saito, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Garza, T. J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*(2), 202-218.
[23] Sellers, V. (2000). Anxiety and reading comprehension in Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, *33*(5), 512-521.
[24] Sun, Y. J. & Cong, Y. X. (2005). The study of nominalization acquisition in Chinese EFL learners. *China English Language Education Association Journal*, *28*(6), 89-94.
[25] Tsao, F. F. (1986). Relativization in Chinese and English: A contrastive study of form and function. *Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association*, *21*, 13-47.
[26] Xiao, Y. (2002). The syntactic development of school-age Chinese-speaking children learning English. *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *40*(3), 235-271.
[27] Yip, V., & Matthews, S. (2000). Syntactic transfer in a Cantonese-English bilingual child. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *3*(3), 193-208.
[28] Zhou, S. M. (2008). Study on the relationship between the reading anxiety and the reading strategy in foreign language learning. *Sino-US English Teaching*, *5*(3), 28-34.

Yu-Hsiu Liu received her Ph.D. in foreign, second, and multilingual language education from the School of Teaching and Learning, College of Education and Human Ecology at The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, U.S.A, in 2011. She obtained her masters' degree in TESOL from the Graduate School of Education at the University of Pennsylvania, U.S.A. She is now an assistant professor at De Lin Institute of Technology in Taiwan.

Keiko K. Samimy received her Ph.D. in second language acquisition and teaching from the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. Currently, she is a professor in foreign, second, and multilingual language education at The Ohio State University.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1370-1375, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1370-1375

Critical Thinking in Higher Education: A Pedagogical Look

Mansoor Fahim
Islamic Azad University— Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran
Email: dr.manfahim@yahoo.com

Nima Shakouri Masouleh
Islamic Azad University— Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran
Email: nima.shakouri2011@Gmail.com

***Abstract*—Many authorities in higher education did not enthusiastically embrace the idea that college students should receive explicit instruction in how to think. Note that the academic community was opposed to good thinking, but many educators believed that it was a misguided effort. For example, Glaser (1984) cited abundant evidence of Critical Thinking failures in support of his argument that thinking skills are context-bound and do not transfer across academic domains. Glaser and other sceptics were partly correct. Better thinking is not a necessary outcome of traditional, discipline-based instruction. But, increasingly global relationships of culture, people and economic activity make Critical Thinking as necessary as sunrise. This study attempted (1) to examine the predictive relationships of student dispositions and their abilities to think; and (2) to open a refreshed horizon in teaching students to develop their ability of Critical Thinking. Furthermore, the authors believed that to motivate students' disposition, it is indispensable for the teacher to scaffold them to think critically.**

***Index Terms*—critical thinking, disposition, critical pedagogy, Socratic questioning**

I. Introduction

Preparing students to be able to think critically is a goal of many professionals in higher education and also a quality sought by employers of university graduates. Students' ability to think critically has become a major concern among educators and psychologists as they try to study the factors influencing the acquisition of thinking skills. Therefore, Critical Thinking skill is considered an important variable in the process of students' learning. This study attempts to examine the predictive relationships of student dispositions and their abilities to think critically. The ability to think critically is important among students in higher education as the content of education at this level requires higher order thinking such as the ability to apply critical evaluation and give evidence for their opinions. Students seem satisfied with their initial interpretations of what they have read and seem genuinely puzzled at requests to explain or defend their point of view. As a result, responses to assessment items requiring explanations of criteria, analysis of texts or defense of a judgmental point of view were disappointing. Few students could provide more than superficial responses to such tasks, and even the "better" responses showed little evidence of well problem-solving or Critical Thinking skills. However, Critical Thinking is often seen as a universal goal of higher education. The writers see disposition of students to think critically as a prerequisite condition. Besides, providing the pedagogy of Critical Thinking, the writers attempted to provide the theoretical background of Critical Thinking.

II. Literature Review

A. Theoretical Background

The literature on Critical Thinking has roots in two academic disciplines: philosophy and psychology (Lewis & Smith, 1993). Sternberg (1986) has also noted a third Critical Thinking strand within the field of education (cited in Lai, 2011). These separate academic strands, as Lai (2011) claims, have developed different approaches to defining Critical Thinking from different perspectives: the philosophical approach, the cognitive psychological approach, and educational approach (Lai, 2011). The writings of Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and more recently, Matthew Lipman and Richard Paul, exemplify the philosophical approach. This approach focuses on the hypothetical critical thinker, enumerating the qualities and characteristics of this person rather than the behaviors or actions the critical thinker can perform. Those working within the philosophical tradition also emphasize qualities or standards of thought. For example, Bailin (2002) defines Critical Thinking as thinking of a particular quality— essentially good thinking that meets specified criteria or standards of adequacy and accuracy. Further, the philosophical approach has traditionally focused on the application of formal rules of logic. Two of the definitions of Critical Thinking emerged from the philosophical tradition include those proposed by McPeck (1981) and Ennis (1985) respectively: "the propensity and skill to engage in an activity with reflective

skepticism" (cited in Lai, 2011, p. 6) and "reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe to do" (cited in Lai, 2011, p.6). Conversely, the cognitive psychological approach, particularly those immersed in the behaviorist tradition and the experimental research paradigm, tend to focus on how people actually think versus how they could or should think under ideal conditions. Furthermore, rather defining Critical Thinking by pointing to characteristics of the ideal thinker or enumerating criteria or standards of good thought, those working in cognitive psychology tend to define Critical Thinking by the types of actions or behaviors critical thinkers can do; they more or less take a reductionist procedure. Typically, this approach to defining Critical Thinking includes a list of skills or procedures performed by critical thinkers (Lewis & Smith, 1993). The third approach to Critical Thinking is educational. Those working in the field of education have also participated in discussions about Critical Thinking. Benjamin Bloom and his associates, as Lai (2011) argues, are included in this category. Their taxonomy for information for information processing skills is one of the most widely cited sources for educational practitioners when it comes to teaching and assessing higher-order thinking skills. Bloom's taxonomy is hierarchical, with "comprehension" at the bottom and "evaluation" at the top. The three highest levels (analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) are frequently said to represent Critical Thinking (Kennedy, Fisher, & Ennis, 199, cited in Lai, 2011, p. 8).

B. What Is Critical Thinking?

What the Critical Thinking movement has emphasized is the idea that specific reasoning skills or strategies undergird the curriculum as a whole. In a sense, Critical Thinking refers to the use of cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. In fact, the idea of rationality is the corner stone of Critical Thinking. To Critical Thinking, the critical person is something like a critical consumer of information; he or she is driven to seek reasons and evidence. To do that, one must be mastered certain skills of thought in order to be able to scaffold his/her ideology. Halpern (1999) maintains, "The ability to judge the credibility of an information source has become an indispensable Critical Thinking skill that needs to be deliberately and repeatedly taught in college and earlier" (p. 71). Accordingly, Paul (1994) draws a distinction between weak and strong sense of Critical Thinking. For him, the former means that one has learned the skills, while the latter means that one has incorporated these skills into a way of living in which one's own assumptions are re-examined and questioned as well. Paul believes that, because Critical Thinking allows us to overcome the sway of our egocentric and sociocentric beliefs, "it is essential to our role as moral agents and as potential shapers of our own nature and destiny" (Paul 1990, p. 67). It goes without saying that Critical Thinking is considered to be as reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or to do; the assumption is that logical deciding usually leads to affective doing. Wood (2002) says Critical Thinking is the process of using reasoning to discern what is true, and what is false. Accordingly, Critical Thinking is seen as an essential skill for success in our society and has been heralded as a need in achieving our goals in most curriculum analyses.

C. Who Is a Critical Thinker?

There are lots of questions obsessing every intellectual mind: Why are some people better than others at solving problems and making decisions? Why are some people better than others at supporting their beliefs and actions with good reasons? The answers may seem obvious. Some people are cleverer than others. But is being clever enough? For the latter question, it seems some people have more knowledge or are more eloquent than others. Still, two equally intelligent people can be equally articulate and knowledgeable, but not be equally good thinkers. If only one of them is thinking critically, that one will be better at analyzing and evaluating facts and opinions, sources and claims, options and alternatives. Accordingly, Carroll (2004) maintains:

The critical thinker will be a better problem-solver and better decision-maker. When we're thinking critically, we're using our knowledge and intelligence effectively to arrive at the most reasonable and justifiable position possible. When we're thinking uncritically—no matter how intelligent or knowledgeable we are—we'll make unreasonable decisions and arrive at unreasonable beliefs or take unjustifiable actions, unless we are lucky and end up making the right choice for the wrong reasons! (p. 2)

Carroll (2004) further adds that a critical thinker is neither dogmatic nor gullible. The most distinctive features of the critical thinker's attitude are *open-mindedness* and *skepticism*. Being open-minded means being willing to examine issues from as many sides as possible, looking for the good and bad points of the various sides examined. In fact, critical thinker must cultivate a sense of healthy skepticism along with an ability to be open-minded, especially when considering viewpoints contrary to one's own. Critical Thinking does not mean being argumentative or being critical of others. However, too much skepticism leads to doubting everything and committing oneself to nothing; too little skepticism leads to gullibility. Ultimately, in order to function in the world, we have to accept the probability that at least some things are as they seem. This requires trust. If we can analyze clearly the basis of what we take as true, we are more able to discern when it is reasonable to be trusting and where it is useful to be sceptical. Ennis (1987) identified a range of dispositions and abilities associated with Critical Thinking. These focused on: the ability to reflect sceptically; and the ability to think in a reasoned way:

Scepticism in Critical Thinking means bringing an element of polite doubt. In this context, scepticism doesn't mean you must go through life never believing anything you hear and see. That would not be helpful. It does mean holding open the possibility that what you know at a given time may be only part of the picture. (cited in Cottrell, 2005, p.2)

Accordingly, Cottrell (2005) implies a Critical Thinking is a tool for a critical thinker to use scepticism and doubt constructively so that he/she can analyze what is before him/her.

D. Critical Thinking Development

Halpern (1998) proposes a four-part model of instruction for Critical Thinking. Not surprisingly, it includes two parts we have sparsely discussed—instruction in the *skills* and *dispositions* for Critical Thinking— but it also includes *structure training* and *metacognitive monitoring*. With structure training, students are taught to create retrieval cues from the structural aspects of a problem or an argument so that when these structural aspects are present in the novel context, they can serve as cues for retrieval. Metacognition is usually defined as "what we know about what we know." In fact, metacognitive monitoring is determining how we can use this knowledge to direct and improve the thinking and learning process. While engaging in Critical Thinking, students need to monitor their thinking process, checking that progress is being made toward an appropriate goal, ensuring accuracy, and making decisions about the use of time and mental effort. To enhance Critical Thinking, students need to develop the ability to critically evaluate the work of others (Cottrell, 2005).

E. Critical Pedagogy

In the language of Critical Pedagogy, the critical person is one who is empowered to seek justice, to seek emancipation. Not only is the critical person adept at recognizing injustice but, for Critical Pedagogy, that person is also moved to change it. Here Critical Pedagogy wholeheartedly takes up Marx's Thesis, that the philosophers have only interpreted the world, in various ways; the point, however, is to change it. For Paulo Freire (1985), Critical Pedagogy is concerned with the development of "critical consciousness" (cited in Monchinski, 2008, p. 4). Freedom, for Freire, begins with the recognition of a system of oppressive relations, and one's own place in that system. The task of Critical Pedagogy is to bring members of an oppressed group to a critical consciousness of their situation as a beginning point of their liberatory *praxis*. Praxis involves theorizing practice and practicing theory. Critical Pedagogy considers a continuous relationship between practice and theory which involves a constant give-and-take of practice by theory and theory by practice. As Freire (1985), eloquently notified, "Cut off from practice, theory becomes a simple verbalism and separated from theory, practice is nothing but blind activism" (cited in Mochinski, 2008, p. 2).

The very basic and fundamental aspect of Critical Pedagogy is the sharp and meticulous distinction which is made between the banking system of education and the problem-posing education. The banking system of education sees students as empty vessels waiting to be filled with information by knowledgeable teachers. Students are viewed as passive sponges waiting to soak up facts. Teachers in this model are viewed as "bank-clerks" who make deposits into empty students. The banking system of education is a mechanistic conception of education. It fits well with the assumptions of behaviorist learning theories (Monchinski, 2008). The two main characteristics of banking system of education could be defined as that the teacher knows everything and the student knows nothing and the teacher talks and the students listen. In fact, in a banking concept of education a "culture of silence" exists. In these classrooms students feel what they say isn't or won't be considered important. This may lead to the "mutism" where students in classrooms avoid dialogue in favor of becoming silent. Mutism and a culture of silence signify oppression and dehumanization in classrooms. On the other hand, as direct opposition to the banking system of education, problem posing education as one form of the realization of Critical Pedagogy in classroom context encourages Critical Thinking. One of the teachers' roles in a problem-posing education is to "problematize situations" by presenting to students situations with which they are familiar but in a way that make them thinking about those situations in new ways.

F. Critical Thinking and Critical Pedagogies

Critical Thinking and Critical Pedagogy share in two features: The concept of criticality and dialogical thinking. Criticality requires one to do something, whether that something refers to seeking reasons or seeking social justice. For Paulo Freire, criticality requires *praxis*—both reflection and action, both interpretation and change. As he puts, "Critical consciousness is brought about not through intellectual effort alone but through *praxis*— through the authentic union of action and reflection" (Freire 1970, 48).

Another feature that these two—critical theory and Critical Pedagogy— share is what Paul (1983) called 'dialogic thinking' which is inherent to Critical Thinking. Nevertheless, regarding Critical Pedagogy, the social dimension of dialogue is emphasized within Critical Pedagogy: dialogue occurs between people, not purely as a form of dialogical thought. Here again Critical Pedagogy focuses more upon relations between individuals, where Critical Thinking's focus is more on the individuals themselves. To better appreciate the concept of dialogue within Critical Pedagogy, let me put another way, being in contact with others is one absolute necessity for having a dialogue. This contact, of course, may indirectly involve others—the so called dialogic thinking. However, Vygotsky claims that the development of such capacities for individuals necessarily involves social interactions as well. Interaction is valued as a vehicle for developing, through mentoring, the Critical Thinking skills of students (Duffy, Dueber, & Hawley, 1998). Paul addresses this point, but it does not play the central role in his theory that it does for Freire and other Critical Pedagogues (Burbules & Berk, 1999). The method of Critical Pedagogy for Freire involves, to use his phrase, "reading the world" as well as "reading the word" (Freire & Macedo 1987). Dialogue is essential to the implementation of Critical Pedagogy in the everyday classroom. In fact, for dialogue to be a method of true knowledge, the knowing

subjects must approach reality scientifically in order to seek the dialectical connections which explain the form of reality. In this important regard, Burbules and Berk (1999) hold Critical Pedagogy and Critical Thinking arise from the same sentiment to overcome ignorance, to test the distorted against the true, to ground effective human action in an accurate sense of social reality.

G. Disposition and Critical Thinking

What kind of a person would be apt to use their Critical Thinking skills? The experts poetically describe such a person as having "a critical spirit." Spirit can be defined as "an inclination or tendency, mood or emotional state" (American Heritage® Dictionary, 2000). Spirits can denote a disposition, affect or frame of mind, i.e. in high or low spirits. Having a critical spirit does not mean that the person is always negative and hypercritical of everyone and everything. The experts use the metaphorical phrase critical spirit in a *positive* sense. By it they mean "a probing inquisitiveness, a keenness of mind, a zealous dedication to reason, and a hunger or eagerness for reliable information" (Facione, 2011, p. 10). Accordingly, Facione (1990) holds, "A critical spirit suggests a positive effect that transcends normal thinking and can assist us in transforming our thinking" (p. 13). Also, about the importance of disposition, Halpern (1999) claims:

It is not enough to teach college students the skills of Critical Thinking if they are not inclined to use them. Critical Thinking is more than the successful use of the right skill in an appropriate context. It is also an attitude or disposition to recognize when a skill is needed and the willingness to exert the mental effort to apply it. (p. 72)

Sears and Parsons (1991) call these dispositions the ethic of a critical thinker (cited in Halpen, 1999, p. 72). Accordingly, lazy or sloppy thinkers may have a large repertoire of Critical Thinking skills but not be inclined to use any of them. No one can develop expertise in any area without engaging in the effortful processes of thinking (Wagner, 1997, cited in Halpen, 1999). Thus we need to find ways to make students value good thinking and the work that is needed to achieve that goal.

Critical Thinking is best developed through an engagement with different areas of knowledge rather than as an autonomous skill to be taught in itself. However, teaching content and skills is of minor import if learners do not also develop the dispositions or inclination to look at the world through a critical lens (Burbules, & Berk, 1999). Thus, Critical Thinking in this way requires a critical person to have both the capacity and the disposition to seek reasons, truth and evidence. Dispositions, unlike skills, cannot be taught**;** they can only be cultivated through such activities as modeling (Reece, 2002). A Critical Thinking disposition suggests a mind frame or inclination to use Critical Thinking.

Critical thinking dispositions include a willingness to take a position and defend it, showing creativity, flexibility, perseverance, reflection, and maturity in judgments, and being truth-seeking, systematic, and showing maturity in judgments (Facione, 1990). These have also been described as critical thinking indicators which also includes self-awareness, genuineness, and being self-disciplined (Alfaro-LeFevre, 2004). Furthermore, Critical Thinking is dependent upon a person's disposition to use it (Paul, 1983). Disposition to think critically can be defined as consistent willingness, motivation, inclination and an intention to be engaged in Critical Thinking while reflecting on significant issues, making decisions and solving problems (Facione, Sanchez, Facione, & Gainen, 1995). According to Zoller, Ben-Chaim and Ron (2000), a student's disposition to think critically is a necessary pre-condition for Critical Thinking and greatly affects Critical Thinking capability. Experts continue to agree that Critical Thinking includes the dimensions of skill and disposition (Dewey 1933; Norris and Ennis, 1989).

Teaching students to think critically must include allowing them to come to their own conclusions. Implicitly, it is an obligation for a teacher to scaffold students in order that they he/she can provide an effective program for developing Critical Thinking which creates a culture of thinking in the classroom. To do that, (1) teachers' program should provide models of good reasoning behavior. The purpose of the models criterion is to make sure that students are provided with exemplars of what thinking dispositions look like in practice; (2) the program should also provide direct explanations about the purpose, concepts and methods of good reasoning. In other words, students should be told why good reasoning is important, and directly taught some key reasoning concepts and moves; (3) a program for teaching reasoning should provide plenty of opportunity for peer interaction around reasoning. These are interactions in which students reason together, discuss reasoning with one another, evaluate reasoning together, and so on. The purpose of this criterion is to bring the thinking disposition alive for the student by anchoring it in meaningful interpersonal interactions; and (4) last but certainly not least, the program should provide plenty of opportunities for formal and informal feedback around thinking dispositions. Through teacher feedback, peer feedback, and self feedback, students should learn about the strengths and weakness of their reasoning behavior. Furthermore, students must be brought to criticality, and this can only be done by alerting them to the social conditions that have brought this about. In short, we can restate the problem as follows: Critical Thinking's claim is, at heart, to teach how to think critically.

H. How to Enhance Students' Critical Thinking

All education consists of transmitting to students two different things: (1) what to think and (2) how to think. We do excellent job of the former; however, we have failed to teach students to think critically about the content presented to us (Schafersman, 1991). If we do not teach students how to think critically, we implicitly lead them to harmful thinking—notably, illogical thinking and emotional thinking. The former is realized as fallacious reasoning supported by inadequate or unreliable reasoning; and the latter, emotional thinking which relies on emotions to search for and

discover truth or knowledge. Critical Thinking involves that one rejects opinions and conjectures that have been shown to be wrong.

It is undisputable that children are not born with the power to think critically. It is a learned ability that must be taught. Humans are conditioned from birth to follow authority figures and not to question them as the goal of education is to instill traditional values like the respect for authority, perseverance, fidelity to duty, consideration of others and practicality. Such conditioning is done by parents and teachers using a wide variety of positive and negative reinforcement techniques. The result of such conditioning is in contrast with the thesis of both scientific investigation and Critical Thinking. To develop the ability of thinking critically, the following strategies are suggested: (1) *annotating*, which refers to underlining key word, writing comments, making questions in the margins, making notes of anything that strikes you as interesting, bracketing important parts, or highlighting the important parts; (2) *previewing* which helps one to have a preconception of what the text is about and how it is formatted. Thus, a critical thinker is suggested to skim the text and take a look at the pictures (if provided), titles of the passage to grasp a tacit understanding of the text; and (3) *contextualizing* that refers to the notion that when one reads a text, it is critical for him/her to read it from his/her lens. Thinking will be critical if the students provide a link between what is in their background and what is in the text. In effect, this implies the communicative perspective that meaning does not reside in the text but in the mind of the students. We believe these three strategies can be consolidated if they are accompanied by making Socratic questions on the part of students; and reinforcing the students to express their thoughts. At first steps, the role of a teacher, as a scaffolder in the classroom interaction, is pivotal. For learners to be taught to be critical thinkers, teachers should help them to voice their words; that is, letting them talk from their vantage points. Gradually, teachers can stick to the margin, and acts as a facilitator of the process of learning. Here, Socratic questioning is gradually instilled by teachers. Socratic questioning can be used to pursue thoughts in many directions and for many purposes, including: to explore complex ideas, to get to the truth of things, to open up issues and problems, etc. The art of Socratic questioning is intimately connected with Critical Thinking because the art of questioning is important to excellence of thought. What the word "Socratic" adds to the art of questioning is systematicity and depth in assessing the facts and opinions. Both Critical Thinking and Socratic questioning share a common end. Both are in their pursuit of meaning and truth. In a nutshell, in teaching, teachers can use Socratic questioning for at least two purposes : (1) to help students begin to distinguish what they know or what they do not know; (2) to foster students' abilities to ask Socratic questions, to help students acquire the powerful tools of Socratic dialogue, so that they can use these tools in everyday life. To this end, teachers can model the questioning strategies they want students to emulate and employ. In fact, Critical Thinking through the employment of Socratic questioning teaches students to dig beneath the surface of ideas. It teaches us the value of developing questioning minds in cultivating deep learning. In the same line, some of the Socratic questions that if cautiously employed will certainly help students develop their Critical Thinking are as follows: (1) getting students to clarify their thinking *e.g.*, 'Why do you say that?'; (2) challenging students about assumptions, *e.g.*, 'Is this always the case?'; (3) alternative viewpoints and perspectives, *e.g.*, 'What is the counter argument for?', and the most meticulous one (4) question the question *e.g.*, 'Why do you think that I asked that question?'

III. Conclusion

Critical Thinking is best understood as the ability of thinkers to take charge of their own thinking. This requires that they develop sound criteria and standards for analyzing and assessing their own thinking and routinely use those criteria and standards to improve its quality (Ellis, 1997). Along the same line, Critical Thinking is a valuable skill that, once learned, can be applied in many different disciplines; however, researchers have contended that having mere skills doesn't guarantee Critical Thinking. Critical Thinking is an attempt to make a distinction between facts and opinions. In fact, Critical Thinking is deciding rationally what to or what not to believe. Critical Thinking involves, in part, the attitude of being disposed. In fact, the research indicated that there is a need for both skills and dispositions in curriculum models. Dispositions require students to be internally motivated or better to say be scaffold by their teacher so that they can think critically. We believe educational and professional success require nurturing one's consistent internal willingness to think as well as developing one's thinking skills. To do this, the teacher must provide students with as many models, opportunities, exemplars, and explanations as possible in order to help them operationalize their skills. In fact, having mere skills in order to think critically is not enough. The teacher should find ways in order to make students willing and disposed to think critically. One way suggested in this paper has been to enhance students' Critical Thinking by the strategies of annotating, previewing and contextualizing that work effectively if accompanied by Socratic questioning.

References

[1] The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
[2] Bailin, S. (2002). Critical thinking and science education. *Science & Education, 11*(4), 361–375.
[3] Burbules, N., & Berk, R. (1999). Critical thinking and critical pedagogy. In T. S. Popewitz & L. Fender (Eds), *Critical theories in education* (pp. 45-66). New York: Routledge
[4] Carroll, R. T. (2004). Critical thinking. Retrieved in 2012, March, from http://www.scribd.com/doc/16426858/Critical-Thinking-Ch1-Drrobert-Todd-Carroll
[5] Cottrell, S. (2005). Critical thinking skills: Developing effective analysis and arguments. London: Palgrave Macmilian.

[6] Dewey, J. (1933). How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the education process. Boston: Heath.
[7] Duffy, T. M., Dueber, B., & Hawley, C. L. (1998). Critical thinking in a distributed environment: A pedagogical base for the design of conferencing. *CRLT Technical Report, 5* (98), 1-27
[8] Ellis, D (1997). Becoming a Master Student. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.
[9] Facione, P. A. (1990). Critical thinking: A statement of expert consensus for purposes of educational assessment and instruction. Millbrae, CA: The California Academic Press.
[10] Facione, P. A. (2011). Critical Thinking: Why it is and why it counts. Retrieved in 2012, March from www. insightassessment. com/content/download/1176/7580/
[11] Facione, P. A., Sanchez, C. A., Facione, N. C., & Gainen, J. (1995). The disposition toward critical thinking. *Journal of General Education, 44*(1), 1–25.
[12] Freire, P. (1970). Pedagogy of the oppressed. New York: Continuum.
[13] Freire, P &. Macedo, D. (1987). Literacy: Reading the word and the world. Westport, CA: Bergin & Garvey.
[14] Halpern, D. F. (1999). Teaching for critical thinking: Helping college students develop skills and dispositions of a critical thinker. *New Directions For Teaching And Learning, 80*, 69-74.
[15] Lai, E. R. (2011). Critical thinking: A literature review. Retrieved in 2012, March, from www.pearsons.com/hai/.../CriticalThinkingReviewFINA
[16] Lewis, A., & Smith, D. (1993). Defining higher order thinking. *Theory into Practice, 32*(3), 131–137. doi:10.1080/00405849309543588
[17] Monchinski, T. (2008). Critical pedagogy and the everyday classroom. Boston: Springer.
[18] Morrow, R. A., & Torres, C. A. (2002). Reading Freire and Habermas: Critical pedagogy and transformative social change. New York: Teachers College Press.
[19] Norris, S. P. (1985). Synthesis of research on critical thinking. *Educational Leadership. 42* (8), 40-45.
[20] Norris, S. P., Ennis, R. H. (1989). Evaluating critical thinking. Teaching thinking. R. J. S. D. N. Perkins. Pacific Grove, CA: Midwest Publications.
[21] Paul, R. (1983). An agenda item for the informal logic / critical thinking movement. *Informal Logic Newsletter*, 5 (2), 23.
[22] Paul, R. (1990). Critical Thinking: What Every Person Needs to Survive in a Rapidly Changing World. Rohnert Park, CA: Center for Critical Thinking and Moral Critique.
[23] Paul, R. (1994). Teaching critical thinking in the strong sense. In S. K. Wlaters (Ed), *Re-Thinking Reason: New Perspectives in Critical Thinking (pp. 181-198).* Albany: SUNY Press.
[24] Reece, G. (2002). Critical thinking and transferability: A review of literature. Retrieved in 2011 from www.library.american.edu/.../critical_thinking.pdf
[25] Schafersman, S. D. (1991). An introduction to critical thinking. Retrieved in 2012, April, from facultycenter. ischool.syr.edu /wp-content/uploads/...
[26] Wood, R. (2002). Critical thinking. Retrieved in 2012 from ttp://www.robinwood.com/Democracy/ GeneralEssays/ CriticalThinking
[27] Zoller, U., Ben-Chaim, D. and Ron, S. (2000). The disposition toward critical thinking of high school and university science students: An inter-intra Israeli-Italian study. *International Journal of Science Education 22* (6), 571-582.

Mansoor Fahim was a member of the faculty of English Language and Literature at Allameh Tabataba'i University in Tehran, Iran from 1981 to 2008 when he was retired as an associate professor of TEFL. He has taught English at a welter of universities. At present, he runs Research methods, Psycholinguistics, Applied Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition, and Seminar classes at M.A. level and First Language Acquisition, Psycholinguistics, and Discourse Analysis courses at Ph.D. level at a number of universities including Allameh Tabataba'i and Islamic Azad Universities. Moreover, he has several published articles and books mostly in the field of TEFL and has translated some books into Farsi. Dr. Fahim is currently a member of the editorial board of some Iranian journals of Applied Linguistic Studies.

Nima Shakouri Masouleh is currently a Ph.D. candidate of TEFL at Azad University, Science and Research, Tehran, Iran. He is also a faculty member of Islamic Azad University, in Guilan. He has taught English courses for over a decade at different universities in Guilan. Moreover, he has some published articles and books.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1376-1386, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1376-1386

Probe into Translation Process Based on Think-aloud Protocols

Yali Zhou
College of Foreign Languages & Literature, Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou, Gansu, 730070, China
Email: zhouyali2009@gmail.com

Yan Lin
College of Foreign Languages & Literature, Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou, Gansu, 730070, China
Email: linyan406@163.com

***Abstract*—This paper tries to explore the translation process of the students translator while translating. Psycholinguistically-oriented thinking-aloud method is used to collect data from self-reports protocols. It is found that there exist four phrases (preparation, incubation, illumination and evaluation) both in English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation process. The participants do fairly well in E-C translation than in C-E translation. Translation scores vary with the change of the translation tasks (E-C or C-E) and also with the growth of university grades. As far as translation strategies are concerned, they are more likely to employ strategies in the incubation and illumination phrases. Fewer strategies are applied in the preparation phrase and hardly any strategies used in the evaluation phrase. There were significant differences on the strategy use of the participants from two grades in the incubation and the evaluation phases.**

***Index Terms*—translation process, psycholinguistic process, think-aloud protocols**

I. Introduction

A. Background

Since 1980s, translation studies has matured as an independent discipline which bring many other disciplines together, such as linguistics, philosophy, information science, cognitive science, culture studies and the like. The discussion of fidelity versus liberty, pursuit of translation techniques and translation equivalence had always been the hot issues in traditional translation studies. Nowadays, translation studies begin to attach importance to the study of translation process in order to unveil the 'black box' of translators. However, those theoretical models of equivalence are prescriptive rather than descriptive, which concentrate on speculative idealization rather than empirical description based on actually occurring data. Against such background, there appears psycholinguistically-oriented thinking-aloud method, which studies translation process based on self-report protocols.

From Lǒrscher's point of view, there are three important reasons for the empirical investigation of the translation process:

As far as the psycholinguistic investigation of translation is concerned, it can be expected that only on the basis of empirical studies of translation behavior using a process-analytical approach can hypotheses on what goes on in the translator's head be formed. Thus, light could be shed on translation as a psychological process that is still largely unknown and uninvestigated. As far as psycholinguistic investigation in general is concerned, it can be expected that empirical studies of translation behavior will yield general insights into language processing, about aspects of the mental processes of speech reception and speech production and about the mental strategies employed by the language user. As far as the teaching of translation is concerned, it should be possible to make use of knowledge of the translation process for teaching translation. If certain translation strategies turn out to be successful, it might be worth considering teaching these strategies in one way or another (Lǒrscher, 1991).

B. Objective of Research

As the main concern of the present study, the translation process should be clarified beforehand. Most psychologists use a four phase model of the creative process to get a clearer view of the complex activities going on in the human mind. These phases were first distinguished in 1913 by Poincaré who described them as preparation, incubation, illumination and evaluation. They will be referred to later experiment to describe the mental processes which take place in such creative translation of the participants.

An idea should been kept in mind that the phases do not simply follow each other in a sequence. They come in loops and some of them are gone through repeatedly. Therefore, illumination appears to be closely connected with evaluation. While carrying out the experiment on translation process based on think-aloud protocols of twenty translation majors in China, the translation process can be categorized into these four phases and the data then been collected for the sake of analysis. The participants under this study are college-level translation majors from Grade Two and Grade Four. The

data collected from the experiment are then coded according the rules designed before-hand. Combined with questionnaires and interviews, the coded data are analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively, using the software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS15.0), intending to explain the translation process of the student translators. This study will contribute to the training of translators and translation teaching.

C. Research Questions

The present study will answer the following questions:

- How about the phases of translation process while dealing with English-Chinese and Chinese-English tasks?
- How about the distribution of the translation strategies in those phases of translation process?
- What is the difference between different participants with the change of the translation tasks?

II. Literature Review

A. Review of Translation Process Model Abroad

The following parts will go over some major studies of translation process in order to show the importance of translation process investigation.

Eugene Nida (1964) developed a model based on human communication theory. The translator is defined as a communicator who is involved in written communication. James S. Holmes (1978) presented a two-map two-plane text-rank translation model. Holmes' model is a further step forward, yet his model is still based on linguistic schemata, leaving the mental processing untouched. In 1983, four papers, perhaps the pioneer research on the process of translation, appeared in *Transfer and Translation in Language Learning and Teaching* edited by Franz Eppert. Then new forward step was made by Roger. T. Bell (1991) who reported his study on the mental process of translation providing an information model benefited from cognitive science. This is an exact exemplification of the psycholinguistic model, which comprises ten subprocesses of translation.

In 1991, Wolfgang carried out the project to reconstruct translation strategies that underlying translation behavior, operate within the translation process. Wilss first expounded on the relationship between cognitive psychology and translation and pointed out 'a chain of mental operations in which processes of analysis, interpretation, comparison, analogy, inference, weighing of possibilities, planning, combining, etc. are interactively united' (Wilss, 1996). And such cognitive approach to the translation process includes various operational concepts such as action, behavior, problem-solving, decision-making, creativity, intuition, strategies, methods, techniques, and routines of translation.

B. Review of Translation Process Model in China

There exists no scholar in China who has presented a systematic study on the process of translation to the knowledge of the present researcher. In describing the translation process, Chinese traditional translation theorists would divide the process into two or three stages. Some theorists speaking for two-stage model are Jin Zhang (1987) who conceived the models of literary translation process; Hongyin Wang (1989) proposed holistic model and Zhongying Fan (1994). The representative scholars who divide the translation process into three stages are Peiji Zhang (1980), Suru Shen (1982) and Ping Ke (1998).

Qiuxia Jiang (2000) offered a simplified diagram about the model of literary translation to explore the aesthetic process in the literary translation. Yunxing Li (2001) also provides a model of the translation process seen as a cross-cultural communicative activity. These models provide an overall description of the translation process with respect to its stages carried on by the translator. This description is general, broad, and simple. There could have been subprocesses that are further analyzed under each stage.

C. Review of Translation Process Based on TAPs Abroad

Since the mid-1980s investigations on translation process analysis based on think-aloud protocols to tap and map the translator's mind have flourished (Krings, 1986; Séguinot, 1989; Tirkkonnen-Condit, 1991). They observed the practical performance patterns of novice and expert translators in training programs, attempting to make a detailed psycholinguistic description of translators. As Fraser (1996) concludes that 'translation process studies have, in fact, relatively little in common and present very different pictures of the translation process they all set out to investigate.' More investigations carried out by Fraser (2000), Jääskeläinen (2000), Séguinot (2000) and Tirkkonen-Condit (2000) have paid much attention on the performance of expert translators, methodological issues about TAPs application, cognitive management and decision making during translation process.

In fact, there still exist differences in choosing concurrent or retrospective TAPs. Hansen (1999) preferred the retrospective verbal protocols while Jakobsen (2002) supported the concurrent TAPs. Alves (1997) and Alves & Gonçalves (2003) suggested the retrospective TAPs can be better than concurrent TAPs concerning the empirical data collection so as to tap into the translation process. Olk (2002) studied critical language awareness applying the technique to reveal translators' construction of discourse. Investigations on the translation process continued with using technological tools and observing translators' performance traits online (Hansen, 1999; Jakobsen & Schou, 1999), even the electronic treatment of translation product (Laviosa, 1998; Ghadessy et al., 2001).

With the development of triangulation used in Social Sciences, Alves (2001) proposes a different type of data

elicitation techniques in order to reveal the relationship between translation process and product. This method is also preferred by the TRAP group from the Copenhagen Business School (Hansen, 2002) and particularly by Jakobsen (2002). CORPRAT (Corpus on Process for the Analysis of Translations) suggested the work on the cognitive performance of translators be carried out through the triangulation of data elicitation techniques (TAPs, Translog, Wordsmith Tools, etc.) while using small corpora in an attempt to map the process-product interface in translation.

D. Review of Translation Process Based on TAPs in China

Suhua Jiang (1998) first emphasizes the significance of studying translation process and introduced think-aloud introspective experimental method. Mengzhi Fang (1999) examined how the translator performs in the translation process via self-accomplishment, self-manifestation and self-realization. Jingquan Wu (1999) stated that studies on the translator and his psychological change should be emphasized. Yicheng Wu (2000) has done research on cognitive psychology and translation. In the same year, Hansong Cai stressed the great importance of research into translating process and briefly discussed the origin and classification of verbal protocols. Another scholar Zhiping Song (2006) suggested that TAPs could be applied to search into psychological model of translation studies.

In 2002, Jv Miao adopted a descriptive, comprehensive and systematic methodology to describe the translation process and translator through observations and analysis of phenomena. Eventually, a macroscopic and communicational translation model is proposed by her. Such researches on translation process can be seen in Dechao Li (2005), Jun Wen (2005, 2006) and Yushan Zhao (2010). Binghan Zheng (2006, 2008) introduced the Triangulation Module, which mainly consists of TAPs and Translog technique, is an up-to-date ideal method in the process-oriented translation studies. Junxia Dai (2009) made a review on the tapping translation process by applying the theory and method in psychology.

Sisi Zhou (2010), Xichan Tian (2010) and Juan Shen (2011) also gave the detailed explanation about the application of TAPs, which might push forward the empirical studies in translation field. Lina Deng (2007) made an account of the TAPs and went on to illustrate the operation procedure in detail, offering a comprehensive analysis of the major variables of TAP and raising hypotheses with respect to the TAP. Binghan Zheng (2007), Lina Deng (2007), Rong Yang (2009), Qiulan Zhai (2009), Fangyan Wan (2010) and Xinxin Tan (2011) conducted the empirical studied on translation units during the translating process by the analysis of TAPs.

It is clear that Chinese scholars have done adequate research on the translation process. Yet mapping the process-product interface in translation has been a long-time challenge for researchers in the field.

III. METHODOLOGY

In recent years, the study of the translation has apparently moved from prescriptive attitude to more descriptive, scientific stances among which think-aloud method is often utilized by researcher. Except some shortcomings in terms of the methodology, this method remains valid means of accessing something of the translator's thought process, throwing light on how translators solve problems and make decisions while translating.

A. Experimental Participants

With the aim of presenting the actual process of translation, the translation major students will be selected for the present protocols who has acquired a certain amount of translation competence but who faces nevertheless still a number of problems when training (More details in Table 1).

TABLE 1
BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

No.	Grade	Original Score / Group	First Name	Sex	Age	Code Name	English Study	Translation Study
P1	Four	89/ A	Chen	F	22y	4A1	10.5y	2.5 y
P2	Four	88/ A	Zhou	F	22y	4A2	10.5y	2.5 y
P3	Four	84/ A	Li	F	21y	4A3	9.5y	2.5 y
P4	Four	86/ A	Jing	F	21y	4A4	9.5y	2.5 y
P5	Four	85/ A	Song	F	23y	4A5	11.5y	2.5 y
P6	Four	72/ B	Shi	F	22y	4B1	10.5y	2.5 y
P7	Four	71/ B	Zhang	M	22y	4B2	10.5y	2.5 y
P8	Four	73/ B	Li	M	22y	4B3	10.5y	2.5 y
P9	Four	75/ B	Zhao	F	23y	4B4	11.5y	2.5 y
P10	Four	74/ B	Ying	M	22y	4B5	10.5y	2.5 y
P11	Two	89/ A	Wang	F	21y	2A1	8.5y	0.5y
P12	Two	82/ A	Liu	M	22y	2A2	9.5y	0.5y
P13	Two	80/ A	Wang	M	22y	2A3	9.5y	0.5y
P14	Two	84/ A	Yang	F	21y	2A4	8.5y	0.5y
P15	Two	78/ A	Li	F	21y	2A5	8.5y	0.5y
P16	Two	69/ B	Jiang	F	20y	2B1	7.5y	0.5y
P17	Two	68/ B	Dong	F	20y	2B2	7.5y	0.5y
P18	Two	69/ B	Hu	M	19y	2B3	7.5y	0.5y
P19	Two	68/ B	Wu	M	22y	2B4	9.5y	0.5y
P20	Two	69/ B	Yan	M	22y	2B5	9.5y	0.5y

Note: P ---Participant A---High- Score Group B--- Low- Score Group Y---year
4A1----the first participant in high-score group from Grade Four
2B5--- the last participant in low-score group from Grade Two

B. Experimental Materials

TABLE 2
BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL MATERIALS

Code Name	Degree of Difficulty	Title of ST	SL	Author	TL	Title of TT	Translator
Text One (T1)	Easy	My Mother's Gift	English	Suzanne Chazin	Chinese	母亲的礼物	Jianhua Jiang
Text Two (T2)	Difficult	Slavery gave me nothing to lose	English	Zora Neale urston	Chinese	黑奴的历史对我有什么损失	Degao Ma
Text Three (T3)	Easy	普通人的新年	Chinese	Weiwei Zhu	English	Spring Festival for Ordinary People	Zuchun Ju
Text Four (T4)	Difficult	寂寞	Chinese	Qiuning Chen	English	Solitude	Zuchun Ju

Note: T1---Easy E-C Translation T2--- Difficult E-C Translation T3--- Easy C-E Translation T4---- Difficult C-E Translation
ST---Source Text SL---Source Language TL--- Target Language TT---Target Text

These texts have been evaluated by both students and teachers to make sure that they must contain a sufficient number of translation problems so that a sufficient number of problem-solving strategies may be revealed. Therefore, from the foregoing discussion, it follows that selection of the texts is not an easy job which based on the subjective impression of the students or exactly the teachers' judgment about the degree of difficulty of the texts selected. In addition, ten English majors were randomly selected for the think-aloud translating task of all these texts. Thus, the enough time restriction was found: one hour for each text.

C. Experimental Tools

An audio-record device was employed to record the words either in English or Chinese uttered by the subjects. Furthermore, two cameramen carried their video cameras to give a shot of the whole experiment process, which facilitate a more detailed analysis for these various processing activities. Five assistants of the researcher paid close attention to each subject and took observation notes carefully and clear some doubts with the participants after the translating tasks. The rating scale of translation product is adopted from *Practice Tests and Lectures for English Majors (Grade Eight)* edited by Yanhua Zhu, which is supposed to show the quality of the translation in detail. There are two types of post-translating questionnaires, one for English-Chinese translation; the other for Chinese-English translation, each of them consists of two parts. The interview was designed to explore the translating habits of the participants. The Tapes of the interview were also transcribed to be the aid methods to the present study.

D. Experimental Procedures

Due to the limits of devices, place and manpower, the experiment was carried out in eight different times. After the think-aloud protocols training, the subjects are instructed to verbalize all the thoughts that occurred to them while translating.

TABLE 3
INFORMATION ABOUT EXPERIMENT

time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Participants	4A1-4A5	4B1-4B5	2A1-2A5	2B1-2B5	4A1-4A5	4B1-4B5	2A1-2A5	2B1-2B5
Texts	T1, T2	T1 ,T2	T1, T2	T1, T2	T3 , T4	T3, T4	T3, T4	T3, T4

After translating, the questionnaires and interview were carried out by researchers so as to attain in-depth discussion of the findings. The data collected from the experiment fall into two main categories, namely the translation products and the think-aloud protocols. Each of the translation products was rated by two teachers, and the final score was the average of the two scores given by the experienced teachers. The intersubjective validity of the score is 0.8964. Then, the scores were kept for the consequent data analysis. The researcher transcribed the exact words of the think-aloud protocol, marked the time span of the pauses and the phrases of translation processes. The quantitative analysis of the data in this research was implemented by SPSS (15.0). Software of Word 2007 and Excel 2007 were applied to calculate some minor problems in data analysis.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. The Reliability and Validity of the Data

The present study is based on think-aloud protocol, so the reliability and validity of this method should be conformed first. The information gotten from the twenty participants showed that the think-aloud method did not interfere them very much. Most of them finished the translation tasks within the limited time (one hour for each text). As for the noticeable pause, all these subjects kept silent less than 20% of the whole translating time, and the average percentage of their pause is 9.5% of their translating task (just for one text). This meant each subject's thought elicited was sufficient for the think-aloud protocol and available for analysis, and on average, more than 90% of the subjects' thought could be captured and analyzed for the study. Table 4 showed the time consumed and pause periods and their percentage of the whole translating time of each participant. In view of the space consideration and the large scale of experiment data, only the task fulfillment of text one of the twenty subjects was revealed here.

TABLE 4
A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE TWENTY SUBJECTS' TASK FULFILLMENT OF TEXT ONE

Participant	Time (min)	Pause (min)	Percentage
4A1	50	3.2	6.4%
4A2	37	2.13	5.8%
4A3	23	2.15	9.3%
4A4	49	5.1	10.4%
4A5	33	3.9	11.9%
4B1	30	5.45	18.2%
4B2	26	2.1	8.1%
4B3	38	2.48	6.5%
4B4	50	7.47	14.9%
4B5	30	3.8	12.67%
2A1	26	1.37	5.3%
2A2	48	5.7	11.9%
2A3	34	6.07	17.8%
2A4	28	2.7	9.6%
2A5	41	1.88	4.6%
2B1	36	2.18	6.1%
2B2	29	2.65	9.1%
2B3	38	1.05	2.8%
2B4	33	3.43	10.4%
2B5	50	4.9	9.8%
Average	36	3.49	9.5%

In responding to question one about the percentage of thought they uttered, 50% of the subjects chose "B" (above 70%) in questionnaire one (English-Chinese translation); 40% of the subjects chose "B" (above 70%) in questionnaire two (Chinese---English translation). It could be argued that the majority of the subjects' self-estimated percentage of thought uttered is above 70%, which is consistent to the previous discussion.

As for question two about the degree of the influence of the translating aloud method, 40% of the subjects chose "B" (much) in questionnaire one (English-Chinese translation); 30% of the subjects chose "B" (much) and 25% of the subjects chose "D" (a slight) in questionnaire two (Chinese---English translation). It is interesting to say that the majority of the subjects feel the translating aloud method has some, but not great, influence on their translating especially in English-Chinese translation. Meanwhile, some subjects felt that thinking-aloud has a slight influence on their translating process in Chinese-English translation.

The reason for such results is obvious: most subjects usually translate with silent thinking, when being asked to translating aloud, they would make overt verbalization, which was fresh and different from their previous practice, therefore, they could sense the influence. When it comes to Chinese---English translation, five subjects were

interviewed after the experiment. Three of them considered C-E translation more difficult than E-C translation. They had to ponder over it again and again, thus there exists no great difference between silent translating and translating aloud. Two were found to have the habit of talking while learning, both in writing, reading and translating. Ericsson and Simon's (1979) study showed that think-aloud method interferes very little with task performance if the probe requires reporting on normally available verbal information. However, overt verbalization may slow down task performance and may facilitate memory retrieval and storage.

With respect to the third question concerning whether or not could they be able to finish the translating task within the fixed time, 45% of the subjects chose "B" (often) in first questionnaire (English-Chinese translation). And 40% of the subjects also chose "B" (often) in second questionnaire (Chinese-English translation). It can be concluded that the majority of the subjects self-estimated that they had a good control over time consuming while translating, which is consistent to the previous discussion.

TABLE 5
TWENTY PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE (NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS / PERCENTAGE)

	A--Ⅱ-Q1	B--Ⅱ--Q1	A--Ⅱ--Q2	B---Ⅱ--Q2	A--Ⅱ--Q3	B---Ⅱ--Q3
A	1 (5%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)	4 (20%)	4 (20%)	6 (30%)
B	10 (50%)	8 (40%)	8 (40%)	6 (30%)	9 (45%)	8 (40%)
C	4 (20%)	6 (30%)	5 (25%)	4 (20%)	5 (25%)	6 (30%)
D	4 (20%)	4 (20%)	4 (20%)	5 (25%)	2 (10%)	0 (0%)
E	1 (5%)	2 (10%)	2 (10%)	1 (5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Note: A-E refers to the five choices of each question. A---Questionnaire A B--- Questionnaire B
Ⅱ---the second part of each questionnaire Q1---the first question Q2---the second question Q3---the third question
a--Ⅱ-Q1 refers to the answer of the first question in the second part of Questionnaire a.

To sum up, the participants fulfilled the translating tasks within the required time and produced the appropriate product. The pause periods were less than 20% of the total translating time and each pause lasted no more than twenty seconds. The majority of the subjects felt the think-aloud method did not great influence their translating process. Consequently, the think-aloud protocol is reliable and can be employed as the base of the data analysis.

B. The Coding of the Think-aloud Protocols

1. Strategy Indicators

The think-aloud protocols originated from the experiment are surprisingly large. The transcripts of all subjects concerning four texts cover about almost 250 fully written pages. It took the researcher approximately two months to code all of them. It is evident that the more transcripts are there, the more successes lie in the present study.

All recording were later transcribed verbatim into protocols. But before the TAPs could be processed, the strategy indicators proposed by Kiraly (1997) should first be clarified. It is expected that to what extent Chinese student translators are different from German student translators. Some different strategies employed by Chinese non-professional translators (the translation major students) are added into Kiraly's translation strategy list, ie. interim selection, postpone attempt, tentative solution, read ST segment, self-correction and whole ST reading.

2. Protocols Analyses

First of all, for the sake of the standardization of TAPs analysis, the analysis rules of the protocols are displayed in Table 6:

TABLE 6
THE ANALYSIS RULES OF THE THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL

Token	denotes	Example
S1---S26	strategy indicators (symbols)	premeasured……查字典, S8
S10	invalid strategy indicators	好像是逗号的意思，对，是逗号 *S10*
（1-10 s）	the amount of seconds used for pause	casually share with……（3s）
{ }	a translation segment on the basis of problem-solving	{ Look back on 什么意思? ……(5s) S7 L2 查一下字典 S8 ……（8s） look back on 回顾 S1 …(4s) 自己的过去 S19 S1，}
……	pauses	要品味生活……品味生活并不是在预先
???	Inaudible utterance	Over peanut-butter ??? ……

The strategies being categorized into the first phase (preparation), which has been mentioned in Kiraly's strategies and new strategies identified in the present study, were S7, S17, S24, and S26. Consequently, S2, S6, S8, S12, S14, S19, S20, and S22 were classified into the second phase of translating process---the incubation phase. And the third one---illumination phase consists of S1, S4, S5, S10, S13, S15, S21, and S23. It is obvious that the preparatory phase involves conscious mental activities, that an awareness of purpose is important here. It will be seen that cognition not only plays an important part in the preparatory phase but also in the evaluative phase, which includes the above-mentioned strategies: S3, S9, S11, S16, S18 and S25. We shall see that the four phases are, in fact, only a construct, and that these phases are actually often simultaneous. For the sake of the following quantitative analysis to do further exploration of those strategies, the number of the four phases of each participants while translating the four different texts were clarified and kept in order.

3. The Basic Statistics

And the total number of the strategies as well as their distribution in the four phases of translating process should also been counted. Table 7 shows the basic statistics obtained from the first translation text (T1) protocols produced by the participant (4A1). Such statistics of the rest participants with all the other texts are kept carefully for further quantitative analysis in the next section (the similar eighty tables like table 7). As was pointed out at the beginning of this part, translation strategies are the first category of analysis in this study. It goes without saying that noting them is only important for what they reveal of the translation processes of the translators, whether professional or non-professional.

TABLE 7
EXAMPLE OF THE BASIC STATISTICS OBTAINED FROM THE PROTOCOLS

Strategy	Frequency	Ph Ⅰ	Ph Ⅱ	PhⅢ	PhⅣ
S1	19			√	
S2	3		√		
S3	0				√
S4	2			√	
S5	0			√	
S6	5		√		
S7	22	√			
S8	8		√		
S9	1				√
S10	8			√	
S11	9				√
S12	1		√		
S13	3			√	
S14	0		√		
S15	0			√	
S16	0				√
S17	1	√			
S18	3				√
S19	15		√		
S20	3		√		
S21	4			√	
S22	2		√		
S23	1			√	
S24	12	√			
S25	4				√
S26	1	√			
Total	127	36	37	37	17

Note: S1-S26 translation strategies √ ---the strategy distribution in the four phases
Ph Ⅰ ---the preparation stage of translation process Ph Ⅱ ---the incubation stage of translation process
PhⅢ---the illumination stage of translation process PhⅣ---the evaluation stage of translation process

So far, the data collected from the experiment has been described and primarily processed with regard to the mental activities which the first clues to the analysis of the translation process. Although the above mentioned description is just a typical examples for one subject, one text, the whole data about twenty subjects of four texts have been carefully dealt with by the researcher. Of course, the observation notes supplied by the experiment assistants also played an important role in this qualitative analysis.

As the above data show, the translation process is characterized by phases in which the participants transfer SL text into TL text without any problems, and by phases in which the participants are faced with problems and which thus call for strategies, i.e. problem-solving procedures. As the data shows, these strategies are obviously not isolated from each other. Instead, they could be combined into four phase according to the translating process. The qualitative analyses alone have yielded the data of the distribution of these strategies in the four phases. As to the first phase, the most occurred strategies were S24, that is, the participants receive the ST by reading it. Regarding the second phase, S8 was applied again and again for the participants to consult a dictionary, searching a equivalence of a word, phrase, structure etc. As for the third phase, S1 and S10 were employed more frequently because the participants often produce the TT guarded by interim solution or judgment. When it comes to the last phase, few participants use the evaluating or monitoring strategies. When someone felt uncertain about the acceptability of the translation product, (S18 being applied), maybe he/she corrected it (S25), otherwise they just let it to be.

C. Data Analysis

Chi-Square Tests on strategies in four phases employed by participants of different grades and groups revealed the following results.

TABLE 8
CHI-SQUARE TESTS OF THE STRATEGIES IN FOUR PHASES.

		Value (χ^2)	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Ph Ⅰ	Grade Two	1.604	1	.205
	Grade Four	17.377	1	.000*
Ph Ⅱ	Grade Two	17.605	1	.000*
	Grade Four	5.471	1	.019*
PhⅢ	Grade Two	43.831	1	.000*
	Grade Four	1.084	1	.298
PhⅣ	Grade Two	7.302	1	.007*
	Grade Four	8.274	1	.004*

* $p < 0.05$

In the first phase (preparation), strategies use on the high-score and low-score groups of second-year students reached no significance and strategies use on the high-score and low-score groups of fourth-year students reached significance. That was to say, the participant of grade two all had no particular strategies so as to receive the ST. Yet, the participants in grade four had a good of receiving ST with some special strategies, such as reading the whole passage or segment of the ST. The high-score of grade four understand the ST intuitively by their cognitive frame. In phase two (incubation), strategies use on the high-score and low-score groups of second-year students reached significance and so did fourth-year students. Both high-score groups of grade two and grade four made full preparation for the production of ST since they knew that translation task was problem-guarded while low-score groups made little even no preparation for it, not knowing what to do next. In phase three (illumination), strategies use on the high-score and low-score groups of second-year students reached significance and strategies use on the high-score and low-score groups of fourth-year students reached no significance. Because the more knowledge they learned about the compare with two languages, the less determined they would be in the illumination part. In phase four (evaluation), strategies use on the high-low score groups of second-year students reached significance and so did fourth-year students. Only the high-score group of both grades had the awareness of evaluating their translation products. The low-score participants just finished the translating stage, then hand the products in without any delay. They have not any habit to make the product evaluated.

Table 9 was a descriptive frequency analysis of the strategy distribution in the four phases during the whole translating process.

TABLE 9
FREQUENCY ANALYSIS OF THE STRATEGIES IN FOUR PHASES

Phase Ⅰ	Frequency	Percent	Phase Ⅱ	Frequency	Percent
Valid .00	670	43.7	Valid .00	60	3.9
1.00	864	56.3	1.00	1474	96.1
Total	1534	100.0	Total	1534	100.0
Phase Ⅲ	Frequency	Percent	Phase Ⅳ	Frequency	Percent
Valid .00	195	12.7	Valid .00	1199	78.2
1.00	1339	87.3	1.00	335	21.8
Total	1534	100.0	Total	1534	100.0

In the first phase (preparation), the participants employed strategies for 1534 times, among which 56.3% (864) was valid. In phase two (incubation), the participants employed strategies for 1534 times, among which 96.1% (1474) was valid. In phase three (illumination), the participants employed strategies for 1534 times, among which 87.3% (1339) was valid. In phase four (evaluation), the participants employed strategies for 1534 times, among which 21.8% (335) was valid. Judged by these data, it can be concluded that the participants were more likely to employ strategies in the second and third phases. They had little trouble in comprehending the ST and no awareness to evaluate their translation products. Thus, more attention was attracted to the incubation and illumination stages. The translation task was a kind of purposed problem-solving activities. Therefore, they made many efforts to the second and third phases. Neglecting the first phase might cause the omission of the original information of the ST. And the ignoring of the last phase meant there was no monitoring to the TT production. Their translation competence had not reached the highest peak.

V. CONCLUSIONS

A. Major Findings

Findings below are based on the analysis of the think-aloud protocols and the answers to post-translating questionnaires of the twenty Chinese college level translation majors under the present study.

There exist four phases: preparation, incubation, illumination and evaluation both in English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation processes. The participants were more likely to employ strategies in the second (incubation) and the third phases (illumination). They had little trouble in comprehending the ST in the first phase (preparation) and no awareness to evaluate their translation products in the last phase (evaluation). There were significant differences on the strategy use of the high-level and low-level participants in the second phase (incubation) and the fourth phase (evaluation).

In the first phase (preparation), strategies use on the L_h and L_l groups of participants reached no significance, while strategies use on the H_h and H_l groups reached significance. In phase three (illumination), strategies use on the L_h and L_l groups of participants reached significance and strategies use on the H_h and H_l groups reached no significance. In phase two (incubation) and phase four (evaluation), strategies use on the H_h and H_l; L_h and L_l groups reached significance.

The participant employed the strategy of "Monitor for TL accuracy"; "Self-correction" more in E-C translation tasks than in C-E translation tasks. On the other hand, the participant employed the strategy "Accept interim solution"; "Identify problem"; "SL-TL dictionary search"; "Make intuitive acceptability judgment"; and "Rephrase ST Segment" more frequent in C-E translation tasks than in E-C translation tasks. "Employ mnemonic aid"; "Identify problem"; "SL-TL dictionary search"; "Make intuitive acceptability judgment" and "Self-correction" more frequent in easy translation tasks than in difficult translation tasks. On the other hand, the strategy of "Accept interim solution" and "Uncontrolled interim unit production" was employed more frequent in the difficult translation tasks than in the easy translation tasks.

Concerning the testing materials of T1 and T2, there was reliably significance on the two grades of participants and fourth-year students were significantly better than the second-year students. As to the testing materials of T3 and T4, there was no significant difference. Though the fourth-year students were better than the second-year students, there existed no significance in statistical sense. The entire participants felt more painstaking in C-E translating process than in E-C translating process. They did fairly well in E-C translation than in C-E translation. The number of the strategies employed by participants increased by the development of the participants' bilingual proficiency and the experiences gained in translation training.

B. Further Suggestions

It goes without doubt that translation study is a particularly vast field, being placed at the intersection between many different disciplines. In this sense, interdisciplinary research has been presented here which tries to bring together developments and achievement both in the field of cognitive psychology and translation.

Certainly, the present study does not provide all we want to know about translation process. But, it does suggest a need for a larger and more systematic investigation of the mental activities of Chinese translators. Future studies should also involve (a) more language pairs, such as Japanese and Chinese, French and Chinese, German and Chinese, etc. with TAPs data collected from experiments. (b) more source language texts which represent a variety of text genres, such as popular science, law, speeches, history, economic review, besides literary texts. (c) more participants, not only language learners and translation majors, but also professional translators. Of course, more compare could be made between (d) translation majors and English majors; English majors and non-English majors; language learners of Han nationality and those of other minority nationalities. Keep these above-mentioned features in mind, can we then expand the objects of investigation to include more aspects of the translation process.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors wish to thank Northwest Normal University. This work was supported by a grant from Young Teachers' Scientific Research Ability Promotion Plan (SKQNYB10024) and Teaching Research Project (2011014A) of Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou City, Gansu Province, China.

REFERENCES

[1] Alves, F. & Goncalves, J. L. (2003). A Relevance Theory Approach to the Investigation of Inferential Processes in Translation. In: Alves, F. (eds.) *Triangulating translation: perspectives in process-oriented research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 3-22.
[2] Bell, R. T. (1991). Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice. London: Longman Group UK Limited.
[3] Eppert, Franz. (eds.) (1983). Transfer and Translation in Language Learning and Teaching. Singapore: Singapore University Press.
[4] Fraser, J. (1996). The translator investigated: Learning from translation process analysis. *The Translator* 2/1. 65-79.
[5] Fraser, J. (2000). What Do Real Translators Do? Developing the Use of TAPs from Professional Translators. In: Tirkkonen-Condit, S. & Jääskeläinen, R. (eds.) *Tapping and Mapping the Process of Translation and Interpreting: outlooks on empirical research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 111-120.
[6] Ghadessy, M. et al. (eds.) (2001). Small Corpus Studies and ELT: theory and practice. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[7] Hansen, G. (eds.) (1999). Probing the Process in Translation: Methods and Results. *Copenhagen Studies in Language Series* 24. Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur.
[8] Hansen, G. (eds.) (2002). Empirical Translation Studies: process and product. *Copenhagen Studies in Language Series* 27. Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur.
[9] Holmes, James S. (2000). The Name and Nature of Translation Studies. In Venuti, Lawrence, (eds). *The Translation Studies Reader*. London: Routledge. 172-185.
[10] Jääskelăinen, R.(2000). Focus on Methodology in Think-aloud Studies on Translation. In: Tirkkonen-Condit, S. & Jääskelăinen, R. (eds). *Tapping and Mapping the Process of Translation and Interpreting: outlooks on empirical research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 71-82.
[11] Jakobsen, A.L. & Schou, L. (1999). Translog Documentation. In: Hansen, G. (eds). *Probing the Process in Translation: methods and results*. Copenhagen Studies in Language Series 24. Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur. Appendix. 1-36.
[12] Jakobsen, A. (2002). Orientation, Segmentation, and Revision in Translation. In: Hansen, G. (eds). *Empirical Translation*

Studies: process and product. Copenhagen Studies in Language Series 27. Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur. 191-204.
[13] Kiraly, Donald Charles. (1997). Think-Aloud Protocols and Construction of a Professional Translator Self-Concept, in Danks, Joseph H. et al. (eds). *Cognitive Processes in Translation and Interpreting*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications. 101-123.
[14] Krings, H.P. (1986). *Translation problems and translation strategies of advanced German learners of French (L2)*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[15] Laviosa, S. (1998). The Corpus-based Approach: a new paradigm in Translation Studies. *Meta*, 43/4. 474-479.
[16] Nida, Eugene A. (1993). Language, Culture and Translating. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[17] Olk, H. (2002). Critical Discourse Awareness in Translation. *The Translator* 8/1, 101-115.
[18] Séguinot, C. (1989). The Translation Process. Toronto: H.G. Publications.
[19] Séguinot, C. (2000). Management Issues in the Translation Process. In: Tirkkonen-condit, S. & Jääskeläinen, R. (eds.) *Tapping and Mapping the Process of Translation: Outlooks on Empirical Research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 143-148.
[20] Tirkkonen-condit, S. (eds.) (1991). Empirical Research in Translation and Intercultural Studies. Tübingen: Gunter Narr.
[21] Tirkkonen-condit, S. (eds.) (2000). Uncertainty in Translation Processes. In: Tirkkonen-condit, S. & Jääskeläinen, R. (eds.) *Tapping and Mapping the Process of Translation: Outlooks on Empirical Research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 123-142.
[22] Wilss Wolfgang. (1996). Knowledge and Skills in Translator Behavior. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[23] Wolfgang. (1991). Translation Performance, Translation Process and Translation strategies: A Psycholinguistic Investigation. Tübingen: Gunter Narr.
[24] Binghan Zheng. (2006). The Introduction of Translog Applied in Translation Process. *Technical Translation of China*. 4. 22-26.
[25] Binghan Zheng & Huiming Tan. (2007). Empirical Research of Translation Units in English-Chinese Translation Process. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*. 2. 145-155.
[26] Binghan Zheng. (2008). The Triangulation Module in Process-oriented Translation Studies. *Shanghai Technical Translation*.3. 36-41.
[27] Dechao Li. (2005). Review and Prospects of TAPs Translation Process Studies. *Chinese Translators Journal*. 1. 29-33.
[28] Fangyan Wan. (2010). Study on the Translation Units in Translation Process based on TAPs. Chongqing: Chongqing Three Gorges University.
[29] Hansong Cai. (2000). The Application of the Verbal Protocol Method in the Study of Translating Process. *Shanghai Technical Translation*. 3. 1-4.
[30] Hongying Wang. (1998). A Comprehensive Coursebook of English-Chinese Translation. Xian: Shanxi Normal University Press.
[31] Jingquan Wu. (1999). On Translation Psychology: Purpose, Task and Method. *Shanghai Technical Translation*. 2. 7-10.
[32] Jin Zhang. (1987). Literature Translation Principles. Zhengzhou: Henan University Press.
[33] Juan Shen. (2011). Application of TAPs in Translation Studies. *Literary Circles*. 7. 92-93.
[34] Jun Wen & Ping Deng. (2005). Experimental Study of Culture Intervention in Translation Process. *Foreign Language Research*. 1. 81-88.
[35] Jun Wen & Sanjun Sun. (2006). Study on Translation Process using TAPs. *Foreign Language Research*. 3. 93-97.
[36] Junxia Dai. (2009). Searching for Translation Psychological Process with the help of TAPs. *Journal of Anhui University of Technology (Social Sciences Edition)*. 3. 56-59.
[37] Jv Miao. (2002). Probe into Translator and Translation Process. Tianjing: Nankai University.
[38] Lina Deng. (2007). On the Think-Aloud Protocol and Its Application to the Internal Translation Process. Wuhan: Huazhong Normal University.
[39] Lörscher Wolfgang. (1991). Translation Performance, Translation Process and Translation Strategies: A Psycholinguistic Investigation. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.
[40] Mengzhi Fang. (1999). Work Psychology of Translator. F*oreign Languages and Teaching*.12. 40-42.
[41] Peiji Zhang & et al. (1980). New Chinese-English Translation Tutorial. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[42] Qiuxia Jiang. (2002). Aesthetic Process of Literary Translation: Rebuilding of Gestalt Image. Beijing: Commercial Press.
[43] Rong Yang. (2009). An Empirical Study on Translation Units in Scientific and Literary Texts. *Foreign Language Research*. 6. 79-83.
[44] Sisi Zhou & et al. (2010). Taps Theoretical Study on Translation Psychological Process. *Overseas English*. 2. 101-102.
[45] Suhua Jiang. (1998). Study on Translation Study. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*. 3. 55-57.
[46] Suru Shen. (1982). On Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Elegance. *Reference to Translation*. 1. 23-28.
[47] Xiaoli Yang. (2009). A Study of translation Process in Handling Lexical Gaps with the Application of TAPs Method. Chongqing: Chongqing University.
[48] Xichan Tian. (2010). Empirical Research of Translation Process using TAPs. *Journal of Hubei University of Economics*. 9. 120-122
[49] Xinxin Tan. (2011). An Empirical Study on Selection of Translation Units by Think-Aloud Protocols. Changsha: Hunan University.
[50] Yicheng Wu. (2000). Cognitive Orientation of Translation Studies. *Foreign Languages*. 5. 10-13.
[51] Yongxing Li. (2001). Introduction to Textual translation. Beijing: China Translation and Publishing Corporation.
[52] Yushan Zhao. (2010). An Empirical Study on Translation Process Model from the Perspective of Cognitive Psychology. *Journal of Tonghua Teachers College*. 11. 62-65.
[53] Zhai Qiulan, (2009). Translation Strategies of Culture-specific Items. *Journal of Hubei TV University*.5. 128-129.
[54] Zhiping Song & Li Chen. (2006). On the Translation Process from the Perspective of Cognitive Psychology. *Journal of Northeast Normal University (Philosophy and Social Sciences)*. 6. 128-132.
[55] Zhongying Fan. (1994). Practical Translation Tutorial. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Yali Zhou was born in Gansu Province, China in 1973. She received her M.A degree in Translation Theory and Practice from College of Foreign Languages & Literature of Northwest Normal University in Gansu, China in 2006. Now she is an associate professor in College of Foreign Languages & Literature and a doctorial candidate in College of Education, Northwest Normal University. She is the visiting scholar in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in University of Portsmouth of UK from Jan. 2011 to Jan. 2012. Her research interests include translation studies, translation teaching and teacher education.

Yan Lin was born in Gansu Province, China in 1986. She is now studying for her M.A degree in Translation Theory and Practice in College of Foreign Languages & Literature in Northwest Normal University, Gansu Province, China.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1387-1396, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1387-1396

Iranian EFL Learners' Interlanguage Request Modifications: Use of External and Internal Supportive Moves

Shahla Amooaliakbari Najafabadi
Department of English, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia
Email: ash8072@yahoo.com

Shamala Paramasivam
Department of English, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia
Email: shamala@fbmk.upm.edu.my

***Abstract*—The present study investigated the interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of Iranian English learners at three levels of English language proficiency. The study focused on learners' ability to perform the speech act of request and their performance was compared with American native speakers of English to see to what extent they approximated native speakers in using external and internal modifications. A Discourse Completion Task (DCT) including 12 situations was employed to elicit performance data from 120 participants, 90 Iranian EFL learners and 30 American native speakers of English. The data were categorized using an adapted version of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) classification. The study found that Iranian English learners overused external modifications and underused internal modifications compared to American native speakers. However, they showed pragmatic development toward native speaker norms with increase in language proficiency level. Advanced learners approximated native speakers both in the frequency of use and linguistic form of external modifications with regard to preparator, getting pre-commitment, promise of reward, sweetener, grounder, appreciations, confirmatory, and pre-pre strategies. However they did not approximate native speakers in the frequency of use of external modifications with regard to disarmer and apology strategies, and both in frequency of use and linguistic form of imposition minimizer strategy. In addition, advanced learners approximated native speakers both in the frequency of use and linguistic form of internal modifications with regard to conditional and understater strategies; and in the linguistic form of play down, politeness marker, consultative device, and upgrader strategies. However they did not approximate native speakers both in the frequency of use and linguistic form of downtoner strategy.**

***Index Terms*—interlanguage pragmatics, requests, external modifications, internal modifications**

I. Introduction

Second language learning involves more than the acquisition of lexical, phonological, and syntactic knowledge of the target language. It also requires learning the pragmatic rules of the language in order to use the language in a native-like manner. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) mention that a competent second language learner should acquire socio-cultural rules appropriately as well as grammatical competence. They pointed out that communication failure may still happen when proficient L2 learners do not have sufficient socio-cultural knowledge.

Since the introduction of the concept of communicative competence, researchers are increasingly recognizing the importance of aspects of pragmatics in second language learning and focusing on interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) studies. Some ILP studies have observed that second language (L2) learners display an L2 pragmatic system that is noticeably different from that of the target language (TL) native speakers, both in production and comprehension (Bardovi- Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997). Of the main concern of these studies is examining the production and comprehension of speech acts by second language learners compared to that of native speakers to see to what extent language learners' pragmatic competence deviates or approximates native speakers (Cohen and Olshtain, 1981; Takahashi and Beebe,1987; Trosborg,1995; Hill,1997; Rose, 2000; Churchill, 2001; Pérez i Parent, 2002; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2003; Hassall, 2003; Holtman, 2005; Pellet, 2005; Taguchi,2006; and Jalilifar, 2009).

Appropriate requests are among one of more important speech acts; they occur very frequently in everyday encounters. The inappropriate use of the request act by non-native learners of language can serve to make them look rude or impolite. In some cases, communication breakdown can occur. It is also widely believed that native speakers consider pragmatic errors to be more serious than phonological or syntactic errors (Koike, 1995; Thomas, 1983; Wolfson, 1989). As Blum-Kulka (1991) points out, requesting style is a good index of a cultural way of speaking. However, in order to appropriately make requests and also perceive the illocutionairy force of an utterance as a request, learners have to acquire sociopragmatic knowledge such as the relative degree of imposition of a speech act in the target

culture, and pragmatic-linguistic knowledge such as the degree of politeness of utterances in L2 to avoid being considered as rude or impolite by native speakers.

There are several studies that have examined the use of modifications by language learners compared to that of native speakers (House and Kasper, 1987; Blum-Kulka 1989; Trosborg, 1995; Francis, 1997; Hill, 1997; Hassall, 2001; Pérez i Parent, 2002; Barron, 2003; Schauer, 2004; Woodfield, 2006; and Economidou-Kogetsidis 2008 and 2009). Of these Hill (1997), House and Kasper (1987), Francis (1997), and Pérez i Parent (2002) were developmental studies that investigated the pragmatic knowledge of language learners at different levels of language proficiency. The present study aims to make a contribution to the area of ILP by focusing on the use of external and internal modifications by Iranian language learners of English across three language proficiency levels. More specifically, the present study tries to compare the interlanguge pragmatic knowledge of Iranian English learners across three language proficiency levels to that of American native speakers (ANSs) to see to what extent they deviate or approximate native speakers when making requests in English. The aims of the study are to find out:

1. To what extent do Iranian English learners use similar external modifications with ANSs?
2. To what extent do Iranian English learners use similar internal modifications with ANSs?

A. External Modifications

External modifications are classified in Blum-Kulka et al (1989) CCSARP coding scheme as supportive moves that may be attached either before or after the head act to mitigate the illocutionary force of the request. External modification might serve to either soften or emphasize the force of the whole request. The classification of external modifications is as follows:

_Preparator (e.g. "Hey, *you had this management class, right*?")
_Grounder (e.g. "*I wasn't in class the other day because I was sick.")*
_Disarmer (e.g."*I know this is short notice")*
_Promise of Reward (e.g. "*I'll buy you dinner.*")
_Imposition Minimizer **(**e.g. "*I will return them in an orderly fashion.")*
_Sweetener (e.g. "*Today's class was great***.**")
_Pre-pre strategy (e.g. "Hello sir, *how are you today?...*")
_Appreciation (e.g.*"I would appreciate it*.")
_Self introduction (e.g. "Hey, *I'm in your politics class.*")
_Confirmatory strategy (e.g. "I would be grateful if you *could help me.*")
_Getting a pre-commitment (e. g., "*Could you do me a favor? …*").
__Apology (e.g. "*I'm sorry* I can't give you the lesson on Monday.")

B. Internal Modifications

Internal modifications are classified in Blum-Kulka et al (1989) CCSARP coding scheme as supportive moves in order to mitigate (downgraders) or enhance (upgraders) the illocutionary force of the request. The classification of external modifications is as follows:

Downgraders:
Syntactic Downgraders:
_Play-down (e.g. "I *was wondering* if I could join your study group.")
_Conditional (e.g. ". . . *if you have time.*")
Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders:
_Politeness marker (e.g. "Can I *please* have an extension on this paper?")
_Embedding (e.g. "*It'd be great* if you could put this on the door.")
_Understate (e.g. "If you have *a minute,* could you help me with this stuff?")
_Appealer (e.g. "I need your computer to finish my assignments, *okay?*")
_Downtoner (e.g. "Is there *any* way I could get an extension?")
_Consultative Device (e.g. *"Would you mind* lending me a hand?")
Upgraders:
_Adverbial intensifier (e.g. "I would be *most* grateful if you could let me use your article.")

II. Methodology

A. Participants

A total of 120 subjects participated in this study. There were 90 Iranian English learners across three language proficiency levels (advanced, intermediate, and low level language learners) and 30 native speakers of American English. All subjects, aged 20-28, were graduate and undergraduate university students. Iranian participants came from various universities in Isfahan Province and have not had any communication with native speakers of English. American participants came from Tennessee University in America. Ethnic-minority students were excluded from the study in order to avoid influences from other cultures and languages as much as possible.

B. Instrument

Data collection in this study was done through an open-ended questionnaire in the form of a discourse completion task (DCT). The DCT involves 12 situations in which each situation was based on the variation of two variables (social power and social distance) (see Appendix A). The social power in this DCT refers to the power of the requester over the requestee and is divided into three levels. The requester with more power than the requestee, the requester with less power than the requestee, and the requester and the requestee with equal power. Social distance refers to the degree of familiarity between the interlocutors and was divided into levels, (a) requester and requestee do not know each other and (b) requester and requestee know each other. The combination of these two variables results in six possible combinations each realized in 2 situations which resulted in 12 situations. The DCT was designed to elicit requests in writing and subjects were given a short description of the situation, which specified the setting, the familiarity, and the social power between the participants. The respondents were asked to put themselves in each situation and to assume that in each situation they would, in fact, say something. They were asked to write down in English what they would say.

C. Procedures

Iranian English learners were divided to three groups of low, intermediate, and advanced based on their TOEFL scores done by the institution, then they were asked to complete the DCT to find out their interlanguage pragmatic competence in making requests in English. The DCT was also sent to 30 American native speakers for the base line data. The responses collected through DCT form participants were classified in line with the types of external and internal modifications based on CCSARP coding scheme proposed by Blum-Kulka et al., (1989). Then, the data was submitted to SPSS (version 17). Firstly, the total frequency and percentage of external modifications and internal modifications used by participants were calculated. Then *chi-square* (X^2) test was applied to test whether differences among the four groups of participants were significant. In addition, a description and comparison of the differences in the linguistic forms for each strategy among the groups was done.

III. Results and Discussion

A. Question 1

To identify the type and the frequency of external modifications used by Iranian EFL learners and native speakers, the data was analyzed, and the frequency of occurrence and percentage of each type of strategy were calculated as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF EXTERNAL MODIFICATIONS STRATEGY TYPES

	Proficiency Level			
Strategy Type	**Low** F (%)	**Intermediate** F (%)	**Advanced** F (%)	**Native Group** F (%)
Preparator	7 (0.91)	14 (2.83)	26 (6.6)	30 (8.7)
Getting pre-commitment	1 (0.13)	4 (0.81)	12 (3.05)	20 (5.84)
Disarmer	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (1.01)	13 (3.8)f
Reward	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (0.5)	3 (0.8)
Sweetener	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (0.5)	5 (1.46)
Grounder	360 (47.05)	211 (42.79)	190 (48.34)	174 (50.87)
Imposition minimizaer	67 (8.75)	39 (7.91)	24 (6.1)	9 (2.63)
Pre-pre strategy	80 (10.45)	60 (12.17)	56 (14.24)	41 (11.98)
Appreciation	87 (11.37)	56 (11.35)	34 (8.65)	23 (6.72)
Confirmatory Strategy	43 (5.62)	31 (6.28)	17 (4.32)	8 (2.33)
Apology	120 (15.68)	78 (15.82)	26 (6.61)	16 (4.67)
Total	765	493	393	342

Iranian participants overused total number of external modifications compared to native speakers (NSs). Although they overused external modifications across all proficiency levels, they made developmental progress in the direction of NSs norms by decreasing their use of external modifications. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences were significant among (low, intermediate, advanced, and NSs) and within groups (low, intermediate and advanced), but was not significant between groups (advanced and NSs). Language learners' overuse of external modifications has been argued by Hassall (2001) as learners desire to claim their linguistic competence, showing that they are able to produce lengthy utterances.

Nonnative speaker overuse of external modifications in making requests and development toward native norms have been supported by several studies conducted within the CCSARP framework, such as Suh (1999), Al-Momani (2009), House and Kasper (1987), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986), Edmondson and House (1991), Faerch and Kasper (1989), Rintell and Mitchell (1989), Trosborg (1995), Hill (1997), and Rose (2000). Results of this study both confirm the overuse of external modifications by language learners and the developmental progress of language learners toward native norms with increase in language proficiency level.

Iranian learners underused preparator strategy compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=17.597, P=0.0005, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=11.787, P=0.002, P<0.05) were statistically significant, but it was not significant between advanced and NSs. The analysis of data showed that as language proficiency level increased language learners increased their use of preparators and used more similar preparators compared to NSs. Moreover, advanced learners approximated NSs both in the number and linguistic forms of preparators.

Getting pre-commitment strategy was underused by language learners compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that it was not significant between advanced and NSs. A comparison of the linguistic forms of this strategy showed that low proficient learners used this strategy only once and combined it with politeness marker "*please*" and modal verb "*can*". Intermediate learners increased their use of this strategy compared to low proficient learners and made it by combining politeness marker "*please*" and modal verb "*could*". Advanced learners increased their use of this strategy compared to low and intermediate learners and used linguistic forms such as "*would it be possible*" and "*I was wondering if*", with a higher use of "*would it be possible*". NSs used more getting pre-commitment strategy compared to advanced learners but they used similar patterns as advanced learners with a greater use of "*I was wondering*" linguistic form. The analysis showed that with increase in language proficiency level, language learners increased their use of this strategy; and advanced learners approximated native norms both in the number and linguistic form of this strategy.

Iranian participants underused disarmer strategy compared to NSs. It was seen that only advanced learners and NSs used this strategy; however, NSs used significantly more disarmers compared to advanced learners. Advanced learners as well as NSs used linguistic forms such as "*I know*" and "*I understand*" for making disarmer in their requests. The data showed that even though advanced learners used few disarmers they are similar to NSs linguistically.

Sweetener strategy was not frequently used by any of the subject groups. Nevertheless, Iranian participants showed developmental progress toward native norms by increasing the use of this strategy as their proficiency increased. NSs used this strategy five times and used structures such as "*I know you can help me*" and "*I know you can understand my problem*" in their requests. Advanced learners, the same as NSs, used sweetener strategy infrequently and used similar linguistic forms to NSs such as "*I know you can help me*". Advanced learners approximated NSs both in the number and linguistic forms of sweetener strategy.

Grounders were the most frequently used form of external modification by all groups. Language learners overused this strategy compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=93.864, P=0, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=67.729, P=0, P<0.05) were statistically significant, but it was not significant between advanced and NSs. The comparison of grounder strategy across groups showed that advanced learners approximated NSs in the number of use of this strategy.

Imposition minimizers were overused by all language learners compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=52.856, P=0, P<0.05), across three language proficiency levels (X^2=21.985, P=0.00001, P<0.05), and between advanced and NSs were significant. The analysis showed that all language learners used significantly more and different types of imposition minimizer compared to NSs. NSs used significantly less imposition minimizer strategy compared to other groups and used linguistic forms such as "*I assure you*", "*I would be very careful with it*", "*I can have it back soon*", and "*it doesn't take me long*". Advanced learners used significantly more imposition minimizers compared to NSs and less than intermediate and low learners, and only used linguistic forms like "*I promise*", and "*it won't take long*". Low and intermediate learners used various linguistic forms of imposition minimizer; however, the forms were different from advanced and NSs such as "*I only borrow for few days*", "*I return it soon*", *I promise give it back soon*", and so on. The analysis of data showed that although the use of imposition minimizers decreased toward native norms and advanced learners used significantly less imposition minimizer strategies compared to low and intermediate learners, the difference in the use of this strategy between advanced learners and NSs was significant. In addition, advanced learners did not approximate native norms in the linguistic forms of their strategies.

Pre-pre strategy was overused by language learners compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=13.076, P=0.004, P<0.05) were significant; but it was not significant across three language proficiency levels (X^2=5.061, P=0.07, P>0.05). The *chi-square* test also showed that these differences between native and advanced participants (X^2=2.32, P=0.1, P>0.05) and between native and intermediate participants (X^2=3.574, P=0.058, P>0.05) were not significant. Low proficient learners used considerably more strategies than other groups and used phrases such as "*hi*", "*how are you*?" and "*how are you doing*?" in their requests. Intermediate groups decreased their use of pre-pre strategies and used similar linguistic forms as low proficient learners. Advanced learners used considerably less pre-pre strategies compared to the two other learner groups and almost used similar linguistic forms. Although NSs used less pre-pre strategy compared to the advanced group these differences were not significant and they used almost similar linguistic forms compared to other groups. The analysis of pre-pre strategy showed that as language proficiency level increased, the use of this strategy decreased towards native norms; moreover all language learners used almost same linguistic forms compared to NSs.

Language learners overused appreciation strategy compared to NSs; however, they decreased the use of this strategy toward native norms as language proficiency level increased. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among

NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=47.8, P=0, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=24.034, P=0.000006, P<0.05) were statistically significant, but it was not significant between native and advanced participants (X^2=2.123, P=0.1, P>0.05). Low and intermediate learners used appreciation strategy frequently in their requests; however, using limited linguistic forms such as "*thank you*", "*thank you very much*", and "*thanks so much*". Advanced learners, on the other hand, used it less frequently with more linguistic forms compared to low and intermediate learners like "*thanks*", "*I would really appreciate*", *I'll appreciate*", *I'd be so grateful*", and "*thank you so much*". NSs used fewer number of appreciation strategies compared to all language learners but used more various linguistic forms such as "*thanks*", "*I would really appreciate*", *"I'd be so grateful*", "*I'd be ever so grateful*", "*I would be most grateful*", and "*I would much appreciate*". It was seen that advanced learners approximated NSs both in the number and linguistic forms of appreciation strategy.

Language learners used confirmatory strategy more than NSs did. However, the use of this strategy decreased as language proficiency level increased. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=28.798, P=0.000002, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=11.165, P=0.0003, P<0.05) were statistically significant, but it was not significant between advanced and NSs (X^2=3.24, P=0.07, P>0.05). The analysis of data showed that all language learners used more confirmatory strategy compared to NSs. The overuse of this strategy may reflect Persian learners' lack of confidence in the initial request, hence they desire to repeat or reformulate it. Both low and intermediate learners used significantly more confirmatory strategy compared to advanced learners and NSs, and both groups used repetitions of original requests as their confirmatory strategy. Advanced learners, on the other hand, considerably decreased their use of this strategy toward native norms and used similar linguistic forms to NSs such as "*I'd be grateful if you could help me*", "*I'll really appreciate if you could help me*", and "*it would be a great help if you could*". Data showed that all of the advanced learners and NSs' uses of confirmatory strategy were modified by statements of appreciation for compliance.

Language learners frequently used apology strategy as an external modification, whereas NSs used it less. The results of *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=116.933, P=0, P<0.05), across three language proficiency levels (X^2=59.393, P=0, P<0.05), and between advanced learners and NSs were significant. The results showed that although advanced learners used significantly less apology strategy compared to low and intermediate learners, they used significantly more strategies compared to NSs. The analysis of data indicated that the use of this strategy decreased toward native norms with increase in language proficiency level; however, advanced learners did not approximate NSs in the use of this strategy and used considerably more strategies.

B. Question 2

To identify the type and the frequency of internal modifications used by Iranian EFL learners and NSs, first of all the data was analyzed, and the frequency of occurrence and percentage of each type of strategies were calculated as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF INTERNAL MODIFICATIONS

			Proficiency Level			
		Strategy Types	**Low** F (%)	**Intermediate** F (%)	**Advanced** F (%)	**Native Group** F (%)
Downgraders	Syntactic	Play-down	0 (0)	7 (3.31)	22 (8.97)	53 (16.35)
		Conditional	0 (0)	42 (19.9)	31 (12.65)	19 (5.86)
	Lexical/phrasal	Politeness marker	96 (52.74)	75 (35.54)	65 (26.53)	32 (9.87)
		Embedding	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (1.54)
		Understater	56 (30.76)	37 (17.53)	25 (10.2)	21 (6.48)
		Appealer	22 (12.08)	19 (9)	5 (2.04)	0 (0)
		Downtoner	0 (0)	3 (1.42)	9 (3.67)	40 (12.34)
		Consultative Device	0 (0)	11 (5.21)	56 (22.85)	98 (30.24)
Upgrader		Adverbial intensifier	8(4.39)	17(8.05)	32(13.06)	56(17.28)
		Total	182	211	245	324

Iranian participants underused internal modifications across three language proficiency levels compared to NSs. Nevertheless they made developmental progress in the direction of the NSs' norms by increasing their use of internal modifications as their proficiency increased. The *chi-square* test showed that the difference between advanced and NSs (X^2=10.968, P=0.0009, P<0.05) in the use of internal modifications was significant. Iranian participants made progress in the use of internal modifications as the X^2 test showed the difference between advanced and low participants (X^2=9.295, P=0.002, P<0.05) in using internal modifications was significant, showing progress toward the native norms.

The underuse of internal modifications has been reported by many researchers such as Kasper (1981), Trosborg (1995), Hill (1997), and Al-Momani (2009). These researchers believe that the underuse of internal modifications by learners of English may be ascribed to L1 interference, or perhaps as a result of the lack of linguistic knowledge. The results of his study showed an increase in the number of internal modifications as language proficiency level increased.

Iranian participants underused play-down strategy compared to NSs. The differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=79.524, P=0, P<0.05) and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=29.484, P=0, P<0.05) were significant. NSs

considered the use of play-down "*I was wondering if*" as the second most important internal modifier, using it in 19.77% of their requests. This modifier was used by NSs with a speaker perspective "*I was wondering if I could*" and with a hearer perspective "*I was wondering if you could*". The data showed that NSs used this modifier with a hearer perspective in 42% of the time and with a speaker perspective in 17% of the time. This modifier was not used by low proficient learners and was used only 7 times by intermediate learners who used it only with the speaker perspective. Advanced learners used this modifier 22 times and used the hearer perspective more than the speaker perspective. Intermediate learners used the expression "*I was wondering if*" combined with the modal verb "*can*", while advanced and NSs combined it with the modal verbs "*would*" or "*could*" but never with "*can*". The analysis of this strategy showed that advanced learners used significantly less play-down strategies compared to NSs; but there was an increase toward native norms as language proficiency level increased. In addition, the analysis of strategy forms showed that advanced learners approximated NSs' norms in the use of linguistic forms and the linguistic perspective.

Conditional downgrader was used by NSs in 25% of their syntactic downgraders. Intermediate participants used conditionals 85% while advanced participants used them 59% of their syntactic downgraders. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=42.174, P=0, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=38.986, P=0, P<0.05) were significant, but it was not significant between advanced and NSs (X^2=2.88, P=0.08, P>0.05). A linguistic form comparison of conditional strategy showed that low proficient learners never used this strategy. There is the possibility that perhaps conditionals are taught at higher levels of language learning and that low proficient learners lack grammar knowledge in using this strategy. Intermediate learners overused this strategy compared to advanced learners and NSs. The reduction in this strategy by advanced learners showed that they found it inappropriate to use it frequently. Although intermediate learners used conditional clauses frequently, these clauses were combined with modals such as "*can*" and "*will*", while advanced and NSs combined conditional clauses with "*would*" and "*could*". The analysis of conditionals showed that advanced learners approximated native norms by decreasing their use of conditionals and by using similar linguistic forms to NSs.

The politeness marker was overused across three language proficiency levels. The *chi-square* test showed that the differences among the NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=31.851, P=0, P<0.05), across three language proficiency levels (X^2=6.364, P=0.04, P<0.05), and between advanced and NSs were significant. The linguistic comparison of politeness marker "*please*" across groups showed that low proficient learners used this marker in initial and final positions of their requests. Intermediate learners used this marker in middle and final positions; however, they used it more in final positions, but never used it in the initial position. Advanced learners used this marker both in middle and final positions with more use in middle positions. NSs as well used this marker in middle and final positions with more use in middle positions. Although data showed that advanced learners used significantly more politeness marker compared to that of NSs, the linguistic form analysis of this marker showed significant development by advanced learners in the positioning of the politeness marker.

The understaters were overused by Iranian language learners. The *chi-square* test showed that differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=21.317, P=0.00009, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=12.424, P=0.002, P<0.05) were statistically significant, but it was not significant between advanced and NSs (X^2=0.348, P=0.5, P>0.05). A linguistic form comparison of understater across groups showed that while low proficient learners used only "*a little*", which is probably a translation of Persian language, advanced learners used understaters such as "*for a while*" and other understaters which were more similar to NSs. This progress by advanced learners indicates that they approximated native norms in the use of the linguistic form. The analysis of understaters showed that as language proficiency level increased language learners decreased their use of understaters toward native norms. Moreover, the results showed that advanced learners approximated NSs both in the number and linguistic form of and understaters.

Downtoner strategy was underused by language learners compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=78, P=0, P<0.05), across three language proficiency levels (X^2=10.5, P=0.005, P<0.05), and between advanced and NSs (X^2=19.612, P=0.000009, P<0.05) were significant. The comparison of downtoner linguistic form among groups showed that NSs used a variety of downtoners such as "*perhaps*", "*possibly*", "*by any chance*", and "*at all possible*". The data showed that low proficient learners never used downtoners; and intermediate learners only used "*just*" which is perhaps a translation from the Persian language. It was shown that although advanced learners used more downtoners compared to low and intermediate learners, they used it significantly less than NSs and only used forms such as "*maybe*" and "*anyway*". The analysis of downtoners showed that advanced learners made progress in increasing their use of downtoners; however, it is still far from native norms. The analysis of linguistic forms showed that advanced learners did not make significant progress toward the native norms in the use of downtoners.

Consultative devices were underused by language learners compared to NSs. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=146.782, P=0, P<0.05), across three language proficiency levels (X^2=78.836, P=0.04, P<0.05), and between advanced and NSs (X^2=11.455, P=0.00074, P<0.05) were significant. The linguistic form comparison of consultative device showed that low proficient learners never used these modifiers and intermediate learners used only the linguistic form "*would you mind*". Advanced learners significantly used more consultative devices compared to intermediate learners and used "*would you mind*" and "*do you think*?" phrases. They used "*would you mind*" phrases more frequently; however, they used it less than NSs. The data showed that advanced

learners used the same linguistic forms as NSs. The data showed advanced learners did not approximate NSs in the number of consultative devices; however, used similar forms compared to NSs.

NSs used adverbial intensifiers significantly more than language learners. The *chi-square* test showed that these differences among NSs and Iranian learners (X^2=46.752, P=0, P<0.05), and across three language proficiency levels (X^2=15.474, P=0.0004, P<0.05) were significant. A linguistic form comparison of adverbial intensifiers across groups showed that low proficient learners used it occasionally and used limited linguistic forms such as "*so*" and "*very*". Intermediate learners significantly increased their use of adverbial intensifier compared to low proficient learners, and used more variant types of adverbial intensifiers like "*so*", "*very*", and "*very much*". Advanced learners both approximated NSs in the number and linguistic forms of adverbial intensifiers such as "*most*", and *"very"*.

IV. Conclusion

The results of the analysis of external modifications showed that although overall Iranian learners used more external modifications compared to NSs, the total use of external modifications decreased toward native norms as language proficiency level increased. Although there was total decrease in the use of external modifications, the analysis of each strategy type showed that it was not always decreasing. Language learners decreased overused strategies and increased underused strategies in the direction of native norms. The findings show that in this study, the use of preparator, pre-commitment, disarmer, reward, and sweetener strategies increased and the use of grounder, imposition minimizer, pre-pre strategy, appreciation, confirmatory, and apology strategies decreased toward native norms as language proficiency level increased. In addition, the data shows that based on the number of strategies, advanced learners approximate NSs in all strategies except disarmer, imposition minimizer, and apology strategies. There were significant differences between advanced learners and NSs in the number of these strategies. Moreover, the analysis of linguistic forms show that advanced learners could use similar strategies compared to NSs in all external modification strategies except imposition minimizer strategy.

Regarding to the use of internal modifications, the results of this study show that language learners underused total number of internal modifications compared to NSs; however, the total number of internal modifications by language learners increased in the direction of native norms as language proficiency level increased. However, there was a significant difference between advanced learners and NSs in the total number of internal modifications. The results showed that as language proficiency level increased, the use of play-downs, consultative devices, downtoners, and adverbial intensifiers increased while the use of conditionals, politeness markers, understater, and appealers decreased in the direction of native norms. However, there were significant differences between advanced and NSs in the use of play-downs, politeness markers, embeddings, appealers, downtoners, consultative devices, and adverbial intensifiers, while advanced learners approximated NSs in the use of conditionals and understaters. Thus, the results of internal modifications show that although language learners showed development toward native norms in all strategies, except embeddings, they did not approximate native norms even at the advanced level, suggesting the lack of knowledge in the use of internal modifications when making requests. The analysis of linguistic forms for each strategy showed that advanced learners approximated NSs in the use of play-down, conditionals, politeness marker, understaters, consultative devices, and adverbial intensifiers. However, they did not approximate NSs in the linguistic form of downtoners and embeddings.

The major deviances found in this study, in the requestive behavior of Iranian learners of English, are as follows:

Underuse in disarmer strategy,

Significant overuse in imposition minimizers even at advanced levels,

Failure to make similar linguistic forms in using imposition minimizers,

Significant overuse of apology strategy even by advanced level learners,

Significant underuse of play-down strategy even at the advanced level,

Significant overuse of politeness marker even at the advanced level,

Significant underuse of downtoner strategy including advanced level learners,

Failure to make similar linguistic forms in using downtoner strategy even at the advanced level, and

Significant underuse of consultative device strategy by the advanced level learners.

This experiment contributes to the field of interlanguage pragmatics by highlighting the sociopragmatic features of Iranian EFL learners in the performance of the requestive speech act. It is hoped that this study will illustrate the significance of interlanguage pragmatic studies among EFL educators and researchers and stimulate their research interest in this fast growing discipline. This type of study not only is useful in supplying L2 teachers and materials developers with NSs baseline data, but also indicates how, and in what situations, Iranian English learners of varying proficiency deviate from NSs' norms. Language teachers could use the requesting behaviour employed by the advanced Iranian learners (as they are the more competent speakers) as part of their English lessons when teaching Iranians because trying to emulate the nuances of a native version of English can sometimes be daunting to learners who may not achieve native-like detail. We believe that although, learners should be offered native models for making requests in English, the goal of teaching pragmatic practices may not necessarily be to encourage language learners to achieve native-like speech proficiency. There is an assumption that NSs norms are an ideal target for non-native speakers; however, privilege constructs of nativeness in English are debatable on the cross-cultural, functional, and pragmatic

ground (Canagarajah, 1999; Kachru, 2001; Seidlhofer, 2005). It has also been argued that a total convergence with NSs norms may not be desirable from the native and non-native point of view. Non-natives may choose being distinct to assert their identity, and NSs may prefer some degree of divergence as a sign of fully belonging to the target community. Our suggestion is that L2 learners be given input (both native forms and usage as well as those of competent non-native speakers) to help them understand what is appropriate and what is not, what is rude, and what is polite or impolite; and they should be allowed to make their own decisions on how to respond. Learners should be comfortable enough in L2 to decide to be rude, polite or impolite intentionally rather than inadvertently. However, if they produce some strategies excessively, such as the apology strategy by the language learners across the three proficiency levels in this study, the instructor should point out their deviation from the English norms and discuss its possible consequences, but should not instruct learners to correct it, as mentioned by Kasper (1982, p.109) that L2 sociopragmatic use ought to be pointed out and discussed, but errors in this area should not be corrected because it is in part culture-specific, which is a reflection of the students' system of values and beliefs. It should, therefore, be a major goal in English language teaching to teach cultural schemata and to make non-native learners aware of differences between their own cultural schemata and those of NSs. Instructors should remind students that in teaching sociopragmatics the intent is not to impose values and beliefs on learners, but to inform them of differences in sociopragmatic norms between cultures and how these norms are reflected in language.

As sequels to this study, we suggest that future research on Iranian EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatics examine the effect of different social variables particularly social power and social distance on their requesting behaviour. More studies are needed to unveil and explore these issues.

APPENDIX A DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK (DCT)

Directions: ***Please read the following descriptions of situations and write what you would say in each situation.***

1. You are taking a course in sociology. In today's class, the professor mentions a new article "Religion & Culture". You are interested in the topic so you go to the library to read the article. Unfortunately, the library does not have the article, and you decide to borrow it from the professor. This is your third course with this professor and you have a good relationship with him/her. You go to the professor's office and say…

2. You are graduating this semester and planning to apply for the Master's program. You need to submit a recommendation letter with the application, and you want your "Academic Advisor", who you know well, to write it for you. You go to the professor's office and say…

3. Tomorrow is the deadline for one of your final papers. You have many other assignments and cannot finish the paper on time. This is your first course with this professor and you have never spoken with him/her before; however, you decide to talk to the professor about an extension on the paper. You go to the professor's office and say…

4. You have to take a course in (psychology) in order to graduate. The section that suits your time is closed and you have to get the professor's permission to add it. You have never met the professor before but you decide to see him/her about adding the course. You go to the professor's office and say…

5. You have been helping your neighbor, a high school student, with his/her studies for two months now. Your next meeting with him/her is Monday evening. You have an exam on Tuesday and you want to postpone your appointment with your neighbor till Wednesday evening. You say…

6. You are living in a first- floor apartment. You have an exam tomorrow and you are trying to study. You can't focus because your neighbor's kids, in 9th and 10th grades, are playing football outside your window. You have been neighbors for more than a year now. You want to ask them to play somewhere else. You open the window and say…

7. You are a university professor. You have a department meeting and you have to cancel one of today's classes. One of the course students stops by your office to inquire about one of the requirements. This is the student's first course with you and you don't know him that well. You want the student to post an announcement about cancelling today's class at the classroom door. You say…

8. You are a university professor. This is the first day in the semester and you are teaching a course for first year students. You come to today's class carrying many books and papers to share with students. The class finishes and you want a student to help you carry the books to your office. You look at a student standing close to you and say…

9. You have been sharing an apartment with a friend for two years now. While you were working on your assignments, your computer stopped working. You want to use your friend's computer and finish your assignments. You go to your friend and say…

10. You are taking a course in "Management", and you are required to buy an expensive book. You do not think that you will be using the book after this semester. You want to borrow it from your friend who took the same course last semester. You go to your friend and say…

11. You are taking a course in "Politics". Last week, you had a bad cold and missed very important classes. You see one of your classmates in the library. You have never spoken with this classmate before but you know that he/she is an excellent student, and you want to copy his/her notebook. You go to your classmate and say…

12. You are having trouble understanding your (Mathematics) course. You hear that some of the course students have formed a study group to prepare for the midterm exam. You have never spoken with those students before but you decide to talk to them about joining the study group. You approach one of study group students and say…

REFERENCES

[1] Alcon, S. E. (2005). Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in the EFL context? *System* 33.3, 417–435.
[2] Al.Momani, H. S. (2009). Caught between two cultures: The realization of requests by Jordanian EFL learners. Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana: University of Pennsylvania.
[3] Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the Empirical Evidence: Grounds for Instruction in Pragmatics? In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (eds.), *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 13–32.
[4] Bardovi-Harlig, K. & M.R Taylor (eds.) (2003). Teaching pragmatics. Washington DC, US Department of State: Office of English Language Programs.
[5] Barron, A. (2003). Acquisition in Interlanguage Pragmatics: How to do things with words in a study abroad context. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: Benjamins.
[6] Blum-Kulka, S. (1991). Interlanguage Pragmatics: The Case of Requests. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Salinker, M. Sharwood Smith & M. Swain (eds.). *Foreign/Second Language Pedagogy Research*. Clevedon and Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters, 255–272.
[7] Blum-Kulka, S., J. House & G. Kasper (eds.) (1989). Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
[8] Blum-Kulka, S. & E. Olshtain (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 8, 165–180.
[9] Churchill, E. (2001). The effect of a study abroad program on request realizations by Japanese learners of English. *Kanagawa University Studies in Language* 24, 94–103.
[10] Cohen, A. & E. Olshtain (1981). Developing a measure of sociolinguistic competence: The case of apology. *Language Learning* 31, 13–134.
[11] Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2008). Internal and external mitigation in interlanguage request production: The case of Greek learners of English. *Journal of Politeness Research Language, Behaviour, Culture* 4.1, 111–137.
[12] Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2009). Interlanguage request modification: The use of lexical/phrasal downgraders and mitigating supportive moves. *Multilingua* 28, 79–112.
[13] Edmondson, W. & J. House (1991). Do learners talk too much? The waffle phenomenon in interlanguage pragmatics. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, S. Smith & M. Swain (eds.). *Foreign/second language pedagogy research*. Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters, 273–287.
[14] Faerch, C. & G. Kasper (1989). Internal and external modification in interlanguage request realization. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kasper (eds.). *Cross-cultural pragmatics*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex, 221–47.
[15] Francis, C. (1997). Talk to me! The development of request strategies in nonnative speakers of English. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics* 13.2, 23–40.
[16] Hassall, T. (2001). Modifying requests in a second language. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 39, 259–283.
[17] Hassall, T. (2003). Requests by Australian learners of Indonesian. *Journal of Pragmatics* 35, 1903–1928.
[18] Hill, T. (1997). The development of pragmatic competence in an EFL context. Ph.D. dissertation, Temple University: Japan.
[19] Holtman, K. C. (2005). The Acquisition of the Speech Act of Complimenting by Second Language Learners of French. Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University.
[20] House, J. & G. Kasper (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language. In W. Lorscher & R. Schulze (eds.). *Perspectives on language in performance*. Tubingen, Germany: Gunter Narr, 1250–1288.
[21] Jalilifar, A. (2009). Request strategies: Cross sectional study of Iranian EFL learner and Australian native speakers. *English Language Teaching* 2, 466–61.
[22] Kachru, B.K. (2001).why the time is right for India to exploit its most valuable export commodity: English. Learning English, Supplement to the Guardian Weekly.
[23] Kasper, G. (1982). Teaching-induced errors in interlanguage discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition 4*, 99–113.
[24] Kasper, G. (1997). Can Pragmatic Competence be Taught? Paper presented at the TESOL Conference, Orlando, FL.
[25] Kasper, G. & K. R. Rose (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 19, 81–104.
[26] Kobayashi, H. & C. Rinnert (2003). Coping with high imposition requests: High vs. low proficiency EFL students in Japan. In A. M. Flor, E. U. Juan & F. Guerra (eds.). *Pragmatic competence and foreign language teaching*. Castello de la Plana: Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I, 161–183.
[27] Koike, A. (1995). Transfer of pragmatic competence and suggestions in Spanish foreign language learning. In S. Gass & J. Neu (eds.). *Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communications in a second language*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 251–281.
[28] Olshtain, E. & S. Blum-Kulka (1985). Degree of approximation: nonnative reactions to native speech act behavior. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (eds.). *Input in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House, 303–325.
[29] Pellet, S. H. (2005). The development of competence in French interlanguage pragmatics: The case of the discourse marker 'donc'. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas, Austin.
[30] Pérez i Parent, M. (2002). The production of requests by Catalan learners of English: Situational and language proficiency level effects. *ATLANTIS. XXIV*.2, 147–168.
[31] Rintell, E. & C. J. Mitchell (1989). Studying requests and apologies: An inquiry into method. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kasper (eds.). *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, 248–272.
[32] Rose, K. R. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 22, 27–67.
[33] Schauer, Gila (2004). May you speak louder maybe? Interlanguage pragmatic development in requests. In S. Foster-Cohen, M.S. Smith, A. Sorace & M. Ota (eds.). *EUROSLA Yearbook* (Vol.4). Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 253–273.
[34] Suh, J. (1999). Pragmatic perceptions of politeness in requests by Korean learners of English as a second language. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 37, 195–213.
[35] Taguchi, N. (2006). An analysis of appropriateness in a speech act of request in L2 English. *Pragmatics* 16.4, 513–533.

[36] Takahashi, T. and Beebe, L.M. (1987). The development of pragmatic competence by Japanese learners of English. *Japan Association for Language Teaching* 8, 131–155.
[37] Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*. 4: 91-112.
[38] Trosborg, A. (1995). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies. Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.
[39] Wolfson, N. (1989). Perspectives: Sociolinguistics and TESOL. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
[40] Woodfield, H. (2006). Requests in English: ESL learners' responses to written discourse completion tests. Paper presented at the 31st International LAUD Symposium. Intercultural Pragmatics, Linguistics, Social and Cognitive Approaches. Landau/Pfalz, Germany.

Shahla Amooaliakbari Najafabadi is a Ph.D. English Language candidate at the Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). She worked for 3 years as English teacher in Darkoub Industrial Forging Co, Iran. She has a 2-year research assistant experience at Universiti Putra Malaysia. She has presented papers in conferences such as Second International Conference on Iranian Linguistics, Hamburg, Germany and Malaysia International Conference on Language, Literature and Culture. She also participated in a Workshop in Phonetics, Uppsala University, Sweden. Her research interests lie in pragmatic development, interlanguage pragmatics, and second language acquisition.

Shamala Paramasivam is an Associate Professor at the Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). She has taught English language at the university since 1991. She has published in several international journals including Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, Journal of Intercultural Communication, Journal of Universal Language, Asian EFL Journal, and Journal of Language and Linguistics. She has presented papers in conferences such as Asia Pacific Airline Training Symposium, International Aviation English Forum, International Conference on Discourse, Communication and Enterprise, International Conference on Politeness Research, and European Conference for Academic Disciplines. She has a specialization in language use in intercultural communication, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and Teaching English as a Second language (TESL). Her research interests lie in discourse, communication, and culture in educational and professional settings, particularly in business and workplace communication.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1397-1402, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1397-1402

The Role of Teachers' Beliefs in the Language Teaching-learning Process

Li Xu
The School of Foreign Languages, Dalian University of Technology, Dalian City, Liaoning Province, China
Email: margaretx2007@hotmail.com

***Abstract*—Teachers' beliefs are important for understanding and improving educational process. They closely guide language teachers to adopt their teaching strategies for coping with their daily language teaching challenges, influence their general well-being, and in turn, shape language learners' learning environment, their motivation and their language achievement and ability. This essay studies some previous researches on teachers' beliefs, and analyzes the role of three teachers' beliefs in the language teaching-learning process. The first part clarifies the concept of teachers' beliefs, the second part illustrates three essential teachers' beliefs about learners, learning and teachers themselves, and their role in the language teaching-learning process, the third part is the conclusion, which is consistent with the concept of teachers' beliefs.**

***Index Terms*—teachers' beliefs, the language teaching-learning, learners, teachers**

"Teachers as reflective practitioners, if they want to be effective in whatever approach they decide to take, are expected to act consistently in accordance with their expressed beliefs. Unfortunately, …there is almost always a discrepancy between what professionals say they believe and the way they act. In teaching, if the discrepancy… is a large one, then learners are likely to receive confused and confusing messages. " (Marion Williams et al., 1997)

In an effort to improve teachers' self-awareness in this respect, some educational theorists have fostered the notion of critical reflection. The intention is to enable teachers to become reflective practitioners and to stress that teachers should be aware of their belief systems and constantly monitor how much their actions reflect those beliefs or are in keeping with them. Thus these educational theorists consider the teachers' beliefs to be of critical importance.

I. Teachers' Beliefs and the Theoretical Sources

There is growing evidence to indicate that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values, to their views of the world, and to their understanding of their place within it.

Then what does teachers' beliefs mean? Firstly we need to make clear of the basic concept: belief. Michael Borg's (2001) defined that "a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior." Most definitions of belief propose that beliefs dispose or guide people's thinking and action.

Beliefs play an important role in many aspects of teaching, as well as in life. They are involved in helping individuals make sense of the world, influencing how new information is perceived, and whether it is accepted or rejected. Beliefs color memories with their evaluation and judgment, and serve to frame our understanding of events.

Further, we come to consider teachers' beliefs, which are difficult to define and evaluate, and have not been notoriously defined, but we can find a number of statements to help us understand.

The British educational theorist Pajares (1992) noted that teachers' beliefs have a greater influence than the teachers' knowledge on the way they plan their lessons, on the kinds of decisions they make, and on their general classroom practice. Teachers' beliefs are central to determining their actual behavior towards students. If teachers can identify the level of students' capabilities, they will try to select and adjust their behavior and instructional choice accordingly.

Social constructionists also found that teacher's beliefs were "far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems, and were better predictors of how teachers behave in the classroom. They tend to be culturally bound, to be formed early in life and to be resistant to change." (Marion Williams et al., 1997) They are closely related to what we think, we know, but provide an affective filter which screens, redefines, distorts, or reshapes subsequent thinking and information processing (Nespor 1987).

Kennedy (1997) attributed that it is not clear what the source of those beliefs might be — a product of their upbringing, a reflection of their life experiences, or a result of socialization processes in schools. Nevertheless, teachers and teacher candidates have strong beliefs about the role that education can play, about explanations for individual variation in academic performance, about right and wrong in a classroom, and many other areas. Kennedy asserts that these beliefs are used to evaluate the new ideas about teaching that teachers and teacher candidates confront in their methods classes. Those teachings that square with their beliefs are recognized and characterized as "what's new?" Teachings that challenge their beliefs are dismissed as theoretical, unworkable, or even simply wrong.

One Chinese scholar Zhou Guotao (1997) says that a teacher's beliefs are formed during the teaching process and reflect the teacher's subjective knowledge of relevant educational phenomenon, especially towards his/her own teaching

ability and his or her students.

The Chinese educationist Xin Tao (1999) finds that the sources of teacher beliefs, as the result of self-construction and cultural interaction, are the result of social history and culture.

By reading relevant books and articles, the author form a thinking frame that constructivism psychologists claim a teacher's beliefs as the result of his or her self-construction. The beliefs arise from the teacher's own direct experience. Each teacher has different processes of self-construction. And social psychologists emphasize the importance of social cultural impact on a teacher's beliefs. They think that these beliefs are formed in the course of accepting culture. The cultural transmission depends on three factors: enculturation, education and schooling.

Therefore, in our opinion, a teacher's beliefs are more influential than a teacher's knowledge on determining his or her teaching activities. They result from the teacher's self-instruction, which is accumulated from social history and culture, personal experience and education, the teacher's teaching ability and students, etc.

Heather Davis and Carey Andrzejewski (2009) asserted that beliefs essentially function in a way similar to a lens on a magnifying glass. They clarify and guide interpretation of what may be ambiguous or unfocused. Generally, teachers interpret ambiguous situations in ways that are consistent with their beliefs. Beliefs also serve as a foundation for setting goals and standards by framing what is viewed in detail and focusing teachers' attention and energy. Similarly, they delimit what is peripheral, determining what teachers do not see, emphasize, or examine. Because beliefs help teachers to make sense of what they experience in the classroom, they create meaning for teachers. Moreover, they prepare teachers to experience certain emotions by mapping pleasant feelings onto some experiences (i.e., success or failure) and unpleasant feelings onto others.

Debate continues about the extent to which teachers' beliefs and their identity as teachers are the same. The literature on teachers' beliefs suggests teachers may simultaneously hold beliefs that are inconsistent, in conflict, and even contradictory and still see themselves as a teacher. Fred Korthagen (2004) posits teachers are likely to be the most effective when their beliefs are aligned with each other and with the field.

The focus research areas are "teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning, and learners; subject matter; self as a teacher, or the role of a teacher." (Michael 2001) Here we are going to study three of them which we think are essential.

II. Three Types of Teachers' Beliefs and Their Significant Roles in the Language Teaching-learning Process

A. Beliefs about Learners

Teachers may hold any one or a combination of beliefs about those whom they teach. The sociologist Roland Meighan (1990) has suggested that learners may be construed metaphorically as:

·resisters
·receptacles
·raw material
·clients
·partners
·individual explorers
·democratic explorers

Such constructions reflect individual teacher's views of the world and also have a profound influence on their classroom practice. The first three constructs are heavily teacher-dominated while the latter constructs involve increasingly active learner participation. If teachers consider their students as resisters, receptacles or raw materials, they will force learners to master a language, fill learners with knowledge, and shape learners according to the teacher's wishes. While, if teachers consider their students as clients, partners, individual explorers or democratic explorers, then they will alter the nature of the relationship between teachers and learners. The teachers will have the language learning activities from learners' needs, and take themselves as co-learners, facilitators and co-operators.

"…it is also clear that the extent to which teachers feel able to work with their learners as democratic explorers rather than as, say, clients, often depends on factors outside of their control. In making their beliefs systems about learners explicit, however, teachers should be able to identify inconsistencies and frustrations in their work and thereby search for ways of bridging the inevitable gap between their espoused theories and their theories in action." (Marion Williams et al., 1997)

Effective teacher beliefs about learners are of importance, and are considered as integral components of effective teaching. Melodie Rosenfeld and Sherman Rosenfeld (2008) claimed from their studies that effective teachers act on the belief that all students can learn, meet the needs of diverse learners, and believe that teachers can intervene to make a difference. In other words, effective teachers have interventionist beliefs about students: a set of beliefs that in inclusive classrooms lead to effective teacher practice, and improved student performance and self-esteem. Effective teachers attribute student's learning difficulties to a wider realm, including what the teacher does to help the student. In contrast, less effective beliefs are called pathognomonic. Teachers with pathognomonic beliefs attribute student's learning difficulties to permanent deficits in the student, which detracts from student success.

Nowadays, in China, professionals like Yang Lianrui (1995) analyze teachers' beliefs about learners mainly from two perspectives. From a macrocosmic point of view, they appear to be the teachers' beliefs about the learners' development.

From a microcosmic point of view, they appear to be the teachers' expectations for the learners. The former beliefs tend to be abstract, but the latter expectations always exhibit concrete qualities, and their impact on the learners' development is much more direct. The teachers' expectations for the learners and their impact arise during the teaching-learning process of interaction between teachers and learners. During this process, teachers constantly insist on influencing the learners according to their own expectations, and the learners will step-by-step develop themselves as the teachers expect.

In the language teaching-learning process, the highly-expected learners will enhance their self-confidence, and develop their language learning abilities completely. The low-expected learners, on the contrary, will feel discouraged and give up working hard, so they can not thoroughly develop their language potential. Therefore, Jere Brophy (1986) advises teachers to "routinely project attitudes, beliefs, expectations, and attributions...that imply that your students share your own enthusiasm for learning. To the extent that 'you treat your students as if they already are eager learners', they will be more likely to become eager learners."

Obviously, having high expectations does not magically equalize students' innate abilities and learning rates. To accommodate differences among students and help all students achieve mastery without resorting to watering down standards and expectations, teachers can manipulate three variables-time, grouping, and methodology (Babara J. Omatoni et al. 1996).

B. Beliefs about Learning

It is impossible to contemplate teaching in isolation from learning. "Teachers' beliefs about what learning is will affect everything that they do in the classroom, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit. Even if a teacher acts spontaneously, or from habit without thinking about the action, such actions are nevertheless prompted by a deep-rooted belief that may never have been articulated or made explicit. ……we can only be really effective teachers if we are clear in our minds what we mean by learning, because only then can we know what kinds of learning outcomes we want our learners to achieve. If our aim is to teach enough language items to pass an exam, then this will have significant implications for the way in which we teach. If, on the other hand, we see learning a new language as a lifelong process with much broader social, cultural and educational implications, then we will take a very different approach to teaching it."(Marion Williams et al., 1997)

British psychologists Gow and Kember (1993) suggest that most approaches to learning can be placed under one of the following headings:

·a quantitative increase in knowledge;
·memorization;
·the acquisition of facts, procedures etc. which can be retained and / or used in practice;
·the abstraction of meaning;
·an interpretative process aimed at the understanding of reality;
·some form of personal change

The first three of these conceptions can be conveniently subsumed under the heading of reproductive approaches, while the subsequent three can be seen as meaning-based. The first three approaches also can be induced as the direct transmission instruction, which implies that teachers' role is to communicate knowledge in a clear and structured way, to explain correct solutions, to give students clear and resolvable problems, and to ensure calm and concentration in the classroom. The following three can be induced as constructivist instruction, which focuses on students not as passive recipients but as active participants in the process of acquiring knowledge, emphasizes facilitating students inquiry, prefers to give students the chance to develop solutions to problems on their own, and allows students to play active role in instructional activities. But these approaches should not be mutually exclusive in language teaching-learning process.

What teaching approaches a teacher uses in the language classroom reflect his/her beliefs about learning. For example, an American teacher educator Diane Holt-Reynolds (1995) from Michigan State University gets the conclusion from her long-term observation that learning occurs inside students' heads as a result of their active efforts to "make meaning" (rather than "getting meaning" through direct transmission). Students' failure to participate and learn in a secondary classroom is often due to instructional problems (especially lack of skills to learn from text) rather than personality or motivational problems, therefore calling for instructional moves by teachers rather than judgments about students' willingness to cooperate.

Teaching well also means learning well to some extent, and teachers' beliefs will subconsciously propel teachers to adopt different teaching-learning methods. When teachers believe that teaching well primarily depends on making school work interesting, they will reject as irrelevant parts of the course that focus on teaching students to use metacognitive strategies for reading to learn. When teachers believe that student's effort is the salient factor contributing to success as a learner, they will reject as irrelevant learning how to foster comprehension skills or how to help students develop study techniques specific to the subject matter they teach. When they believe all students will be like ourselves as able learners, they will find little reason to learn how to analyze the demands inherent to subject-matter texts or how to mediate those demands with inexperienced and unskilled readers. When they believe that teacher-telling like lecturing is a primary vehicle for communicating a teacher's enthusiasm for subject matter, they will react negatively to ideas for cooperative learning. When they see teachers as the primary resource for students' learning, they will reject instructional formats that foster students as independent investigators.

Constructionists (Marion Williams et al. 1997) hold the idea that "a teacher's deep-rooted beliefs about how languages are learnt will pervade the classroom actions more than a particular methodology s/he is told to adopt or the coursebook s/he follows."

For the language teachers, establishing correct beliefs about learning is to learn that we must be clear about what the language is and how to study language. The viewpoint of communicative teaching is that language is a communicative tool, mainly used to establish and maintain relationships among people. The language learner needs to know about the language rules in various occasions in addition to comprehending language grammar and vocabulary.

There's one western foreign language teaching theory about how to study language: "condition theory". It emphasizes teaching skills and classroom conditions for stimulating learner's psychological process.

First, the learner's language input should be taken into consideration. The American linguist and educationalist Stephen Krashen calls this "I+1 input supposition", because language acquisition will be made only when materials under study contain grammar constructions which are a bit above present level. Second, a favorable, low "emotion filtration" environment in the language class should be formed in order for learners to reach the best emotional state and obtain real language acquisition. Third, learners need not be encouraged to understand every word, they should be taught to comprehend sentence meaning without knowing every word. Do less pattern drills, and more free talk. Offer learners more chances to be exposed to different language models.

American scholar Julianne Turner (2009) thinks that teachers' beliefs about learning appear to rely on a great deal of visible, behavioral evidence rather than on assessment of student meaning-making. Nuthall (2004) argues that for teachers to understand the relation between teaching and learning, they must understand (a) how instruction, management and assessment influence student experience and behavior; (b) how the sociocultural context (classroom instruction, interpersonal relationships, and intrapersonal factors) influence teaching and learning; and (c) how individual students make sense of their classroom experiences.

C. Beliefs about Themselves

After having studied teachers' beliefs about learners and learning both in China and abroad, we think some more advanced beliefs about teachers ourselves, such as teacher self-efficacy and teacher emotions can be important ways for us language teachers to enhance our overall quality.

1. Teacher self-efficacy

The well-known psychologist Albert Bandura (1994) defined perceived self-efficacy as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression.

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (in press) further defined teacher efficacy as a teacher's "judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated." So we can say it is a teacher's subjective judgment that s/he could influence the learners' learning process actively.

It has been shown that a high self-efficacy teacher places higher expectations on learners, thinks himself/herself to be responsible for the learners' development, and believes that s/he can teach learners well. S/he constantly explores new teaching methods, and instructs learners more democratically. Since a high self-efficacy teacher can adopt an efficacious teaching behavior, s/he promotes progress among learners. In this sense, a teacher with low self-efficacy will find it difficult to build self-efficacy of others, and difficult to be confident in classroom control. A teacher with low self-efficacy will tend to conduct limited classroom teaching skills and low rates of praise. These teaching behaviors will have classroom be with higher rates of aggression, which in turn can maintain behavior problems. As Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) noted, "Researchers have found few consistent relationships between characteristics of teachers and the behavior or learning of students. Teachers' sense of efficacy … is an exception to this general rule". That means teachers' self-efficacy determines the teaching behavior.

There is a growing body of evidence that human accomplishments and positive well-being require an optimistic sense of personal efficacy. This is because ordinary social realities are strewn with difficulties. They are full of impediments, adversities, setbacks, frustrations, and inequities (Bandura 1994). So teachers must have a robust sense of self-efficacy to sustain their perseverant efforts needed to succeed in teaching. I like Marie Curie's saying :"Life is not easy for any of us. But what of that? We must have perseverance and above all confidence in ourselves.We must believe that we are gifted for something and that this thing must be attained."

2. Teacher emotions

Social constructivists Pine and Boy (1977) found that "effective teachers create learning atmospheres which are cognitively and affectively expanding; learning atmospheres which enable the learner to become a more adequate and knowledgeable person." It is clear that this kind of approach places great emphasis upon what the teacher as a person brings to the teaching-learning relationship and how the learner can be helped to develop as a whole person. This is accomplished by providing a supportive learning environment, which allows individuals to develop in their own way. As Pine and Boy (1977) express it, "Pupils feel the personal emotional structure of the teacher long before they feel the impact of the intellectual content offered by that teacher." This obviously has particular implications with regard to a teacher's views of herself or himself. This is equally true when it comes to conveying dignity and respect. Thus, the language teacher needs to convey a sense of self-confidence when using the language, at the same time respecting learners' attempts to express themselves and their views in the language (Marion et al., 1997).

In Paul A. Schutz and Michalinos Zembylas' new book (2009), they claimed that some reports estimate that nearly 50% of teachers entering the profession leave within the first five years. One explanation of why teachers leave the profession so early in their career might be related to the emotional nature of the teaching profession. For example, teaching is an occupation that involves considerable emotional labor. Emotional labor involves the effort, planning, and control. Teachers need to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions. As such, emotional labor has been associated with job dissatisfaction, health symptoms and emotional exhaustion, which are key components of burnout and related to teachers who drop out of the profession. Research into emotional labor in teaching and other aspects of teachers' emotions is becoming increasingly important not only because of the growing number of teachers leaving the profession, but also because unpleasant classroom emotions have considerable implications for student learning, school climate and the quality of education in general.

In Rosemary E. Sutton and Karl F. Wheatley's study (2003), they found that there are empirical and theoretical reasons for believing that teachers' emotions play an important role in teachers, teaching and students. Teachers' emotions may influence not only teachers' cognitions like attention, memory, categorizing, thinking and problem-solving, but also teachers' motivation, attributions, efficacy beliefs and goals. At the same time, although teachers may often attempt to mask their feelings, students are often aware of teachers' emotions, and students are often influenced by teachers' expression of emotions. Teachers' expression of positive emotions, especially caring, are more motivated, less likely to be involved in delinquency, more likely to be helpful, cooperative, and to follow classroom rules and norms. While, teachers' expression of negative emotions mostly make them feel small, sad, ashamed, guilty, hurt and embarrassed.

III. Conclusion

"Teachers' beliefs are a form of subjective reality: What they believe is real and true." (Heather et al. 2009) Teachers' beliefs influence teacher consciousness, teaching attitude, teaching methods and teaching policy. Teacher beliefs also strongly influence teaching behavior and, finally, learner development. i.e. "their beliefs guide their decision-making, behavior, and interactions with students and, in turn, create an objective reality in the classroom, what students experience as real and true." (Heather et al. 2009) Teachers' beliefs shape their planning and curricular decisions, in effect determining what should be taught and what path instruction should follow.

Teachers who fail to examine their beliefs may bring about unanticipated consequences in the classroom, set aside valuable curriculum, overlook or marginalize students who need them, misinterpret students' motives or behavior, and limit their potential as professionals. Conversely, teachers who are willing to explore their beliefs, and how their beliefs relate to practice and the professional knowledge base, can capitalize on the beliefs they hold to promote students' intellectual growth, autonomy and reciprocity, and equity in their classrooms. Moreover, they create spaces for their own growth as they identify and revise beliefs that do not serve them, their students, or their schools.

The formation of a teacher's educational beliefs in the language teaching-learning process will exert an imperceptible influence on forming active language teaching methods and will bring about an improvement in students' language abilities.

References

[1] Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior*. Vol. 4, pp. 71-81. New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], Encyclopedia of mental health. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).
[2] Brophy, Jere. (1986). On Motivating Students. East Lansing, Michigan: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University, United States. 276-724.
[3] Gow, L. & D. Kember. (1993). Conceptions of teaching and their relationship to student learning. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 63, 20-33.
[4] Heather Davis & Carey Andrzejewski. (2009). Teacher Beliefs. The Gale Group. http://www.education.com/reference/article/teacher-beliefs/#D,.(01-23-2012)
[5] Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk, A. E. (1990). Socialization of student teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 27,279-300.
[6] Julianne C. Turner, Andrea Christensen & Debra K. Meyer. (2009). Teachers' Beliefs about Student Learning and Motivation. *Springer International Handbooks of Education*, Vol. 21, 5, 361-371.
[7] Kennedy, Mary M. (1997). Defining an ideal teacher education program [mimeo]. Washington, DC: National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education. 1-29.

[8] Korthagen, F. A. J. (2004). In search of the essence of a good teacher: Towards a more holistic approach in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 77–97.
[9] Linda M. Anderson & Diane Holt-Reynolds. (1995). Prospective Teachers' Beliefs and Teacher Education Pedagogy [microform]: Research Based on a Teacher Educator's Practical Theory. http://www.eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED392792 (02-07-2012)
[10] Meighan, R. & J. Meighan. (1990). Alternative roles for learners with particular reference to learners as democratic explorers in teacher education courses. *The School Field,* 1(1), 61-77.
[11] Melodie Rosenfeld & Sherman Rosenfeld. (2008). Developing effective teacher beliefs about learners: the role of sensitizing teachers to individual learning differences. *Educational Psychology*, Vol. 28, No. 3, 245-272.
[12] Michael Borg. (2001). Key Concepts in TLT: Teachers' Beliefs. *ELT Journal*. Vol. 55/2. Oxford University Press.
[13] Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19, 317-28.
[14] Nuthall, G. (2004). Relating classroom teaching to student learning: A critical analysis of why research has failed to bridge the theory-practice gap. *Harvard Educational Review*, 74, 273-306.
[15] Omotani, Barbara J. & Les Omotani. (1996). Expect the Best: How Your Teachers Can Help All Children Learn. *The Executive Educator*. Vol.18, No.8: 519-766.
[16] Pajares M.F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning Up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research*. Vol. 62, 3: pp. 307-332.
[17] Schutz & Michalinos Zembylas. (2009). Introduction to Advances in Teacher Emotion Research: The Impact on Teachers' Lives. *Advances in Teacher Emotion Research: The Impact on Teachers' Lives.* 3-14. Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg London New York.
[18] Pine, G. J. & Boy, A. V. (1977). Learner Centered Teaching: A Humanistic View. Denver, Love Publishing Co.
[19] Rosemary E. Sutton & Karl F. Wheatley. (2003). Teachers' Emotions and Teaching: A Review of the Literature and Directions for Future Research. *Educational psychology Review,* Vol. 15, No. 4, 327-358.
[20] Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education.* 17, 783-805.
[21] Williams M. & Burden R. L. (1997). Psychology for Language Teachers: a Social Constructivist Approach. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
[22] Xin Tao & Shen Juliang. (1999). On Teachers' Beliefs. *Journal of Beijing Normal University*. Vol. 1. 5-12.
[23] Yang Lianrui. (1995). English Pedagogy. Shan Dong: Shan Dong University Press.
[24] Zhou Guotao & Liu Xiaoming. (1997). Monograph of Educational Psychology. Beijing: China Audit Press.

Li Xu was born in Yingkou, Liaoning Province, China in 1968. She received her M.Ed. degree in English education & curriculum from the School of Foreign Languages, Northeast Normal University, China in 2000.

She is a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Dalian University of Technology, Dalian, China. Her main research interests lie in applied linguistics, like CALL, TESOL and ESP.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1403-1414, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1403-1414

Positive Change in Self-esteem through Linguistic and Psychological Training among Iranian Kurdish University Students*

Tahereh Ahmadipour
Language and Linguistics Department, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Iran
Email: ahmadipour@vru.ac.ir

Somayeh Hadad Ranjbar
Psychological Department, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Iran
Email: s.hadad@vru.ac.ir

***Abstract*—This paper reports an action research into how teaching and researching program for Iranian Kurdish students could positively change the state of their self-esteem. The study aimed to implement and evaluate the teaching of two side-by-side courses: Persian pronunciation and life skill teaching programs, as well as to identify the benefits for the students. Data collected in different ways: reflective reports, focused interviews, diaries of the participants, and observation analysis of the researchers and the observers. Findings identified the success of the teaching program and revealed substantial benefits for the students. Although the project had, some limitations but the findings provided support for the hypothesis. It is suggested that the collaboration between psychological and phonological teaching courses offers a potential model for developing healthy self-esteem to similar students.**

***Index Terms*—action research, self-esteem, positive change, Kurdish students, Persian pronunciation teaching, life skills teaching**

I. Introduction

Freshmen face a variety of challenges while they enter the academic environments. Among them, the ethnolinguistic minorities such as Kurdish students showed they involve even some more problems. In this new environment, because they are not so accurate or fluent in Persian, as the only official and national language, in class participation and some other social and personal relations, they show poor self-image and low confidence little by little. This could result in their social withdrawal, lack of social skills and self-confidence, less social conformity, treating themselves badly and so on that are the indicators of unhealthy self-esteem. Some psychologists (Allport, 1955, Maslow, 1987, Rogers, 1961) regard self-esteem as universal and essential need for human being.

II. Self-esteem Literature

The benefits associated with having high self-esteem, as a part of self-concept has been the subject of hundreds of studies (Rosenberg, 1972, 1979). Researchers argued that high self-esteem because of positive outcomes would be beneficial for both individual and society as a whole (Porter & Washington, 1993). A large and growing body of literature have been produced from the time that Rosenberg and some other social learning theorists such as Branden (1960s) for the first times defined self-esteem as "... the experience of being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness"(branden, 1969). Branden defined self-esteem as the sum of "self-confidence" (a feeling of personal capacity) and "self-respect" (a feeling of personal worth). For him the primary properties of self-esteem to see it as a basic human need, i.e., "...it makes an essential contribution to the life process". The levels of self-esteem also for Branden involves three main items as levels of : having a *high self-esteem* for him means to feel confidently capable for life; but not feeling ready for life or feeling wrong as a person is the symptoms of *low self-esteem*; and branden deemed to have a *middle ground self-esteem* that is identified as an item between the two.

Many early theories suggested that self-esteem is a basic human need or motivation. American psychologist Maslow for example, included self-esteem in his hierarchy of needs and as two different forms of esteem: the need for respect from others and the need for self-respect, or inner self-esteem (1987). Some researchers (Bonet, 1997; Gill, 1980) suggested some characteristics as indicators for those who have positive or negative self-esteem. Those with positive and healthy self esteem show some features such as firmly believing in certain values and principles and defending for them as well as being able to modify them; trusting themselves and acting based on their own judgment with no guilty

* The research reported in this article was supported by Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan grant to Tahereh Ahmadipour.

feeling; living in the present without subject to be affected from past and future; not asking others' help but trusting in himself to solve the problems. On the other hand those with low self esteem are deemed to show some of the following symptoms: dissatisfying with themselves; very sensitive to criticism; very fearful of making a mistake; unwilling to say no; self-demanded to do perfectly; condemning indefinitely and never reaching full forgiveness; feeling bad and irritability about everything; being pessimistic about everything (Bonet, 1997, Gill, 1980).

A growing body of research has also documented the significance of self-esteem as a key factor in the students' school success and in relationships with their peers, and in their later success in life. A vast majority of the published works have focused on the necessity of strategies to increase self-esteem in schools, implemented programs aimed at boosting student's self-esteem in the hopes of reducing problems at schools in previous century (Mecca, Smelser & Vasconcellos, 1989, Dawes, 1994). But recent researches (Baumeister et al., 2003, Baumeister et al., 2005) shows that" inflating" self-esteem by itself can actually decrease grades. The results of these researches did not signify that lifting self-esteem raise academic performance. However, some newer investigations reported that it is only when students engage in personally meaningful endeavors for which they can be justifiably proud that self-confidence grows, and it is this growing self-assurance that in turn triggers further achievement. Howerver Baumeister, et al. (2003) believed that high self-esteem correlates highly with "self-reported happiness", it is not clear which, if either necessarily leads to the other and based on some studied to forgiveness (Eaton et al., 2006).

For students of minorities seemingly the issue of self-esteem has somehow different and needs more challenges (Toulouse n.d., Hilberg&Tharp, 2002, Kanu, 2002, Swanson, 2003). Some researchers argued that the multicultural environment has a powerful influence on "building up or tearing down" self-esteem. They believed that the culturally different student might have developed feeling of inadequacy or a weak self-image. The researchers also enumerated some cultural differences which impede the learning process because of low self-esteem including Language barriers (King, 1997).

Crocker and Park (2004) suggested more challenging attitude to the importance of self-esteem. They particularly interested in how people pursue self-esteem by trying to prove or demonstrate that they have worth and value. They argued that the objective benefits of high self-esteem are small and limited. They cited the Baumeister et al.'s review (2003), concluded, "High self-esteem produces pleasant feelings and enhanced initiative, but does not cause high academic achievement, good job performance, or leadership". Although the authors argued the long-term costs of pursing self-esteem, the ways of avoiding its costs have been discussed as well. Moreover some researchers recently propose that the importance of self-esteem lies more in how people strive for it rather than whether it is high or low (Baumeister, et al., 2003, Crocker & Park, 2004).Some other psychologists such as Dubois and Flay (2004) theoretically indicated that both level and pursuit of self-esteem could be influential in shaping overall health and well-being.

III. Research Design and Method

This study is a part of a larger project that aims to examine the possibility of producing a positive change in the self-esteem of minority university students, those whose native language is different from the official and national language (Persian) on an action research project. This decided to be done through the implementation of a teaching program in two fields that is linguistics (Persian pronunciation) and psychological (life skills). Therefore secondary aims for each field developed. Specifically this study addressed the following questions as secondary purposes: Does Persian pronunciation training have a positive effect on the self-esteem of Kurdish students? Does living skills training have a positive effect on the self-esteem of Kurdish students?

Sources and the Identification of the problem

To identify the problem we had different sources. The researchers' long experiences as instructors and advisors for years contacting with such students and their colleagues reports about the issue served as the first source. Most of the non-Persian new students sat at last rows or somewhere far from the eye contact of the teacher, they rarely ask questions or tend to volunteer in class participation. If they force to, they experience a lot of embarrassing. We concluded that these behaviors could be related to, as Branden (1969) defined, their feeling of personal capacity and a part of their self-esteem namely "self-confidence".

The second source was the students' own reflection in focused interviews about the problem. They said that they are afraid of being mocked in class by other students and they prefer not to participate in some oral activities. They asserted that while speaking Persian they just shoot the words out hurrily one after the other in order just to convey their meaning and do not find any time to think about accuracy and fluency of words and sentences. They confessed that they stressfully just release the words out to express themselves and all the time they are inconvenient about their Persian speaking. Some of them said that after speaking Persian in classes or in front of others, they become aggressive. The need for respect from others according to Maslow in one's hierarchy of needs along with the need for self-respect, or inner self-esteem (1987) cannot be meet when a person is afraid for example to be mocked.

The result of the test done through Coopersmith' questionnaire of self-esteem was the last source. The results were surprising because their self-esteem score showed to be whether low average or higher than usual. Their lie score was high. In this study, we searched for positive change and we did not aim to heighten or lessen self-esteem. Both very high and very low self-esteem can be considered disorder and destructive to the students. As Crocker and Park (2004)

suggested, we aimed to substituting the pursuit of self-esteem with the pursuit of the goals. This meant for us that we should concentrate on some teaching courses to make the students equipped with the desired skills then ultimately resultant self-esteem boost as a welcomed side-effect would be gained, while, based on Crocker and Park, we could minimize the overall personal cost.

Based on the sources mentioned, the following facts about the selected Kurdish students, among others, were crucial: their inability to speak Persian fluently, their inability to build contact with others whose languages are different from theirs, lack of tendency to participate in group activities, their inability to control their stress specially while speaking in Persian, their strong reaction of anger and fear of being mocked by others while speaking Persian**.**

Context of the Study

Because in this research we looked for a "positive change", we decided to focus on action research. This practically oriented and a classroom based research method could be interesting to the students and it provided them with a tool for investigating their Persian linguistic problems as well as living skills ones through cycles of action and reflection.

We designed the action research courses for two 90-minute classes (one class for phonological and the other for life skills) per week over a 8-week semester from October to December 2011. Ten Kurdish university students in Vali-e-Asr University in Kerman Province in Iran attended the program. The course materials were extracted from four famous Persian Phonetics and phonological books and one for living skills. Some reading materials along with listening materials recorded from daily Iranian TV and radio programs. All the class sessions were planned based on lecture/ discussion format to introduce base materials and then shifted to student participation. Each step followed by instructors' observations of class participation, students 'reflective reports, group discussions, the observer instructors' observations, and the assessment of the two courses were based on these mentioned points.

Participants

The participants were Ten freshmen Kurd students (5males and 5females) volunteered to participate in the project from two universities in Kerman Provinces in south east of Iran they varied in terms of their age but the same L1 backgrounds, all studying in BA degree in different fields. They were all from the west part of the country and their Persian had a heavy shade of their native pronunciation. They all stated that they hoped the project could help them with their Persian speaking so that their relationships in the society become easier. We applied a purposive approach to sampling according to the following parameters:

- They were freshmen, in first or second semester in BA degree that for the first time enter a non-native environment.
- They had problem(s) in their self-esteem based on the evidences from our different sources.
- Their Persian pronunciation was not so intelligible or fluent.
- They were volunteered to participate the project and interested in changing their psychological and phonological situations.

Action design

The specific methodology that we used for change was a qualitative action research, designed to result in a proper change in the participants' self-esteem through two separate educational steps (phonological and psychological) that simultaneously applied for the main purpose. This method allowed us, to monitor the change process, to have reflection on, in a critical manner and where there is a need, revise their project goals, Methods and findings. It has been said that action research is small scale, contextualized, localized aimed at discovering, or monitoring changes to practice (Wallace, 2000).And as action research's features summarized by Burns" identifies and investigates problems within specific situations. It is evaluative and reflective as it aims to bring a change and improvement in practice. It is participatory as it provides for collaborative investigation by team of colleagues, practitioners and researchers. Changes in practice based on the collection of information or data that provides the impetus for change (Burns, 1999, p.34). Action research as an approach that finally results in improvement in what happens in classroom and school (Kemmis &McTaggart,1988, p.5), we got to this insight that this research can have enough advantages for our goal over other approaches. In planning the steps for action research as Lewis (1946) as a pioneer in devising action research theories stated we should plan for spiral steps, each of which composed of special planning, action and the evaluation of the result of the action. This flexible and dynamic type of research according to Grundy (1982) has a series of overlapping cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting by the participants. We inspired from the idea of Grundy's three modes of action research as the minimal requirements. These modes emphasizes on the project to have a social practice subject matter capable to improvement, a spiral of cycles of four mentioned steps systematically and self-critically implemented and interrelated. Moreover, the project involves active participation (Grundy, 1982). In this project, there were two contemporary phases with eight overlapping cycles (Figure1)**.**

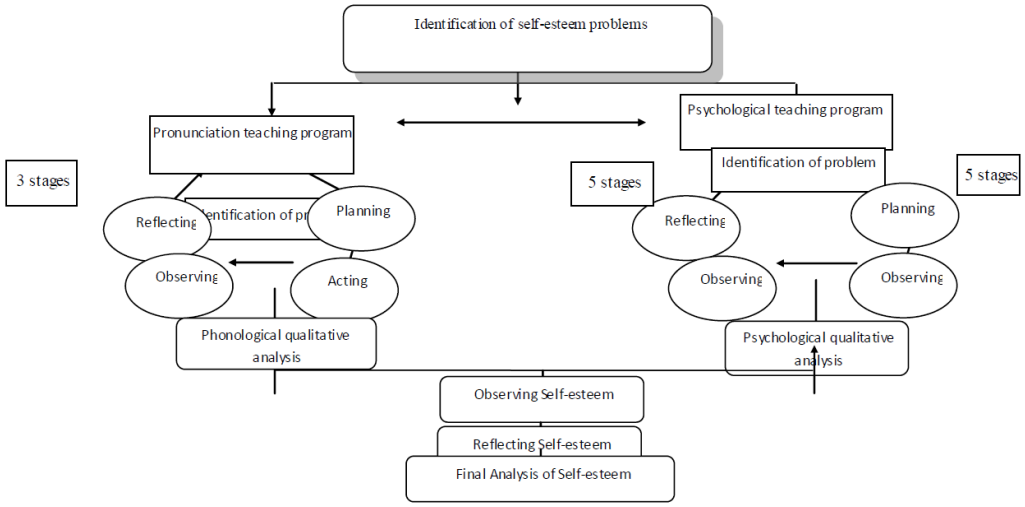


Figure 1. The Action Research Model of the Present Project

IV. Cycle One

In this cycle, the main problem of the Kurdish students participating in our project detected. They appeared to have mostly unbalanced self-esteem (Bonet, 1997, Gill, 1980) when they are in class or among a group of classmates. After discussion, it was suggested that a useful way would be to devise a teaching program combined with two main branches as two complementary wings for the program namely phonological and psychological trainings, which could be usefully combined for the benefit of the students.

Teaching Program

Phase 1: Phonological teaching program

This phase contained three interrelated cycles. Each cycle had its own design beginning with planning and proceeding to acting, observing and at last reflecting. It began with the identification of some main phonological problems. The student's problems in Persian pronunciation while they were speaking Persian identified in this cycle.

Identification of the Problem

The first thing that one might feel while talking to our ten participants was their foreign accent. Their Persian pronunciation heavily affected by their native language. Perhaps they had problems with other aspects of Persian such as grammar or writing, the same as everyone who use a second language, but we thought that when speakers improved articulation and with regular practice they could improve performance and confidence (Avery&Ehrich, 1992). Therefore, we began with their improving pronunciation. We identified each student's pronunciation problems for himself/herself specifically through their interviews and focus group discussions, which tape-recorded for each individual. For each of them we formed a pronunciation profile that showed exactly their problems in speaking.

The participants had mostly problems in the following aspects of Persian pronunciation and they mostly substitute them for their own native language. The elements of pronunciation divided into two categories:

Segmental (for accuracy): Pronunciation of the following Persian vowels **/o/, /â/** and these Persian consonants: **/ʔ/,/l/,/v/,/h/**(table I)

TABLE I.
PROBLEMATIC PERSIAN CONSONANTS AND VOWELS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS (IPA SYMBOLS WERE USED)

Persian sounds	/ â /	/o/	/ʔ/(glottal stop)	/l/	/v/	/h/(glottal fricative)
Sounds used instead	/æ/ e.g. âvâ → ævæ	/u:/, /au/,/ ow/ e.g. xod → xud dorân → dauran dʒelo → dʒelow	ʕ (Voiced pharyngeal fricative)	dark /l/	/w/	ħ (voiceless pharyngeal fricative)

Suprasegmental (for fluency): Persian consonant clusters, stress, intonation, duration and pause

Consonant clusters. It was difficult for the students to pronounce some Persian consonant clusters. Persian syllables maybe structured as (C) V (C) (C). It means that a very common type of Persian words consist of the pattern "consonant + vowel + consonant cluster", which are pronounced as a conjunct. This structure is predictable and possibilities are CV, CVC, and CVCC. The participants showed that they are not convenient with this syllable pattern so that they tend to break syllables or blend them. Using more than one consonant as onset was not difficult for them and all of them might be influenced by their native pronunciation. There are some real examples in table II.

TABLE II.
EXAMPLES OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRONUNCIATIONS OF SOME WORDS WITH KURDISH PARTICIPANT PRONUNCIATION OF THE SAME WORDS

Persian common pronunciation	Kurdish Participant pronunciation
/Poʃtvâne/	/Pʃtvæne/
/ʃenâxt/	/ʃnæxt/
/bærresi/	/bresi/
/kermânʃâh/	/krmænʃæh/

In this table, the examples showed that the Persian phonotactics is not equal to their native ones. For example the cluster/ Pʃtv-/ is an impossible pronunciation before a vowel and at the beginning of a syllable. Moreover Persian speakers in pronouncing such clusters use a very short pause between /t/ and /v/ because each belongs to separate syllable.

Stress, intonation, pause and duration

The participants while talking in Persian had a foreign accent even when they could use the correct pronunciation of problematic Persian sounds and consonant clusters. From analyzing their Persian speech tape-recorded, we got to this conclusion that they should have some training in this part too. We observed that sometimes they tried a lot to imitate the Persian words as they think they are correct but they even did not think about some language elements that are not so visible but be felt (as they later mentioned). We have lot examples but just some of them can show the need for suprasegmental elements practicing:

The participants pronounced the sentence /lâzem æst/ in this way /læzmst/. This sentence consists of two words (means: need+ to be), with a pause between them. All of the participants pronounced this sentence without a pause.

Planning

We planned for a teaching program, which aimed to making improvement the participants' pronunciation beginning with some basics to the specific mistakes of an individual. For teaching program we chose different Language Learning Strategies(LLS) devised by Oxford(1990).As Oxford puts forward the points about the importance of these strategies "…because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement and are essential for developing communicative competence" (1990a, p.1). LLS along all its benefits, could contribute to the development of self-correction techniques and self-monitoring strategies.

The teaching program for pronunciation phase was devised of weekly 2 hours during two months and through three stages, each stage contains the relative themes to the participants' problems with an action design of planning, acting, observing and reflecting by itself. Some special textbooks on Persian segmental and suprasegmantal phonology selected for the stage. One of the researchers of the present study as the experienced and native instructor of Persian phonology undertook the implementation of phase one. The followed tables (III, IV, and V) show the stages of the pronunciation-teaching program.

TABLE III
STAGE 1: TEACHING SEGMENTAL ASPECTS OF PERSIAN SPEECH SOUNDS

	Stage 1: 4 sessions,8 hours
General objective	Raising awareness toward Persian speech sounds
Specific objectives	- Making familiar with vocal tract, place and manner of articulation, state of vocal cords -practicing the pronunciation of Persian vowels and consonants, emphasizing on the participants' problems
Expected progressions	Pronounce correctly each Persian sound the participants had problem with it
Activities (regarding LLS)	Pronounce sounds and words together/pair works Differentiate place/manner of articulations listen to tape of native speaker and practice Reflective report Group discussion

TABLE IV
STAGE 2: TEACHING PERSIAN SYLLABIC STRUCTURE AND SOME GIVEN CONSONANT CLUSTERS

Teaching syllabic aspects of Persian& consonant clusters	Stage 2: 1 session,2 hours
General objective	Raising awareness of Persian syllabic system
Specific objectives	- Making familiar with Persian syllables and its parts -practicing Persian consonant clusters emphasizing on the participants' problems
Expected progressions	Pronounce correctly each Persian consonant clusters the participants had problem with it
Activities(regarding LLS)	Listen to tape and practice syllables, consonant clusters and words together/pair works Reflective report Group discussion

TABLE V
STAGE 3: TEACHING SUPRASEGMENTAL ASPECTS OF PERSIAN

Teaching Segmental aspects of Persian	Stage 3: 3 sessions,6 hours
General objective	Raising awareness of Persian suprasegmental aspects
Specific objectives	- familiar with vocal tract, place and manner of articulation, state of vocal cords -practicing the pronunciation of Persian vowels and consonants, emphasizing on the participants' problems
Expected progressions	Pronounce correctly each Persian sound the participants had problem with it
Activities(regarding LLS)	Pronounce sounds and words together/pair works Differentiate place/manner of articulations listen to tape of native speaker and practice shadow talking Reflective report Group discussion

Phase 2: Psychological teaching program

This phase contained five interrelated cycles. Each cycle had its own design beginning with planning and proceeding to acting, observing and reflecting. It began with the identification of some main psychological problems.

Identification of the Problem

Participants of this project from the beginning showed that they are among those university students that were experiencing some challenges. They said that the new environment was very different from their own native one, this led to their confusion. For example in the first interview, one of them stated, "I cannot speak Persian well. I involved many problems from the time I arrived the University. I prefer not to speak at all in classroom and in front of others… "or another student's comment"…I feel so discomfort when my classmates mock me because of my accent. It is more safe not to communicate with others…". Or another one said;"… It is impossible to make friendship with Persian speakers because they are very different from us. I just dream of finishing my studies and back to my hometown…" Altogether, they argued that they confronted with linguistic, communicative, cultural differences and all these hindered them to concentrate satisfactorily on their school works and some of them thought that they could not continue their studies successfully. One of them said, "If I had the opportunity to continue my studies in my hometown and among other Kurds, I didn't had the problem of communication and I could study better…."

We as researchers recognized that the last above comment can be stated by any students including Persians, all the students do not like to be mocked, to be far from home, some of them are shy or depressed or having any other problem irrelevant to the way of their speaking. However, our ten selected students are those that they really had psychological problem because of a sort of inability to communicate in Persian. Then we were going to focus specifically on their problems. Moreover, we had some Kurdish students that did not felt any problem at all in spite of unintelligible Persian. However, our ten participants really were interested to overcome their Psychological problem that to us seemed to show some symptoms of low or unhealthy self-esteem.

We planned for another training program so that they can get some life skills along with overcoming pronunciation problems. It was based on a large studies literature showed that life skills help people feel confident in themselves to handle all types of social situations. Several studies showed that training life skills can result in building and increasing self-esteem(some of them: Atkins & Jennings,1971,Atkins,1984, McNamara et.al., 1982, Wald, 1981).The students should be helped to fulfill the self-esteem need (Maslow, 1987) as the natural and psychological need for all human being namely need to respect himself/herself and through which success will be so close and tangible.

Planning

The course planned based on the life skills categories suggested by World Health Organization (WHO) in UNICEF (1993). Although there is no definitive list of life skills, the organization introduced this list as it includes the psychosocial and interpersonal skills generally considered important to produce powerful behavioral outcomes. Ten life skills concluded in three main groups as follows: Communication and Interpersonal Skills, Decision-Making and Critical Thinking Skills, Coping and Self-Management Skills. For our course, we selected some related skills among others, which we thought the students need most to be equipped. They are as follows:

1 Skills for increasing internal locus of control: Self esteem/confidence building skills; Self-awareness skills including awareness of rights, influences, values, attitudes, rights, strengths and weaknesses Goal setting skills; Self-evaluation / Self-assessment / Self-monitoring skills

2 Empathy: Ability to listen, understand another's needs and circumstances, and express that understanding

3 Interpersonal communication skills: Verbal/Nonverbal communication; Active listening; Expressing feelings; giving feedback (without blaming) and receiving feedback

4 Decision making / problem solving skills: Information gathering skills; Evaluating future consequences of present actions for self and others ; Determining alternative solutions to problems; Analysis skills regarding the influence of values and attitudes of self and others on motivation

5 Skills for managing stress: Time management; Positive thinking; Relaxation techniques

The teaching program for life skills phase devised of weekly 2 hours during two months and through five stages, each dealing with one of the mentioned skills we found out the participants need. Some special textbooks on life skills selected for the stages. The other researcher of the present study as the experienced and specialized instructor of

educational psychology undertook the implementation of phase two. Each stages of the course planned with an action design of planning, acting, observing and reflecting by itself. Table 6 is a very short summary of this very complicated course.

TABLE VI
STAGES OF TEACHING LIFE SKILLS

Teaching Life Skills	5 Stages: 9 sessions,32 hours
Self awareness skills	*Stage 1: 2 sessions,8 hours*
Some Specific objectives	- Activate mind with the importance self awareness - thinking more about their own characteristics - making sensitive to their strengths and weaknesses -introducing force group
Activities	Practice based on their different brainstorming& provided situations and actions Diary Reflective report Group discussion
Anger Control Skills	*Stage 2: 2 sessions,8 hours*
Some Specific objectives	- Activate mind with the Importance of anger control - Awareness of the degree of own anger - Practice on effective anger control
Activities	Practice based on their different brainstorming& provided situations and actions Diary Reflective report Group discussion
Stress Control Skills	*Stage 3: 2 sessions,6 hours*
Some Specific objectives	-stress concept
Activities	Practice based on their different brainstorming& provided situations and actions Diary Reflective report Group discussion
Social&Communicational Skills	*Stage 4: 2 sessions,6 hours*
	- Activate mind with the Importance of Social Communicational Skills - Practice on becoming skillful in these skills - Practice on becoming skillful in self-expression skills - Practice on becoming skillful in saying"NO"
Activities	Practice based on their different brainstorming& provided situations and actions Diary Reflective report Group discussion
	Stage 5: 1session,4 hours
Problem Solving&Decision making Skills	- Activate mind with the importance of Problem Solving & Decision making Skills - Practice on becoming skillful in effective solving problems - Practice on becoming skillful in effective decision making
Some Specific objectives	
Activities	Practice based on their different brainstorming& provided situations and actions Diary Reflective report Group discussion

Based on the action design, the first cycle utilized a reflective practice framework where the participants involved an intervention (teaching programs), and they were asked to evaluate the activities thought the courses and give their feedback so that the learning strategies could be flexible and changeable according to the feed backs up to the time the goal for each stage could be gained. Then in this cycle we recognized the problems and planned for the application of different strategies to solve them namely through the training program. This cycle lasted over a period of ten months. The team (including the instructor researchers, two observers of the project) met weekly to plan the programs and in some sessions, the students were asked to evaluate the planning. The proposal of the project with its detailed planning was permitted officially by the research University authorities and its grant was determined in this cycle. The team while conducting the research accepted ethical consideration including the measures of confidentiality, consent and anonymity of the participants. The team came to this agreement that all the activities of the project must be firstly beneficial to the participants.

V. CYCLE TWO AND THREE

In this cycle, the planned programs implemented over a period of two months. The instructing team held workshops weekly for the two courses based on the arranged lessons exactly provided for each session. The teaching program then started gradually and the participants responded to it. The activities evaluated in each session by different strategies determined so that the team could modify the programs in light of feedbacks. The second cycle then focused on achieving the general and specific aims planned.

The last cycle aimed in analyzing whether the actions done could solve or make any change to the identified problems and to what extent. The data obtained from the second cycle revealed that the teaching program was very beneficial though it needed to be more modified to meet some more satisfactory outcomes. In this cycle, we decided to disseminate some part of the main findings through the present article.

VI. Data Types, Data Collection and Analysis Data Types

In this project, several data types elicited from three reflective sources: the researchers, the participants, the observer instructors, to get a rich understanding of the participants' self-esteem development and to examine the effectiveness the method to test the research hypothesis. Each data type can be described as follows:

Observation. The instructor researchers and the observers of the present study as two groups of specialized sources from the beginning up to the end recorded their observations for each activity. Their journals were the main data that preceded each step to the other. Through the observation of each session the instructor could decide whether the training could solve the problem or there needs to have some correction training again. After each stage done by the main instructor, the observer could check the training process to see whether the education were enough to solve or decrease the problem or still some other ways is better to be performed. Through negotiation and consensus of the mentioned sources based on the observations, many data have gained.

Reflective Reports and diaries. Participants as the main reflective sources of this research wrote a short summary of their phonological and psychological developments separately at the end of each step of the courses. They were encouraged to write carefully about the changes that they feel after got trained in some given problems that they involved in before and to reflect on how they had developed over the sessions some special issues. These reflective notes could lead the researchers to the rest of the training over the course.

Tape Recording. From the beginning when we were in identifying the problem, we recorded all the interviews. This helped us to concentrate on the real problems and to select the appropriate participants. After beginning the courses also we tape recorded all the sessions especially to check the participants changes in Persian pronunciation as well as to control the possible developments of the participants ideas in life skills. The recordings were very precious for us when we wanted to follow the course of the changes for each participant both psychologically and phonologically.

Courses Feedback. The participants' perceptions about the optimal activities in two courses of the action research project acquired through some various ways. After each of the eight stages of two courses of the project, the participants invited to focus group discussions about the same stage. They talked about the effectiveness of the materials and training and they discuss with the instructors about their views. In both courses, participants also evaluate the activities through the semester and filled the special form of evaluation the courses from different aspects regarding the instructor performance, effectiveness of the textbooks and teaching strategies, and the changes the participants could observe after this semester in themselves. The observer instructors checked and monitored different focus groups throughout the semester by themselves and at the end as well to get an overview of the right feedback.

Data Collection

Data collected from the main above-mentioned groups helped us to proceed with one stage after the other and become close to the analysis. Participant data gathered through Coopersmith's questionnaire , first focused interviews to identify the problems and continued to their different reflections(reflective reports and diaries, free text comments, group disscussion,class activities and their assignments).The researcher team gathered a lot important information from their own observation and outside observers in the form of activity reports, tape recording ,group disscussions and more important than others was the observation of this ten participants in real situations by detecting their behaviors and activities in their school classes and university environments by the help of some colleagues as their teachers and our outside observers. All the data was categorized using some main elements of the research that is teaching, practicing and researching, collaborating identified from the action research literature.

The total period of data gathering extended over a period of 8 months, 6 months before running the teaching program (lasted two months).

Validation

Measures proposed by MacTaggart (1994) to validate findings in action research could be appropriate to be utilized. These measures as Mctaggart suggest interrelations between" observations and interpretations", "participant confirmation" and "testing the coherence of presented arguments" (p. 327).

We had different sources along with different methods of data gathering. The instructor researchers and outside observers were all experts and experienced with the responsibility undertook in the project (both as applied linguists and as educational psychologist). The observations and interpretations offered by the observers after each stage in both teaching courses could be useful sources to validate the actions .Moreover some other colleagues as expert witnesses verified our planned lessons and the actions in cycle one.

Throughout the implementing the project and before that in cycle one process we did not ignored the participants' feedback as confirmation. Their feedback in focused discussions and interviews could verify the self-esteem questionnaire. As MacTaggart suggested the coherence of our arguments should be tested .We began to disseminate some part of our findings in order to implement in a practical and wider scope.

VII. Findings

Based on the reflections of the actions done in teaching program, we had three perspectives that provided a good amount of data.

a. The Participants' Perspectives

The students as participants of the project responded both teaching programs very positively. The teaching programs according to the students' comments helped them to get an insight of respecting themselves through the trainings of the programs.

Reflection on Pronunciation Program

Several means used to get the real effectiveness of the pronunciation training from the students point of view. Their last written reports, final focused group as well as a typical quantitative questionnaire with a five Likert scale (from "weak" to "excellent") evaluating different items such as the instructor's ability to convey the material and managing the course, the effectiveness and the amount of the materials, the degree of change felt in their pronunciation and other related questions. The first specific point that they refer to was the word" awareness" of learning language:

"…This program opened a new horizon to me that I never thought about it before. Now I am aware of different aspects of Persian as well as my own native language. One should learn the points taught if he wants to speak a second language fluently…" (Student comment).

The second point they discussed on was the" improvement of pronunciation":

"…I could correct my pronunciation mistakes. Before attending this course I thought it was impossible to pronounce some words…Now I think that I can try to learn other languages easily …" (Student comment).

The last point that elicited from their feedback was the one we really wished to namely "progression of their self confidence" that could lead to increasing self-esteem, as most of them revealed this somehow but just one idea is put forward here:

"I was ashamed of my Persian speaking in front of others, because I made mistake in stating some words so that the addressee couldn't get my point. This made me crazy and depressed. Now I am practicing and I know how to correct myself. This gives me a good feeling…" (Student comment).

"…With the information and strategies learned from this course I could correct myself confidentially…" (Student comment).

Although the participant evaluated the course positively but they complained that the period of the course regarding the tense materials, was too short. They believed that they needed more time and practice to catch the more satisfactory outcomes. In their reflections, many comments such as" I need more practice", "I am aware of my speaking mistakes but I should keep to practice" can be seen in their different reflections.

Reflection on life skills Program

The participants revealed enormous evidences as reflection to the actions of this course. "Awareness" of "the necessity of obtaining the skills in order to make a change" was among their comments. Some of their comments show the positive results of the training:

"I didn't know that I could learn to hinder my anger before. Previously I deemed that this is an innate characteristics…"(Student comment).

"…I could take advantage of the skill decision making and problem solving a lot .because we all the time are involved with this fact …" (student comment).

The students discussed that the skills could motivate them to think and act about "changes" in their life and came to this conclusion that they are so powerful and their abilities as a human being is very valuable and considerable.

b. The observers' Perspectives

The observers' of the project were two experts on the teaching program that officially observe the different stages of the training plans. After each step of the each program the related observer examined the actions done and discussed his perspectives with the instructor to help the cycles were running in a sound movements, if some steps were misleading and violate to get the goal, he discussed it with the instructor. Some views of the last qualitative analysis of the pronunciation observer in his report are as follows:

"The analysis of data based on the three stages of the course revealed that the student felt very positive about the course and figured out a number of benefits to themselves. Teaching boosted their awareness, pronunciation as well as their confidence and gave them opportunity to speak Persian in front of other better than before."

The observer also reported some shortcomings for the course based on the data. He reported that comparing the pronunciation at the beginning and at the end of the course, the ideal changes were satisfactory but not wonderful. As he reports:

"It goes without saying that polishing the pronunciation of a second language needs a lot of practice and more time .I suggest to follow up the issue over a period to observe the effectiveness of the training."

c. The instructors' Perspectives

The role of the instructors in this research from just teaching moved to research acting as a facilitators and resource person in the management of the research process. By this project, the instructor searched for helping in solving a problem. They functioned as researchers in the collection and analysis data. Both of them searched for bigger objectives

so that their perspectives of the instruction programs always went beyond to solving the problem of self-esteem through their trainings.

Linguist instructor

The aim of teaching phonological aspects of Persian to the participant considered to have benefits to improve Persian pronunciation to become close to some main aims. The instructor analyzed the activities done in this course effective because the feedback collected showed. The instructor reported in detail the results gained with qualitative analysis based on the reflections, here is just a summary list of it:

1. Progression of awareness toward pronunciation of a second language
2. Considerable improvement in Persian pronunciation
3. Progression of self confidence in speaking Persian

Psychologist researcher

The qualitative analysis of the instructor of life skills based on the reflections obtained from different activities. She classified the changes throughout the process as follows:

1. Progression of awareness toward each skill and in general
2. Considerable improvements in learning, using skills in everyday life and relatively become skillful on them
3. Raising motivation in utilizing skills in similar situations
4. Decreasing the previous problems
5. Increasing healthy self-esteem through acquired skills

VIII. Discussion

The objective of this project was to implement and to evaluate a teaching program for non Persian Iranian University students to identify the possibility of desired change in their self-esteem. The findings suggested that the students benefited from participating the courses in practice areas that focused on practice and were taught by both a linguist and a psychologist together.

The researchers faced some limitations in this study. The facts that the study as an action research was not big in scale, the participants were just ten and the context specific teaching and researching team so small, were undeniable. The study may seem not be replicable and generalizable in some other places. Although regarding all these, researchers believe that the project could achieve some valuable results and profound effects on the students. Moreover, because the researchers were also the instructors of the study, this might lead to bias and personal subjectivity in data collection and interpretation. Although we used some devices to eliminate this effect by continuous evaluation of findings and the observers also monitored the activities continuously, but this issue still can be controversial. Furthermore the ethnolinguislic issues had always been challenging and may lead to some other challenging areas such as notion of inferiorization, linguistic rights and tolerance, language policy, cultural differences and so on that are so complicated to deal with. To avoid this also the researchers of the project tried to view the study from just an educational point of view and they viewed Persian as a second language of the participants. There need some different contexts and other related researchers to ascertain whether the teaching programs really helped the participants to make a change in their personality. Additionally we believe that the proposed model of this study can be applicable to other contexts. However, the project needs to implement a follow up program at least for one year.

Collaboration of psychology and linguistics in establishing a change also can be viewed as a limitation of the study. However, we thought that for the specific problem that we identified and for specific participants of the study this approach would be beneficial although there may be some other ways we could not find. The findings also supported this at the end and throughout each stage of the action research. All the time we confronted positive changes along with raising motivation invited us to continue. The sentence "I feel confident to speak" or "Now I know how to behave in different situations" were heard several times in our sessions and these demonstrated that the program had a positive role for this change.

The desired change of self-esteem could be observed through the last reflective reports. One of them stated "I love my own native language, But as an Iranian I love to be fluent in Persian too…" Or " I could find a lot friends now, not just among Kurds…".These are the comments of healthy and high self-esteem people demonstrated to have more confidence than low self-esteem people(McFarlin & Blascovich, 1981, Crocker & Park, 2004), From the beginning we planned for healthy self-esteem not just high self-esteem (Baumeister,et al., 2000; Baumeister, et al., 2003). Our participants at first focused interviews and through Coopersmiths' self-esteem test, before being aware of the purpose and process of the project tried to show off and exaggerated about their abilities. So that some demonstrated to have wrong high self-esteem, Collaboration of two courses was a good chance for them, they practically polished their Persian and at the same time gained some very important life skills that helped them to improve to get a sound position in society and by themselves.The program tried to be structured on reality and the importance of sincere Personal efforts required to build a firm base for taking on new tasks and challenges. In the course of teaching process they honestly strived to get healthy self-esteem through creating some positive changes in their actions and attitudes and we researchers also learned a lot from this program.

Acknowledgement

The authors are grateful to the Kurdish students in participated and the observers of the project all in Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan, for their help, patience and sound comments.

REFERENCES

[1] Atkins, W.R., & Jennings, F. (l971). Development of a life skillscurriculum in community junior colleges. *Junior College Research Review,* 5, (9), 2-6.
[2] Atkins, W. R. (l984). Life skills education: A video-based counseling/learning delivery system. In D. Larson (Ed.) *Teaching Psychological Skills: Models for giving psychology away.* Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
[3] Allport, G.W. (1955). Becoming: Basic considerations for a psychology of personality. New Haven: Yale University Press.
[4] Avery, P & Ehrlich, S (1992). Teaching American English pronunciation. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
[5] Baumeister, R. F., Bushman, B. J., & Campbell, W. K. (2000). Self-esteem, narcissism, and aggression: Does violence result from low self-esteem or from threatened egotism? Current Directions in *Psychological Science, 9,* 141-156.
[6] Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles. *Psychological Science in the Publication,* vol. 4, (1), 1-44.
[7] Baumeister, R. (1996). Should schools try to boost self-esteem? Beware the dark side. *American Educator,* 20, 14-19.
[8] Branden, N. (1969). The psychology of self-esteem. New York: Bantam.
[9] Burns, A (1999). Collaborative Action Research for English Teachers, Cambridge University Press.
[10] Bonet,J.(1997). *Sé amigo de ti mismo: manual de autoestima*. (Ed.) Sal Terrae. Maliaño (Cantabria, España). ISBN 978-84-293-1133-4.
[11] Crocker, J., & Park, L. E. (2004).The costly pursuit of self-esteem. *Psychological Bulletin,* 130(3), 392–414.
[12] DuBois, D. L. & Flay, B. R. (2004). The healthy pursuit of self-esteem: Comment on and alternative to the Crocker and Park (2004) formulation. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*(3), 415-420.
[13] Eaton, J; Wardstruthers, C; Santelli, A (2006). Dispositional and state forgiveness: The role of self-esteem, need for structure, and narcissism. *Personality and Individual Differences* 41 (2), 371–380.
[14] Gill, J.(1980). Indispensable Self-Esteem, In *Human Development*, vol. 1.
[15] Greenberg, J. (2008). Understanding the vital human quest for self-esteem. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 3,* 48-55.
[16] Grundy, S. (1982) Three modes of action research. In S. Kemmis and R. McTaggart (Ed.) *The Action Research Reader, Geelong*: Deakin University Press.
[17] Hilberg, R. S. & Tharp, R. G. (2002). Theoretical Perspectives, Research Findings, and Classroom Implications of the Learning Styles of American Indian and Alaska Native Students [Electronic Version]. ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. Retrieved November 27, 2006 from http://www.ericdigests.org/2003-3/alaska.htm.
[18] Kanu, Y. (2002). In their own voices: First Nations students identify some cultural mediators of their learning in the formal school system. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 48(2), 98-119.
[19] Kemmis, S. and R. McTaggart (1988). The Action Research Planner, Third edition, Geelong*:* Deakin University.
[20] Kemmis, S. and McTaggart, R. (1988). The Action Research Reader. Third edition. Deakin University Press, Victoria.
[21] King, D. (1996-1997). The Effects of Cultural Differences on Self-Esteem and Learning in Students. Pennsylvania Action Research Network [PAARN] 1996-1997.
[22] McFarlin, D. B., & Blascovich, J. (1981). Effects of self-esteem and performance feedback on future affective preferences and cognitive expectations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40,* 521-531.
[23] McNamara, M & Deane, D (1995). Self-assessment as a second language placement instrument. *TESOL quarterly,* 19, 673-687.
[24] McTaggart, R. (1994). Participatory action research: Issues in theory and practice. *Educational Action Research.* 2(3), 313-37.
[25] Maslow A. H. (1987*).* Motivation and Personality (3rd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.
[26] Mecca, A. M., Smelser, N. J., & Vasconcellos, J. (1989). *The social importance of self-esteem*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
[27] Oxford, R. (1990a). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. Newbury House, Boston.
[28] Oxford, R. (2001). Language learning strategies. In R Carter and D Nunan (eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge,166-172.
[29] Porter, J.R. & Washington R.E.(1993). Minority Identity and Self-Esteem. *Annual Review of Sociology,* 19, 139–161
[30] Rogers, C. R. (1961). On becoming a person. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
[31] Rosenberg, M. (1979). Conceiving the self. New York: Basic Books.
[32] Rosenberg, M., Simmons, R. (1972). Black and White Self-Esteem: The Urban School Child. Washington: American Sociological Association.
[33] Swanson, S. (2003). Motivating Learners in Northern Communities [Moose Factory] [Symposium: Native Literacy and Learning: Aboriginal Perspectives: Best Practices]. *Canadian Journal of Native Education*. 27(1), 16-25.
[34] Toulouse, P. R. (n.d). Aboriginal Self-esteem and Identity Supporting Aboriginal Student Success: Self-Esteem and Identity, A Living Teachings Approach, Laurentian University. Retrieved February 25, 2011 from http:/www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/research/toulouse.pdf .
[35] Varasarin, P. (2007). An Action Research Study of Pronunciation Training, Language Learning Strategies and Speaking Confidence. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia.
[36] Wald, D. (1981). The effects of the Adkins life skills program on the employability of unemployed minority youth. (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). New York, NY: Teachers College, Columbia University.
[37] Wallace, M.J. (2000*).* Action research for language teachers, Cambridge University Press, New York.

Tahereh Ahmadipour is an assistant professor in the department of language and linguistics, at Vali-e-Asr University of

Rafsanjan,Iran.She teaches general linguistics and phonology , writing research papers in linguistics and sociolinguistics. Her published works focus mostly on sociolinguistic issues and specifically on language planning and language policy.

Somayeh Hadad Ranjbar is a lecturer of educational psychology at Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan, Iran. She teaches courses in general psychology and holds life skills workshops.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1415-1419, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1415-1419

Spiritually Enslaving or Being Enslaved—On the Female Images in *Song of Solomon*

Feihong Wang
Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautical Industry Management, Zhengzhou, China
Email: efei999@126.com

***Abstract*—This paper aims at analyzing Song of Solomon written by Toni Morrison to show the author's Afro-American feminist tendency. Song of Solomon is a masterpiece that pays close attention to the fate of American black woman. The author mainly use Afro-American feminist criticism as a way to show her own thoughts and black people's song that Solomon wants to fly as the main rhyme to depict a free world for the female black, and analyses and combines the main female images in this novel with the theory closely.**

***Index Terms*—Song of Solomon, Afro-American feminist criticism, spiritual freedom**

I. Introduction

Toni Morrison, an American author, was born Chloe Anthony Wofford in Lorain, Ohio where her parents had moved to escape the problems of southern racism. While teaching at Howard University and caring for her two children, Morrison wrote her first novel, The Bluest Eye (1970). In 1973, she finished Sula. The novel won the National Book Critics Award. After the success of Song of Solomon, in 1988 Morrison received the Pulitzer Prize for the novel Beloved (1987). She was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1993. In her work Toni Morrison has explored the experience and roles of black women in a racist and male dominated society. Morrison has been a member of both the National Council on the Arts and the American Academy and Institute of Arts and Letters.

With the publication of *Song of Solomon* (1977), Morrison gains an international attention. Written from a male point of view, the novel deals with Milkman Dead's efforts to recover his "ancient properties", a bag of gold. *Song of Solomon* explores the quest for cultural identity through an African American folktale about enslaved Africans who escape slavery by fleeing back to Africa. Here Morrison combines poetry, and songs to reveal the story of past generations that seem almost mystical. Though the leading character of the novel is a man, Milkman, but it is easy to see the key role the main female characters Pilate, Ruth and Hagar have played in the process of becoming mature and flying back to his black heritage.

During the recent years, with the extensive attention aroused by this novel in the whole world, many scholars have done a lot of researches on this novel from different perspectives for its increasing popularity in both China and foreign countries.

The most common one is "flight". As Wilfred D. Samuels and Clenora Hudson Weems (1984) have written in their book Toni Morrison: "To Toni Morrison, the worst thing is not being irresponsible to others, but daring not to fly." Here they have overemphasized the victory that flight can bring to black people, not paid attention to the potential risk and tragedy in the flight. In China, Zhang Ying (2001) also discussed about "flight" in her paper The Story of Flight in Song of Solomon.(p.35-37) She mainly introduced how the black people flied back to seek for their root, especially in their mental changes about the future and past.

At the same time, magic realism has been widely used to analyze this novel. For example, Sun Ye (2005) has pointed out in his work On the Magic Realistic Creating Skills in Toni Morrison's novels: "She has used black folktales and names from Bible to make her works full of mystery flavor especially the names which have built the black images successfully and implied their personality and fate." In his paper Magic Realism, Chen Quan (1980) said: "Magic realism has been widely used to analyze the post-modern novels. There is no doubt that Morrison is a master for fully using this skill in Song of Solomon. She has given peculiar names to show the future of the images." (p.40-42)

But in this paper, Afro-American feminist criticism would be used as a starting point to analyze the typical female black images to show the subject implied in the work. In 1970, Toni Cade (2005) put forward Afro-American feminist criticism in her work *The Black Woman* for the first time. (Cade, p.278). It was Bell Hooks who showed the readers that Afro-American feminist criticism had grown up to maturity .In her work *Black Women and Feminism*, Hooks (1981) summarized the three main characteristics of Afro-American feminist criticism as fighting against three discriminations of race, sex and class. (p.175)

This paper aims at decomposing their personalities and finding out the reason for success or failure of their lives, and then reveals the theme that has been implied in the novel. We hope this thesis is helpful for readers to have a deeper understanding of this novel in the view of Afro-American feminist criticism.

II. Pilate—A Hero Protecting Black Heritage

A. Against Racial Discrimination

The first one that deeply influenced Milkman's life is Pilate, his aunt. The first time Milkman was guided to her house just by her song, then attracted by her lifestyle. Through black people's ancient stories and songs, Pilate makes her nephew understand the great wisdom of their race. They should keep their race identity, not abandon it in a modern white world. It is Pilate who transfers their African-American heritage to next generation like a pilot.

As a represent of the author, Pilate shows clearly that if the black people want to exist, except for having the independence of politics and economy, they also should keep their own heritage.

She was a mysterious person without navel when she was born. So people around her were not only afraid of her, but also hated her. When she was 12 years old, she saw a local white man killed her father and robbed their farm. But the hard life taught her how to live independently. She never surrendered to fate, but made a living for her daughter and granddaughter by her own labor. She would make fruit wine but not do the jobs that white people thought black people should do to get an easy life like serving in a white family or prostituting themselves.

Though her family is a female world because there is no man in this family, she has made it for creating a warm harbor for her daughter and granddaughter. There are no furniture, gas, electricity and running water in this family, but they can still enjoy a harmonious life. Most readers have been impressed by the scene that the whole family sang after supper in the candle light.

And she is not interested in material life. She looks down upon money, but when others have difficulties, she would give them her money earned by hard work. Although she is very poor, she still rejects the white's values about money. No poverty can be found in her eyes.

Morrison suggests that Pilate's supernatural powers, great strength, lasting youthfulness, and boundless love come from African-American cultural traditions. Although Pilate suffers the same disadvantages as Macon Jr., she is still able to preserve a link to her family's forgotten past. By singing folk songs about Sugarman's flight, Pilate recreates a past in which her ancestors shed the yoke of oppression.

The historic oral tradition of African-American folklore is one of the major characteristics of black art. It stems from a time when laws prohibited the teaching of slaves and oral communication between the slaves.As an important part of their culture, she never stops singing no matter she was happy or not. It is a direct way for her to show her inner feelings and her beautiful songs always make people taste the charming of black people, which was obviously different from the white.

B. Striving for Spiritual Freedom

After Pilate and her brother goes to a mountain cave, she argues with her brother that they should not take the dead white man's gold away. She would be honest rather than steal others' privacy though she herself is very poor. It is the integrity unselfish help to others that can make her heart peaceful, not the material wealth. She prefers the spiritual freedom as a independent and helpful person than chasing material profit in crafty ways.

Later she determines to get rid of any material temptation in her heart for the peace in her heart. So when she cut off her hair, she comes to think about the problem: "Try to find out how to live? What has value for me? What should I know for live? What is real in the world?"(Morrison, 2001).Finally she finds the answer for herself and she knows she should live every day fully by ignoring material profit and helping others unselfishly. In her life, she laughs out loudly but never smiles. She thinks it is the right way to release the gloom and grief in her heart. It seems a little weird, but she forms a warm family for her children and uses the ancient songs to release her love for both life and her heritage.

Although in some white literary works the black women are depicted as being stupid as a puppet without own ideas and can do nothing but obeying the white people in order to make a fly's-head profit, Pilate, created by Morrison, is full of independence in her mind. She is sure that she is tall and strong and she can protect herself, so she dresses herself up like a man. She cut hair short, wears man shoes and never cries since she was 12 years old. She doesn't live on any man or illegal material wealth to support her daughter and granddaughter.

The most different thing from the negative black figures is that Pilate loves her family and community heart fully. She is always helping others and getting ready to help others at any time. The last words before she died are: "I wish I would know more people. I will give them my love. If I know more, I would love more."(Morrison, 1999).All her life, Pilate gives her unselfish love to the other black and makes a huge contribution to the unity and stability of black community. She has set a positive example to the other black women who have lost themselves in the white's value system and sexual discrimination. She tells the others they can show their values by being independent and helpful. Only by this way can they get spiritual freedom first.

C. Fighting against Class Discrimination

When Pilate breaks up with her brother Macon Dead for the gold, her brother never talks to her. She uses her labor to support her family and lives a poor but happy life. However, her brother has learnt all skills from white people to make money including marry a rich black girl although he doesn't love her. So when they meet again after many years, they belong to different classes. In Macon's eyes, she is dirty, weird and bad for making wine illegally. The first sentence she gets from her brother was: "Can't you just wear like a woman?"(Morrison, 2001).She knows clearly that her brother has become a hypocritical upper class man among the black and it is impossible to change him any more. But after she finds her nephew Milkman is changed by his father, she guides him to dig their black heritage successfully.

At first, in Milkman's eye, father's guide, mother's and girlfriend's love are actually a heavy burden for him. He is never grateful to their care and love for he thought that he should get it without giving first. He does not change his mind until he is attracted by his aunt's free life style and mysterious songs. With Pilate's help and influence, Milkman denies the values from his father that money is the only meaningful thing. It is easy to find out that Pilate makes her nephew get freedom from money and middle class values. Just like a pilot she helps Milkman fly back for their black history and civilization.

In Morrison's works, she is emphasizing the key role that black women have played in the development of history and culture. We can feel the power and charm of black women everywhere. Their braveness and determination to protect their own culture has given us very deep impression.

III. Ruth—Oppressed by Both Husband and Son

A. Living in Husband's Mental Torment

If Pilate is a shining image created by the author, we can say Ruth, Milkman's mother is just the opposite one. She is under sexual discrimination but never trying to break it.

She is born in a quite rich and fame-enjoyed family for her father is a respected doctor. But her husband marries her for money, not for love. Married as a teenager, Ruth stops having sex when she is in her early twenties, because her husband can't stand her. In fact, he goes out of his way to criticize her cooking, her storytelling, and her existence.She is the hostess of Dead family, but a timid one. When her husband talks to her, she can feel the hatred from his each word. He earns respect and affluent lifestyles by depending on the support of the black community, but he betrays his origin and finds a way to escape the painful realities of his spiritually dead life while maintaining his facades as prosperous community leaders.Every day she is scared by her husband's indifference from the beginning and ends up the day with confusion by his indignity. There is always a desperate smile on her face.

She spends the best time of her life in loneliness from 20 to 40, for her husband refuses to live with her. And she never tends to fight against it but stand it. Maybe she is the poorest woman in the world, without friends, love and care for her. Her husband marries her for money, and insults her by saying she has a monstrous relationship with her father also for money.

The description of herself as a "small" woman captures the essence of Ruth's character. "Stunned into silence" by her psychologically abusive husband, Ruth's growth has been stunted, like that of her "half-grown" daughters and the dying maple tree in the side yard. A complicated woman who seems to "know a lot and understand very little", Ruth clings to the memory of her dead father, Dr. Foster, whom she perceives as the only one who ever really cared about her well-being. She is so starved of affection that she will get up in the middle of the night and travel by bus and train nearly an hour and a half to get to her father's grave, just so that she can talk to him.

Although she does not need to work hard for living, the dependence on her husband's money makes her become a slave and lose control of her own life gradually. Her husband uses man's absolute power on wife and turns her into a toy for his son and him. He does not shout loudly, but uses his cold silence and words to torment her mentally. Her life is wasted in watching the golden fish dying everyday. She is aware that her life was just like the tulips growing without sunshine and water and withered in the end.

B. Suffering from Son's Sexual Discrimination

Surrounded by husband's indignity, Rose finds no way to keep on living. With Pilate's help, they two play a trick on Macon. At last she gets pregnant and gives birth to her son, Milkman. However, when she is oppressed by her husband, she gives all her love to her son. Ruth loves Milkman because he represents the last time someone makes love to her, and it is so hard for him to keep alive when in her womb which dues to Macon's insistence that she has to abort. Milkman is her only hope to live, so she doesn't stop nursed him until the boy is 12 years old. That is why her son gets the name "Milkman".

One time when her husband insults her terribly, Milkman helps her and beats Macon. But later Milkman confesses that he does this not for loving mother, but for regarding his mother as a helpless woman. In his mind, women should be gentle, weak and obeying man. In a family, there has been a model for women what they should do or not, even what they should wear and how to talk to man. Rose's husband is not the only master of her fate, but also of her son. She has made the habit to obey her husband and son.

She may love her son without any selfish ideas, but her son just thinks this kind of love is very cheap and easy to get. Her love becomes too heavy for him to bear. Finally her love become a heavy burden for her son and makes him want to run away. She wishes to be a good mother, but her love makes her son become selfish and live a boring life everyday. Milkman also treats his mother and two sisters as servants not family members without any respect.

In her son's opinion, women are weak and helpless. Without men's help and guide, women are unable to achieve anything. Ruth is aware of this point, but she had gets used to it and never tries to change his mind and shows her value as a woman and mother.

She, like many other Deads, is lost at sea, finding solace only in speaking to a dead man, pulled between the world of the living and the deceased. That just shows readers the problems of sexual discrimination which Aro-American aimed at to solve.

IV. Haga—Losing Her Way in Self-cognition

A. *Loving without Spiritual Self-independence*

Hagar, known as Pilate's granddaughter, is also Milkman's girlfriend. At first, Milkman is attracted by her for being innocent and active. She never stops her hot love for Milkman since she was 17 years old until she dies. She is given everything she ever wants, so when Milkman, her cousin and lover of almost fourteen years, dumps her, she goes mad.

When her love become a burden and makes him hard to breathe, her boyfriend just wants to break up with her and leave her. She has a close relationship with Milkman for many years but she does not know his true feelings and his idea about their future. Milkman cares nothing about their future like their marriage. He just wants to enjoy free love and bear no responsibility. He needs the fresh love, not the results he should think about.

So when Milkman is determined to leave her, Hagar becomes desperate. She is confused and can not accept the fact that she is not loved by Milkman. The more she loves him, the more Milkman wants to run away. Hagar does not realize this even when she is dying. She thinks Milkman does not love her just because she doesn't have soft hair like silk, or her eyes are not blue, or her skin is not white like ivory. She tries to kill Milkman and even suicides to threaten him for many times, but each time she fails. Gradually, he gets sick and dies when she is only 36. Her blind love makes her lose both her mind and her way. When she gives up her independence for love, it is determined she would be abandoned by Milkman.

B. *Following the White Culture Blindly*

It is clear that the African immigrants have been deeply influenced by the white people and their culture. The black people are evaluating their words and actions by using the white's traditions as a model. They have lost their racial identity and proud for their own culture.

Hagar is a typical one who is under the influence of the white's aesthetic standard. She regards the white women's appearance features as the symbol of beauty. So when Milkman abandons her, she misunderstands that it is her "ugly" appearance that changed Milkman's heart. In modern society, resorting to their advantages in economy, politics and culture, the white people set white women's appearance features as a symbol of beauty, such as silk-soft hair, white skin or blue eyes. But when she realizes she would never be up to the standard, she becomes immersed in great misery and despair.

When she accepts the white's value system, Hagar refuses to admit the beauty of her own race while she loses self-confidence and proud; on the other hand, it is impossible to turn herself into the white features that she longs for so much. Her great efforts are determined to be in vain. As critic Mori says in his work *Morrison and Womanist Discourse* (Mori, 1999): "the white people mean to shut the door upon black people by setting up these standards which made the black women on the horns of a dilemma. They were broken away from their own race, but they can't fit into the white community." This is the dilemma Hagar is right in. She suffers in the misery and dies in confusion for not finding a way out.

V. Conclusion

Toni Morrison's famous novel Song of Solomon is a successful Afro-American feminist criticism work. The story is about a black man's search for his identity through a discovery of his family history, This paper aims at showing how the Afro-American feminist criticism is used in this novel by discussing about the three main female images she has created: Pilate, Rose and Hagar.

They are not the leading characters of the novel, but they play a significant role in revealing the social meaning of writing this novel. If there weren't these important female images, there would not be successful depiction of the hero Milkman. His story and even his life would become meaningless. Although they don't have the trip to look for the gold and the root of the Afro-American, they have never stopped searching for equality, freedom and love with harsh difficulty.

Pilate is respected for being the moral guide of this novel. Although the narrator rarely focuses on what Pilate feels or thinks, her presence is felt everywhere in the novel. It is more accurate to see her name as a homonym for "pilot." She is frequently leading someone who is in need of guidance, such as the skeleton of her dead father, or Milkman, during his spiritual journey. She represents the typical image of being independent, helpful and full of love which Morrison has always been devoted to create, for she has found a way out for those who are under race, sex and class discrimination.

It is easy to find that Ruth and Hagar do need for the help to get themselves out of the social discrimination and mental blocks in daily life. They just represent the black females who are struggling in a world full of discrimination for the colored people. They hate the unequal treatment in their life but they dare not to break it up, only being tortured to death. At the same time, the readers can study and understand this novel from a different view. They can live their life with happiness, equality as well as spiritual freedom and get inner peace at last.

References

[1] Cade, Toni. (2005). The Black Woman for the first time. New York: New American Library.
[2] Chen Quan. (1980). Magic Realism. *The Forest of Translation*, 1, 40-42.

[3] Hooks, Bell. (1981). Feminism Theory: From Margin to Center. Boston: South End Press.
[4] Hooks, Bell. (1990). Black Women and Feminism. Boston: South End Press.
[5] Mori, Toni.(1999). Morrison and Womanist Discourse. New York: Peter Lang.
[6] Sun Ye (2005). On the Magic Realistic Creating Skills in Toni Morrison's novels. M.D. dissertation, Heilongjiang University.
[7] Morrison ,Toni. (1987). The Site of Memory. Boston: Mas Houghton Miffline.
[8] Zhang Ying. (2001). The Story of Flight in Song of Solomon. *The Journal of Sichuan Institute of Foreign Language*, 4, p.35-37.

Feihong Wang was born in Luohe, China in 1977. She received her master's degree in English literature from Zhengzhou University, China, in 2010.

She is currently a lecturer of English as second language in the School of Foreign Languages, Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautical Industry Management, Zhengzhou, China. Her research interests include British and American literature.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1420-1429, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1420-1429

An Investigation into the Application of Educational Technology at Higher Educational Institutions

Samira Shah
Department of Education, Preston University, Islamabad, Pakistan
Email: sami10star@hotmail.com

Ali Murtaza
Institute of Education, University of Azad Jammu & Kashmir, Muzaffarabad, Pakistan
Email: draliibd@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The title of the study was 'An Investigation into the Application of Educational Technology at Higher Educational Institutions'. The Objectives of the Study were to describe the nature and features of Educational Technology, to evaluate the role of Educational Technology in promoting comprehension learning, and suggest possible solutions to minimize the problems occurred in its application. The sample of the study consisted of Three hundred fifty prospective teacher of Bachelor in Education (B.Ed) in Higher Educational Institutions. Two separate questionnaires were prepared for both the students and the teachers of teachers training institutions. Appropriate statistics were used for the purpose of description, analysis and findings of the received data. Percentage of responses to each item was calculated. Overall mean score of each table was also calculated. The research showed that Educational Technology is significantly helpful to enhance the comprehension learning and motivation of the students. Modern trends in the use of Educational Technology are being developed rapidly at Higher Educational Institutions in Pakistan. Students stated that the teachers should use the modern tools of Educational Technology more. Students also believed that teachers should be well trained regarding the use of Educational Technology. Students said that more facilities may be provided to prospective students in terms of access to tools of Educational Technology. The teachers were also of the view that more Training in the application of educational technology tools should be provided, to improve their capability. The main recommendations of the study are that Educational Technology should be promoted, more facilities should be provided to students in terms of access to tools of Educational Technology. The all components of teaching practice in the Teacher Training Institutions should be well managed.**

***Index Terms*—educational technology, prospective teachers, teacher training**

I. Introduction

Educational Technology's history is traceable back to the end of the Second World War. At that time, Educational Technology emerged as a separate domain of its own. Since its beginning the Educational Technology has passed through three major stages, the first being 'Mass Instruction', second 'Individual learning' and third 'Group learning'. The first stage is concerned with the process of teaching a vast number of people simultaneously by a small number of instructors or trained teachers. Cost effectiveness was the principal target of using mass instruction. All the technical instruments used during that period were in order to provide education to maximum people in minimum time. Thus the use of close circuit camera (CCTV) became very rampant during that era. Over the years, Educational Technology has expanded with hardware. The second stage of Educational Technology was dominated by Individualized learning. Focusing on the concept that the learner should be actively involved in the learning process, the educational technologists and researchers started to devise a variety of individualized learning materials in the form of printed materials, slides, computer programmes, audio materials and models. This second stage was linked to software-suitable leaning materials. The third era of Educational Technology which is also the latest and most recent phase comprises the group learning techniques. The most famous methods used for group learning are as follows: brainstorming, group dynamics, simulations, interactive case studies etc.

Educational Technology in fact is defined as the usage of various types of modern methods, media and materials for increasing the learning and teaching experiences. It deals with the systematic application of the resources of scientific knowledge of the process that each individual has to pass through in order to acquire and use knowledge. Educational Technology can improve the comprehension of the learning process, as it delivers knowledge in a more lucid and concrete matter.

Educational technology is now widely valued for its ability to enhance one of the most significant intellectual developments for students: their emerging ability to think abstractly (Jarrett, 1998, p. 4).

Rowntree (1988, p. 22) defined Educational Technology as systematic way of designing, carrying out and evaluating the total process of teaching and learning and communication and employing a combination of human and non-human resources to bring about more comprehensive instruction.

Hawkins (1996, p. 2) said that schools successfully integrate technology show a clear and meaningful connection between technology and larger educational goals and in promoting teaching. They also experimented on the vision of how technology can improve teaching and learning. Essential to this vision is an emphasis on meaningful and engaged learning with technology, in which students are actively involved in the learning process. Students take ownership of their learning, acting as explorers and producers; teachers function as facilitators and guides.

Technology, when used effectively can encourage collaborative learning, development of critical thinking skills, and problem solving (www.ceo.wa.edu). It can help learners to explore the world beyond the classroom by providing access to vast resources and information, promoting scientific inquiry and discovery, and allowing students to communicate with experts. Technology used for authentic tasks can provide students with opportunities to interact with a wealth of resources, materials, and data sets, and to perform challenging tasks similar to those in careers and out-of-school activities. Educational Technology will have the greatest impact on student learning when integrated into the curriculum to achieve clear, measurable educational objectives.

Russell (1997, P. 257) studied the effects of test administration mode to see whether tests administered on computer versus paper-and-pencil have an effect on student performance on multiple-choice and written test questions. The study found that significantly higher cognitive-level responses are written on computers than those written by hand.

Rochelle (2000, P. 2) identified four fundamental characteristics of how technology can enhance student leaning: (1) active engagement, (2) participation in groups, (3) frequent interaction and feedback, and (4) connections to real-world contexts. They also indicate that use of technology is more effective as a learning tool when embedded in a broader education reform movement that includes improvements in teacher training, curriculum, student assessment, and a school's capacity for change.

The educational role of technology has grown tremendously in several ways proving that technology use is undeniably capable of, and important for, helping in teaching process. Jarrett, (1998, p. 4) noted that: Educational technology is now widely valued for its ability to enhance one of the most significant intellectual developments for students: their emerging ability to think abstractly.

Fox (2005, p. 42) stated that" Educational Technology being infused into the schools is ongoing, unstoppable, and necessary. Thus, educational institutions use and access to new and current technologies is on the rise and more and more states have established technology standards for students, teachers, and administrators. Teachers have begun to use the Internet more frequently as a valuable tool in their instruction: Seventy-seven percent of public schools had a majority of teachers who used the Internet for instruction during the 2003–04 school year, up from 54 percent in 1998-99 … with 73 percent of high-poverty schools and 71 percent of high-minority schools having a majority of their teachers using the Internet for instruction."

Waxman, (2002, P.1) studied the effects of teaching and learning with technology on student outcomes. This meta-analysis examined the data from 20 studies involving approximately 4,400 students. They found that teaching and learning with technology has a small, positive, significant effect on student outcomes compared to traditional instruction

Chickering (1996, pp. 144–145) stated that" the research findings of good practice in innovative educational technology-enhanced and educational technology-delivered education. They determined that there were at least seven factors as follows that were critical in manifesting effective good practice of educational technology use: Encouraged contacts between students and faculty, especially those students who were unwilling to speak out in face-to-face classroom settings, developed reciprocity and cooperation among students allowing for the benefits of peer learning, used active learning techniques that made students active learners, gave prompt feedback, emphasized time on task, communicated high expectations, respected diverse talents and ways of learning."

McCann, et. al.,(1998, pp. 17-18), stated that "one of the key benefits of educational technology is its positive role in overcoming problems of access to university study through providing more flexible opportunities for study." They also stated that according to Alexander and Taylor a key positive contribution the use of technology can bring to university teaching and learning is that it encourages teachers, educational designers and managers to ask questions about the way learning happens. The application and use of Educational Technology promotes study comprehension and interest in learning. McCann, et. al., (1998, P. 17) said that "Technologies offer major opportunities to higher education to enhance the quality, accessibility and cost effectiveness of university teaching. Electronic mail, computer conferencing, and the World Wide Web are strengthening contacts between students and academic staff. Technologies provide increased opportunities for interaction which can usefully provide for joint problem solving, shared learning and enhance face-to-face contact." Higher education considered as productive education. All societies tried to provide all latest infrastructures in this sector which help to promote its quality as per social demands. With the turn of the century, the world has undergone a technology explosion and its use has remarkably increased in the Educational arena too. Due to the increased competition and grandiose challenges, the importance of Educational Technology has also become more important and pronounced. Increased attention is being given to how education is imparted and ways and measures are taken to improve the comprehension of learning. Educational Technology is contributing in improving the standard of education in a big way. Educational Technology and improved learning seems to be strongly connected. Educational

Technology has become an effective and innovative practice which could be used by teachers in order to promote comprehension of learning.

There is an old byword that I hear, I forget; I see, I remember; I do, I understand. Educational Technology pertains to the third part of the byword as it actively involves the student in the learning process making it more comprehensive and concrete.

II. Educational Technology & Higher Education

The use of Educational Technology has increased in Higher Educational Institutions. Most of the Higher Educational Institutions are providing their students with modern tools of Educational Technology. The typical lecture method has almost disappeared. Now teachers can use audio-visual aids, projectors, laptop, computers and multimedia to impart knowledge in a more easy n flexible way. Online courses are available in bulk. Use of Educational Technology has made it possible for those who are keeping down a full time job to get degrees by accessing immense amount of knowledge through the online courses provided by the Higher Educational Institutions." The higher education system and institutions must accord higher priority to ensuring the quality of services and quality of outcomes. Internal quality assurance process of higher education institutions must be strengthened to confirm to international standard of quality assurance" (M.O.E, 2009, p.58) Educational Technology is now being practiced at all academic levels. Its importance cannot be denied in higher education. According to American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (2009, P. 1), Higher Education is the Education beyond the secondary level, especially education at the college or university level.

According to Roblyer M.D (2008, p.8)," Educational Technology is a combination of processes and tools involved in addressing educational needs and problems, with an emphasis on applying the most current tools: computers and other electronic gadgets" Educational Technology attends to the problem faced by the teachers in imparting learning and by the students in acquiring knowledge. Student's basic needs are also catered by Educational Technology. Now students have access to more information and they can study anywhere. Teaching is no more classrooms limited.

III. Methodology

This study evaluated the application of Educational Technology by using Survey Method of Descriptive Research." Surveys may be used for descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory purposes. Survey research is probably the best method available to the social scientist interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly"(Bubbie, E. 1998,p.256).

In order to investigate the application of Educational Technology in promoting learning comprehension, a purposive sample of both male and female prospective teachers selected randomly.

The data was collected from the Universities through the approved questionnaires. Percentage and mean score used to analyze the collected data through the two questionnaires of students and teachers. Conclusion drawn based on results of respondents.

A. Analysis of Data of Questionnaire for Students

Summary of the returned questionnaires (students) is given below:

Population	Sample	Delivered	Received	% Questionnaire Returned
350	350	350	346	99.1 %

Students Responses

S. No	Item	Yes	No
1	Is Educational Technology taught in your study Programme?	97.0% (336)	3.0% (10)
2	Is a white- board placed in your class room?	96.0% (331)	4.0% (15)
3	Is there any Educational Technology Resource Centre available at your Institution?	86% (299)	14% (47)
4	Is a computer provided to each student in the lab?	63% (218)	37% (128)
5	Are you able to work on PowerPoint?	99% (341)	1% (5)
6	Are You able to Works on MS office?	97% (336)	3% (10)
7	Are you using Internet for your studies?	99% (341)	1% (5)
8	Have you ever attended a lecture through video or teleconferencing at your Institution?	75% (259)	255 (87)
9	Is internet facility available in your Institution?	97% (336)	3% (10)

Table 1 show that 97.0% have agreed with the statement while 3.0% have not agreed. Hence, the statement, Is Educationnel Technologies taught in your study Programme? considered as accepted.

Table 2 shows that 96.0% of the respondents have agreed with the statement while 4.0% have disagreed. Hence, the statement' Is a white- board placed in your class room?' is accepted.

Table 3 indicates that 86.0% have agreed with the statement while 14.0% have disagreed. Hence, the statement 'Is there any Educational Technology Resource Centre available at your Institution?? 'is accepted.

Table 4 shows that a huge majority of 63.0% has agreed with the statement while 37.0% were not of the same opinion. Hence, the statement 'Is a computer provided to each student in the lab?' is accepted.

Table 5 indicates that 99.0% have agreed with the statement that they are able to work on PowerPoint while 1.0% has disagreed. Thus, this statement "Are you able to work on PowerPoint? Is accepted

Table 6 shows that the majority of the respondents i.e. 97.0% have agreed that they could work on MS Office while 3.0% did not agree. Hence, the statement 'Are You able to Works on MS office??' is accepted.

Table 7 points out that 99.0% have agreed with the statement that they attended a lecture through video or teleconferencing order while 1.0% did not think the same. Hence, the statement' Are you using Internet for your studies?' is accepted.

Table 8 indicates that 75.0% have agreed with the statement that internet facility was available at their Institution while 25.0% have disagreed. The statement, have you ever attended a lecture through video or teleconferencing at your Institution? is accepted.

Table 9 indicates that 97.0% have agreed with the statement that internet facility was available at their Institution while 3.0% have disagreed. The statement is internet facility available in your Institution? is accepted.

No	Statement	SA	A	UNC	DA	SDA	M. Score
1	Educational Technology helps in improving the cognitive, affective and behavioral type of learning	161	175	9	1	-	4.3
2	Educational tools like computers, multimedia and projectors have become very common in learning at Higher Educational Institutions.	136	199	3	7	1	**4.2**
3	Opportunity in the use of tools of Educational Technology is provided to every student.	76	178	16	69	7	3.7
4	Mostly teachers are well aware with the use of Educational Technology	63	177	20	84	2	3.6
5	Management is very optimistic in the use of modern trends of E.T towards their pupil teachers	74	205	31	34	2	3.8
6	Educational Technology is playing very effective role in promoting students confidence	130	206	6	2	2	4.6
7	Educational Technology helps in increasing comprehension of the students	157	184	5	-	-	4.3
8	The use of Educational Technology helps in increasing the interest and motivation of the students	183	158	4	1	-	3.7
9	The use of Educational Technology helps to improve the scientific approach and technological application in learning	193	144	8	1	-	4.4
10	Educational Technology helps to increase student's overall academic performance and confidence level	192	148	1	4	1	4.4
11	Educational Technology is playing a leading role changing the study habits of the students	195	139	10	2	-	4.4
12	The use of Educational Technology is increasing day by day at your Institution	154	135	15	35	7	4.0

Table 1 Illustrates that 97% have agreed that Educational Technology improves the cognitive, affective and behavioral type of learning while 1.0% has disagreed. 3.0% remained undecided. The mean score 4.3 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology helps in improving the cognitive, affective and behavioral type of learning'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 2 indicates that 96.0 % have agreed that use of projectors and multimedia is increasing at the Higher Educational Institutes while 3.0% have disagreed. 1.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.2 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational tools like computers, multimedia and projectors have become very common in learning at Higher Educational Institutions'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 3 points out that 73.0% have agreed with the statement while 22.0% have disagreed. 5.0% were uncertain. The mean score 3.7 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement, Opportunity in the use of tools of Educational Technology is provided to every student.' Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 4 shows that 69.0% have agreed with the statement while 25.0% have disagreed. 6.0% remained undecided. The mean score 3.6 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement "Mostly teachers are well aware with the use of Educational Technology" Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 5 indicates that 80.0% have agreed with the statement while 11.0% have disagreed. 9.0% were undecided. The

mean score 3.8 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Management is very optimistic in the use of modern trends of E.T towards their pupil teachers'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 6 indicates that 96.0% have agreed with the statement while 2.0% have disagreed. 2.0 % was undecided. The mean score 4.2 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology is playing very effective role in promoting students confidence'. Hence, the statement is accepted

Table 7 indicates that 99.0% have agreed with the statement while 0 percent has disagreed. 1.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.3 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology helps in increasing comprehension of the student'. Hence, the statement is accepted

Table 8 illustrates that a huge majority of 98.0% have agreed with the statement while 1.0% has disagreed. 1.0% was undecided. The mean score 3.7 range in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'The use of Educational Technology helps in increasing the interest and motivation of the students'. Hence, the statement is accepted

Table 9 shows that 97.0% of the respondents thought that the importance of Educational Technology is especially pronounced to ameliorate the scientific approach while 1.0% have disagreed. 2.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.4 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement "The use of Educational Technology helps to improve the scientific approach and technological application in learning" Hence, the statement is accepted

Table 10 points out that 98.0% believed that Educational Technology augment the learning performance of the students by providing them confidence. However, 2.0% of the respondents have disagreed. 1.0% was uncertain. The mean score 4.4 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology helps to increase student's overall academic performance and confidence level'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 11 points out that 96.0% have said that the habits of the students are changing due to Educational Technology while 1.0% has disagreed. 3.0 % was undecided. The mean score 4.4 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement Educational Technology is playing a leading role changing the study habits of the students. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 12 demonstrates that 84.0% have the opinion that Educational Technology is increasing day by day while 12.0% have disagreed. 4.0% was uncertain. The mean score 4.0 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement "The use of Educational Technology is increasing day by day at your Institution" Hence, the statement is accepted.

On open ended question responses received from the respondents as: Teachers should be provided training and they should use tools of Educational Technology more frequently 26% favored the statement, Educational Technology should be promoted. 21%, Educational Technology increases students learning capabilities16%, More facilities should be provided to students in terms of access to tools of Educational Technology 15%, Lectures should be taught through the tools of Educational Technology 11%, Surdents should be provided training on how to use Educational Technology 11%

B. Analysis, Data Questionnaire from Teachers

Summary of the sample

Population	Sample	Delivered	Received	% Questionnaire Returned
97	97	97	94	97%

Teachers Responses

S.No	Item	Yes	No
1	Is Educationnel Technology being taught in your study Programme?	93.0% (87)	7% (07)
2	Is a white- board placed in your class room?	86.0% (81)	14% (13)
3	Is multimedia used while delivering lectures in your Institution?	95% (89)	5% (5)
4	Are you able to work with MS office ?	99% (93)	1% (1)
5	Can you use internet in order to prepare a lecture?	95% (89)	5% (5)
6	Have you ever attended a training regarding the use of ET tool?	85% (80)	15% (14)
7	Are you provided with audio-visual aids facilities for classroom teaching?	93% (87)	7% (7)
8	Is a printer attached with your computer in the office?	85% (80)	15% (14)

Table 1 illustrates that 93.0% are in agreed with the statement while 7.0% was disagreed. Hence, the statement 'Is Educational Technology being taught in your study programme" is accepted

Table 2 mentioned shows that 86.0% were favored while 6.0 % were not in the favor of the statement. Hence, the statement 'Is a white –board placed in your class room? 'is accepted.

Table 3 illustrates that 95.0% supported while 2.0% were not supported. Hence, the statement 'Is multimedia used while delivering lectures in your institution?' is accepted.

Table 4 demonstrates that 99% respondents supported while 1% were not familiar with it. Hence, the statement 'Are you able to work with MS office?' Was strongly accepted.

Table 5 indicates that 95% respondents supported the statement while 5% were disagreed. Hence, the statement 'Can you use internet in order to prepare a lecture? 'Was strongly accepted

Table 6 illustrates that a huge majority of 85% agreed while only 7% were disagreed. Hence, the statement Are you provided with audio-visual aids facilities for classroom teaching? was accepted.

Table 8 demonstrates that 85% of the respondents supported while 15% were not supported Hence, the statement 'Is a printer attached with your computer in the office?' was accepted.

No	Statement	SA	A	UNC	DA	SDA	M. Score
1	Well integration of contents and Educational Technology tools are promoting the conceptual learning	27	65	1	-	1	4.1
2	Educational Technology is usually used in achieving the cognitive objectives of the content	39	51	-	2	2	4.2
3	Tools of Educational Technology are applied to achieve the affective domain of each lesson.	33	56	3	-	2	4.2
4	Educational Technology is always considered significantly in achieving psychomotor domain of the lesson.	47	43	2	1	1	4.3
5	The use of Educational Technology is increasing day by day at your Institution	36	50	2	3	3	4.1
6	Maximum provisions are provided for the use of Educational Technology in the institution	10	79	3	1	1	4.0
7	Modern trends of the Educational Technology are also applied in the institution.	11	68	11	1	3	3.9
08	Maximum opportunities are provided to the pupil teachers in the use of tools of Educational Technology.	17	70	3	2	2	4.0
09	Educational Technology helps in increasing confidence level of the students	22	70	2	-	-	4.2
10	The use of Educational Technology helps in increasing the interest and motivation of the students	37	52	2	1	2	4.2
11	The use of Educational Technology is improving the scientific approach and technological application in learning	47	44	2	-	1	4.3
12	Educational Technology increases student's overall academic performance	51	40	-	-	3	4.3
13	Educational Technology is playing a leading role in changing the study habits of the students	45	44	3	1	1	4.3
14	Proper training in the use of tools of Educational Technology is provided by the Institution time to time	8	67	4	13	2	3.7
15	Teachers face various problems by the administration in the use of Educational Technology	10	28	10	37	9	2.9
16	In future, the use of Educational Technology will be more utilized in teacher training Institutions	28	63	1	3	-	4.2

Table 1 indicates that 98.0% said that Educational Technology helps in conceptual learning while 1.0% has disagreed. 1.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.1 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Well integration of contents and Educational Technology tools are promoting conceptual learning'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 2 Illustrated that a majority of 96.0% agreed while only 4.0% were disagree. The mean score 4.2 falls in the range of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology is usually used in achieving the cognitive objectives of the content'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 3 mentions that 95.0% of the respondents thought that Educational Technology has the capability to affect the affective domain of the lessons while only 2.0% have not shared the same opinion. 3.0 % was undecided. The mean score 4.2 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 4 indicates that 96.0% have agreed that Educational Technology helps in achieving the psychomotor domain of the lessons. However, 2.0% have disagreed with this statement. 2.0 % was uncertain. The mean score 4.3 falls in the range of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology is always considered significantly in achieving psychomotor domain of the lesson.' Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 5 mentioned demonstrates that 92.0% of the teachers were of the view that Educational Technology is used increasingly while 6.0 were not agreed. 2.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.1 falls in the range of agreement which supported the statement "The use of Educational Technology is increasing day by day at your Institution" Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 6 indicates that 95.0% of the teachers accepted that they were provided provisions for incorporating Educational Technology in their lectures. 2.0% however have disagreed. 3.0% was uncertain. The mean score 4.0 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Maximum provisions are provided for the use of Educational Technology in the institution'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 7 indicated that 80% respondents were agreed and only 4% disagreed with the statement "Modern trends of the educational technology are also supplied in the institution" while the mean score fall in the level of agreed. The statement mostly accepted.

Table 8 states that nearly 85% respondents were agreed and only 4% disagreed while the mean score fall in the level of agreed. Hence the statement accepted from the respondents.

Table 9 indicates that 84.0% have agreed that the tools of Educational Technology are incorporated in teaching at their Institute while 4.0% did not share the same view. 12.0 % was uncertain. The mean score 3.9 falls in the range of agreement which supported the statement 'Modern trends of the Educational Technology are also applied in the institution. 'Hence, the statement is accepted

Table 10 illustrates that 93.0% have agreed that teachers and students were encouraged to use the tools of Educational Technology while 4.0% have disagreed. 3.0% were undecided. The mean score 4.0 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'Maximum opportunities are provided to the pupil teachers in the use of tools of Educational Technology.' Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 11 points out that majority of 98.0% of the teachers have agreed with the statement while 0% has disagreed. 2.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.2 falls in the range of agreement which supported the statement 'Educational Technology helps in increasing confidence level of the students'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 12 Illustrates that 95.0% have agreed the use of Educational Technology is very useful in increasing the interest and motivation of the students. 3.0% have disagreed 2.0% was uncertain. The mean score 4.2 falls in the range of agreement which supported the statement 'The use of Educational Technology helps in increasing the interest and motivation of the students '.Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 13 mentions that 97.0% of the teachers thought that Educational Technology helps in advancing the scientific approach. Only 1.0% of the respondents have not shared the same opinion. 2.0 % was not sure. The mean score 4.3 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement 'The use of Educational Technology is improving the scientific approach and technological application in learning'. Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 14 indicates that 97.0% have agreed that Educational Technology helps in improving the academic performance of the students. 3.0%, however have disagreed. The mean score 4.3 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement "Educational Technology increases student's overall academic performance" Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table 15 indicates that 95.0% believed that Educational Technology changes the way in which students learn while only 2.0% have disagreed. 3.0% was undecided. The mean score 4.3 falls in the level of agreement which supported the statement "Educational Technology is playing a leading role in changing the study habits of the students" Hence, the statement is accepted.

Table: 16 States that 89% were agreed and nobody was disagreed while the mean score was 4.2 in the level of agreed Hence, the statement is accepted.

Réponses recieved from the respondents through open ended questions as : The use of Educational Technology maximizes learning35%, The use of Educational Technology should be promoted 21%, More facilities regarding the availability of Educational Technology tools should be provided 19%, Teacher Training Programs should be provided more often 16%.

IV. Summary

The current study was designed to investigate the use of Educational Technology at Higher Educational Institutions, to evaluate the role of Educational Technology in promoting comprehension learning and to identify the problems in the use of Educational Technology in promoting learning understanding and suggest possible solutions to those problems. The research was limited to two areas i.e. Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

The research showed that Educational Technology is significantly helpful to enhance the comprehension learning and motivation of the students. Modern trends in the use of Educational Technology are being developed rapidly at Higher Educational Institutions. There is a significant increase in application of Educational Technology at Higher Educational Institutions. Educational Technology increases the confidence level of the students. Students stated that they wanted that the teachers should use the modern tools of Educational Technology more often in their lectures as they found lecture method very boring. Students also believed that teachers should be provided training regarding the use of Educational Technology. Students said that more facilities should be provided to students in terms of access to tools of Educational Technology. The teachers were also of the view that more Teaching Training Programs should be provided to them so that they can improve their capability to use the modern tools of Educational Technology.

V. Findings

- 98.5% of the students agreed that Educational Technology helps to improve the learning process.
- 99.0% were of the view that Educational Technology helps in increasing the comprehension of the students as it facilitates learning.
- 98.0% indicated that the use of Educational Technology helps in increasing the interest and motivation of the students as the simple lecture method was boring. Students stated that they preferred to learn through the use of multimedia and computer.
- Regarding the nature and features of Educational Technology, a strong majority of 97.0% was of the view that well integration of contents and Educational Technology tools were promoting the conceptual learning in students.
- Majority of students (97.0%) agreed that Educational Technology helped to analyze the characteristics of learning.
- A strong majority of 98.0% of students thought that Educational Technology helped in improving the cognitive, affective and behavioral type of learning.
- Giving further insight into the nature of Educational Technology, 96.0% revealed that Educational Technology helped in logical presentation of the Instructional material.
- 84.0% of the students have agreed that the use of Educational Technology was increasing day by day at their Institution.
- 69.0% of the students have agreed that mostly teachers are well aware with the use of Educational Technology but there was still room for improvement as teachers should be more trained in the use of the tools of Educational Technology.
- A strong majority of 86.0% were of the view that they applied modern tools of Educational Technology in their teaching programs.
- A huge majority of 89.0% agreed that students were encouraged to apply the tools of Educational Technology in their learning.
- 84.0% of the students told that overhead projector and multimedia were provided to pupil and teacher in practical teaching.
- 84.0% of the students agreed that mostly the students got training or presentation with the application of Educational Technology how to prepare the lesson.
- 78.0% of the students stated that students were trained how to select the Educational Technology tools for the contents for making comprehensive quality lesson.
- A strong majority of 96.0% agreed that Educational Technology was playing very effective role in promoting students confidence.
- 97.0% of the students were of the view that the use of Educational Technology helps to improve the scientific approach and technological application in learning.
- 96.0% thought that Educational Technology was playing a leading role changing the study habits of the students.
- 51.0% of the respondents have pointed out that there was a lack of vision as how to use Educational Technology in teaching.
- 77.0% of the students have agreed that Tools of Educational Technology were provided sufficiently in the Institution.
- A huge 97.0% of the students have suggested that adequate use of Educational Technology was the need of the hour at Higher Educational Institutions and Educational Technology should be promoted.
- 86.0% responded that there was an Educational Technology Resource Centre available at their Institution.
- 63.0% pointed out that a computer was computer provided to each student in the lab.
- 26.0% thought that Teachers should be provided training and they should use tools of Educational Technology more frequently.

VI. Conclusions

This study proved from respondents that Educational Technology taught as compulsory subject at Master of Arts in Education level in all higher educational institutions. The use of tools of educational technology is being improved day by day. Students and teacher showed their deep interest in the use of educational technology while some problems were shown in the management side to providing the tools for prospective teachers. This study also deducted that students are not get practical training in the use of tools at appropriate level. Hence, there is need to improve the provision of practical application of educational technology tools. Some reservation noted from the students that all teachers are not well qualified in the use of Educational Technology tools. Whereas, the teachers of higher educational institutions suggested that provision of teacher training into the use of educational technology should be provided as changing the modern trends. Research indicated that the use of modern tools help to promote the students confidence and comprehension regarding concept and application of thoughts. It shows the environmental changes effects the students thinking and their study style as well.

VII. Recommendations

On the basis of the findings and conclusion, the following recommendations are made:

1. The use of Educational Technology should be promoted in the institutions
2. More facilities should be provided to students in terms of access to tools of Educational Technology.
3. Lectures should be taught through the tools of Educational Technology.
4. Students should be provided training on how to use Educational Technology.
5. More facilities regarding the availability of Educational Technology tools should be provided.
6. Teacher Training Programs should be provided more often regarding Educational Technology should be diminished.
7. Effectiveness of Educational Technology depends on teacher teaching skills
8. Seminars should be arranged to highlighting the nature, features, benefits and uses of Educational Technology at Higher Educational Institutions.
9. More computers should be available to the students in the laboratories.
10. Modern trends in the application of Educational Technology should be implemented.
11. Educational Technology is the need of the hour, so should be promoted not only Higher Educational Level but also at Graduates and Under-Graduates Levels.
12. Teachers should be provided training and they should use tools of Educational Technology more frequently

REFERENCES

[1] Babbie Earl.(1998). The Practice of Social Research 8th Edit International, Thomson Publishing Service Ltd. Baird.

[2] Chickering, A. W., & Ehrmann, S. C. (1996). implement the seven principles: Technology as lever, San Francisco; AAHE Bulletin

[3] D. E., & Fisher, M. (2005). Neomillennial user experience design strategies: Utilizing social networking media to support "Always On" learning styles. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 34 (1), 5-32.

[4] Fox, E. (2005). Tracking U.S trends, Education Week, 24(35) James, R. & Beattie, K. (1996). Expanding Options: Delivery Technologies and Postgraduate Coursework, Evaluations and Investigations Programme, Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Canberra; Australian Government Publishing Service.

[5] Hawkins, J., E.M. Panush, & R. Spielvogel. (1996). National study tour of district technology integration (Summary report), New York: Center for Children and Technology, Education Development Center.

[6] Jarrett, D. (1998). Integrating technology into middle school mathematics: It's just good teaching. Portland, OR; Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

[7] MacCan et. Al. (1998). Educational Technology in Higher Education. Retrieved from http://tls.vu.edu.au/learning_and_teaching/guidelines/vu9/educational%20technology%20in%20higher%20education%20vu9.pdf on 12.05.11 at 1200

[8] M.O. Education. (2009). National Education Policy 2009. Islamabad, Federal Ministry of Education.

[9] Mukama. E (2008). Information and Communication Technology in Teacher Education: Thinking and learning in computer-supported social practice. Ed 1:1. LiU-Tryck: on 14.05.2011 at 1455

[10] Roblyer, Edwards, and Havriluk, M.D., Edwards, Jack, & Havriluk, Mary Anne. (1997). Integrating Educational Technology into Teaching, Merrill, Upper Saddleriver, NJ.

[11] Rochelle, J.M. Pea, R.D., Hoadley, C.M., Gordin, D.N. and Means, B.M. (2000). Changing how and what children learn in school with computer-based Technologies. USA. The Future of Children, 10:2, Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs.

[12] Rowntree, D. (1988). Educational Technology in Curriculum Development, London; Harper and Row Ltd.

[13] Russell M. & Haney W. (1997). Testing Writing on Computers: An Experiment Comparing St Student Performance on Tests Conducted via Computer and via paper and pencil. Retrieved fromhttp://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_7100/is_4_12/ai_n42544226/ on 6.05.11 at 1500

[14] Waxman, H. C., Connell, M. L., & Gray, J. (2002). A quantitative synthesis of recent research on the effects of teaching and learning with technology on student outcomes. Naperville, IL: North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

Samira Shah is M.Phil Research Scholar in the department of Education Preston University Islamabad, Pakistan. She received her Master of Arts in Psychology from University of the Punjab, Lahore. She is much interested in research and development of Educational Psychology.

Ali Murtaza is working as Assistant Professor, Institute of Education, University of Azad Jammu & Kashmir, Muzaffarabad. He received his Ph.D. (Education) from UIER, University of Arid Agriculture Rawalpindi, Pakistan and M.Phil (Education) from Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad. Pakistan. He wrote two books and several research articles. He is particularly interested in teachers training, practical teaching and educational research. He is Approved Ph.D Supervisor of Social Sciences by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan. (HEC)

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1430-1435, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1430-1435

A Survey on Metacognitive Strategy Use in College Oral English Study under Internet Environment—With a Case Study of Guilin University of Technology

Wen Xu
College of Foreign Studies of Guilin University of Technology, China
Email: titixuwen@yahoo.com.cn

***Abstract*—This paper researches on the metacognitive strategies use in oral English study under Internet environment, among the non-English major students of Guilin University of Technology. The writer studies the metacognitive strategy problems existing among the students, which has, to some extent, hindered an efficient and effective improvement or their oral English proficiency. To solve these problems, the writer proposes some suggested solutions on how to develop their metacognitive strategies, in hope that online oral English learning will play a decisive role in improving students' oral competence.**

***Index Terms*—metacognitive strategies, oral English study, Internet environment**

I. Theoretical Basis

As is known, metacognition is one major direction of complex mental functions, which refers to one's knowledge about cognition and the ability to manage and direct one's learning and thinking. Only when learners have developed metacognitive awareness, are they able to control their learning process consciously, conducting self-reflection and self-evaluation. O'Maliey and Chamot (1990) points out that metacognitive strategies control the use of cognitive strategies and to great extent, the failure or success of learning depends on the failure or success of the use of metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are important for effective learning.

Metacognitive strategies are sequential processes that one uses to control cognitive activities, and to ensure that a cognitive goal has been met. These processes help to regulate and oversee learning, and consist of planning and monitoring cognitive activities, as well as checking the outcomes of those activities.

Metacognitive strategies play an important role in language learning, as students need to know which strategies to use and when to use them. However, scholars have differed opinions on the classification of metacognitive strategies.

According to O'Malley & Chamot, metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task and evaluating how well one has learned. They are put into three categories, namely planning, monitoring and evaluation. The questionnaire of the present study is on the basis of O'Malley & Chamot's classification of metacognitive strategies.

II. Research Methodology

This chapter will present the method used in the study, research questions, the choices of subjects, as well as the data collection and data analysis.

A. Research Questions

1. What's the general condition of the use of metacognitve strategies by students learning to speak under Internet environment?
2. Are there any significant differences between male students and female students in the aspect of using metacognitve strategies?
3. What's the correlation between the strategy use and students' learning proficiency?

B. Subjects of the Questionnaire

The subjects of present study are non-English major undergraduates from Grade 2009 and 2010 in Guilin University of Technology. In order to collect representative sampling, the research adopts randomly stratified sampling method to distribute the questionnaire. There are altogether 186 undergraduates randomly selected to complete the questionnaire and 166 of them were found to be valid (availability rate of the questionnaire nearly accounting for 90%).The participants are from 4 classes in 2 departments (2 classes form Civil Engineering Department of Grade 2009 and 2 classes from Department of Management of Grade 2010), majoring in different subjects.

C. Instruments

A questionnaire is used in the study to collect data. To avoid language barrier, all questions in the questionnaire are translated into Chinese. The questionnaire includes 2 parts. The first part including three items is designed to find out background information of participant, such as grade, major and gender. The second part is composed of questions on metacognitive strategies use under Internet environment.

D. Data Collection

The questionnaire papers were handed out to the students with the help of their English teachers in June, 2010. Before answering the items, all the subjects received uniform instructions given by the author as to how to fill out the questionnaire in order to minimize confusion. They were informed that the questionnaire was not a test and that their responses would be used for research purpose only. After 20 minutes, questionnaire papers were collected and 166 of them were found to be valid.

Later in July, with the help of the computer, the author accumulated the data of each questionnaire and then calculated the percentage of the data. All these quantitative data will be stated in the next chapter.

E. Data Analysis

The questionnaire is arranged on a 5-point Likert Scale, which ranges from strongly agree (5 points), agree (4 points), neither agree nor disagree (3 points), disagree (2 points) to strongly disagree (1 point). After the sorting-out of these data, the data analysis is processed in the following steps.

(1) Descriptive statistics analysis is done to know students' general situation of oral English learning based on metacognitive strategies under Internet environment. The percents of the whole questionnaire are worked out.

(2) Percents of each category in the questionnaire are calculated to get specific picture of students' oral English learning based on metacognitive strategies under Internet environment.

The purpose of the study is to find out the use of strategies of non-English major students when they learn oral English under Internet. The results of the questionnaire and the interview will be discussed in details in the following chapter.

III. Major Findings

The use of metacognitive strategies in oral English learning under internet environment is varied. Yet we can still find something in common in the use of metacognitive strategies. In this chapter, based on the statistical analysis of the data, the results of the questionnaires and the information from the interview will be presented in relation to the three questions of the study one by one.

A. Overall Analysis of Students' Metacognitive Strategies Use in Oral Learning under Internet Environment

Overall Descriptive Statistics of Students' Metacognitive Strategies Use in Oral Learning Under Internet Environment

Strategies	Percentage				
	1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)	5(%)
Objective strategies	3.35	58.38	17.63	13.42	7.22
Planning strategies	2.4	44.48	26.82	21.08	5.22
Organization strategies	5.1	33.88	22.80	29.92	8.3
Monitoring strategies	4	44	23.82	23.08	5.1
Evaluating strategies	59.56	14.48	8.68	15.2	2.08
Average percent	14.882	39.044	19.95	20.54	5.584

The table shows the overall percentage of students' metacognitive strategies use in oral learning under Internet environment. (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). Of the 5 strategies, the percentage of using organization strategies is the highest, which is up to 8.3, and the percentage of using evaluating strategies is the lowest, which accounts for 2.08. The percentage of using objective strategies is slightly lower than that of evaluating strategies use. Compared with the former two strategies, the percentage of planning strategies use and monitoring strategies use are almost the same wake, for their scores are 5.22 and 5.1 respectively.

The result indicates that the overall student's metacognitive strategies use in oral English learning under Internet environment is relatively low. The average percentage of meatacognitive strategies use is only 26.124 (20.54% agree, 5.584% strongly agree); however, more than half of the students (39.044% disagree, 14.882% strongly disagree) don't employ metacognitive strategies when they practice oral English under Internet. Generally speaking, the students lack awareness of using strategies to help them learn and they learn aimlessly without specific goals, let alone monitor their learning process and do self-evaluation.

B. Differences between Male Students and Female Students' Metacognitive Strategies Use in Oral Learning under Internet Environment

OVERALL STATISTICS OF MALE STUDENTS' METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES USE IN ORAL LEARNING UNDER INTERNET ENVIRONMENT

Strategies	Percentage				
	1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)	5(%)
Objective strategies	6.35	51.26	21.5	15.42	5.47
Planning strategies	7.18	51.35	25.05	12.23	4.29
Organization strategies	3.6	29.56	21.89	38.95	6
Monitoring strategies	5.72	46.23	21.54	20.66	5.85
Evaluating strategies	50.66	15.62	15.47	14.34	3.91
Average percentage	14.702	38.604	20.49	20.32	5.104

Male students are the ones who lack ability of self-control and self-monitoring, which can be reflected from the figure of Table. When it comes to evaluating strategies, 50.66% of male students support traditional evaluating method. They lack self-evaluation ability, for only 3.91% of students strongly agree.

From the above analysis we realize that the general condition of male students' metacognitive strategies use under Internet is not satisfying. But the frequency of using organization strategies is obviously higher that of other strategies, which conveys the information that male students are not afraid of making mistakes and they are brave to speak up what they want.

C. Overall Statistics of Female Students' Metacognitive Strategies Use in Oral Learning under Internet Environment

Strategies	Percent				
	1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)	5(%)
Objective strategies	2.61	25.14	21.17	36.23	8.85
Planning strategies	2.13	29.8	22.05	37.56	8.46
Organization strategies	4.7	43.59	26.76	20.75	5.20
Monitoring strategies	5.27	42.4	23.95	22.38	6
Evaluating strategies	50.65	14.62	14.37	15.78	4.58
Average percent	13.072	31.11	21.66	26.54	6.618

The figures in the table shows that the most frequently used strategy is planning strategy winning the support from 46.02% (37.56% plus 8.85%) female students. The next strategy in frequency is objective-setting strategies, with a percentage of 45.08% (36.23% plus 8.85%). Compared with the former two strategies, the rest three are slightly weak, for their percentage are around 20. And the lowest is evaluating strategies with a percentage of 20.36.

In the previous parts, the author presents an overall descriptive statistics of male students' and female students' metacognitive strategiy use in oral English learning under Internet respectively. If we compare the two tables, some differences can be inferred, which will be stated in the following.

Firstly, the general condition of female students' metacognitive strategies use in oral English learning under Internet is 7% higher than that of males. It seems that more and more female students realize the importance of using strategies and apply strategies into their study process consciously.

Secondly, female students use planning strategies the most and use evaluating strategies the least. Quite different from female students, the male students use organization strategy the most and use evaluation strategy the least. It is obvious that both male and female students don't like to use evaluation strategy. Females prefer to set up goals and make plans to fulfill them. They learn oral English under Internet with strong intention. Male students are good at organizing their learning process. Both male students and female students lack ability to regulate and evaluate their learning process.

D. Relationship between Metacognitive Strategy Use and Oral English Learning Proficiency

The author makes a comparison between male students and female students' general condition of meatacognitive strategies use and make the conclusion that the strategy the girl students used is more frequently than boy students. The divergence in the use of metacognitive strategy can lead to the differences in testing scores. With the final examination as an example, the average score of girl students is higher than that of boy students'. On a tentative basis the research results suggest that girl students acquire more satisfying scores than the boy students due to the metacognitive strategies they use in the process of learning.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR COLLEGE ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING AND LEARNING UNDER INTERNET ENVIRONMENT IN THE NIGHT OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

A. Implications for Oral English Teaching

1. Improving the Construction of Speaking Material

The construction of speaking material is the basis for oral English teaching under Internet. In the network context, the teaching of oral English cannot be implemented without the assistance of some appropriate speaking materials. College English teachers are badly in need of oral-English autonomous learning materials. At present time, in GUT, a database has been set up for storing oral-English leaning materials; however, it is of no help. On the one hand, the materials are so limited that they couldn't satisfy the needs of student's study; on the other hand, all these materials are designed in

almost the same model which is not suitable for students with varied personalities and learning styles. Owing to the insufficiency of speaking materials and imperfect design, it affects students' learning efficiency to some extent. So, the construction of speaking materials should be improved in following two aspects: (1) the database should be very plentiful and teachers should constantly enrich it with good teaching and learning materials. It should contain abundant materials with different subjects, such as cultures, tourisms, politics, economies and etc. and the materials should be presented in varied forms such as in the forms of news, dialogues and passages etc. (2)The design of oral learning database should meet students individualized needs to the maximum. Students' differences are significant, in the areas of cognition, affective situation, age, language learning aptitude, motivation, learning style, personality and etc. The author is in the hope that the construction of the English network learning database should adhere to this principle: training mode or training method should cater for sex differences and personality differences. The database can be divided into different modules, for example, listening check-up, pronunciation imitation, role play, and tongue twisters. Vivid designing and organization of the materials are needed to arouse students' initiatives to learn oral English under Internet.

2. Strengthening the Monitoring Strategy Training on Students

According to Stern (1975), a learner who hopes to be successful in language learning should follow ten specific principles; one of them is self-monitoring and critical sensibility to language use. However, as is found out in last chapter, students of GUT lack the awareness of using monitoring strategies to regulate their learning process and progress from their mistakes, which finally hinder students' ability to improve oral English learning proficiency. So the monitoring strategy training on students in oral English teaching under Internet is important and urgent.

The monitoring strategy training on students in oral English teaching under Internet should be strengthened in three aspects:

The first is to instruct students to self- monitor their learning plan and regulate the plan accordingly. Many students, who managed to develop plans properly from the aspect of content to the allocation of time and the choice of methods, can not persist owing to the lack of necessary monitoring and poor self-discipline. Students can make such a plan as improving his/her pronunciation and intonation of speaking in this term or this month, and the teacher will offer guidance for the student to monitor his/her learning process.

The second is to guide students to cultivate self-monitoring methods, including keeping diaries, which is a reflective, first-hand account by a student of his/her language learning experience, and his/her reflection on reaction to the process. Besides, it is useful to guide students to write stage summary, which summarize his/her progress or limitations of a certain kind of stage. The teacher's supervision, by pointing out the students' limitations, is also beneficial to students' oral English learning. From self-monitoring, students can check, verify and correct his/her errors in the course of oral English learning task , and learn to appreciate his/her oral production while it is taking place.

The third is to direct students to strengthen self-monitoring on their autonomous learning process under Internet. Teachers should create a harmonious and supportive classroom atmosphere in oral English class under Internet, and teachers' role can be changed from teacher-centered into student-centered.

3. Strengthening the Evaluating Strategy Training on Students

Evaluating strategy training is a key step for metacognitive strategies training on students. Self-evaluation can help students have a better control over the whole learning process and evaluating strategy training on students can be strengthened in the following two aspects.

First of all is to make students aware of the importance of self-evaluation .It is the fact that students are dependent on teachers' evaluation all the time, we can infer from the previous analysis on students' evaluating strategies use, that students scarcely make self-evaluation and they tend to rely on their teachers' and fellow students' evaluation, which are the most traditional ways in oral English assessment. In this way, scores are used to judge the level of students' oral English. They never take self-evaluation seriously. But according to Oxford's (1990) metacognitive strategies theory, self-evaluation enables the students to have a constant and subjective comment on their own study, which in turn, will make them more conscious of their process and more confident and interested in study. Correct self-evaluation can help learners seek more realistic and appropriate learning strategy. So it is of vital importance for teachers to train students to use self-evaluation strategies.

Then, two methods can be adopted, namely 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' to train students' evaluation ability. To be more specific, the teacher's and classmates' evaluation can serve as guidance and reference when a student makes evaluation of himself. Conversely, the self-evaluation can affect his teacher's and classmates' evaluation to some extent. To sum up, a student can adjust his self-evaluation according to the evaluation of different sources and thus gain a clearer picture of his own achievement and problems.

B. Implications for Oral English Learning under Internet

Some implications for oral English learning under Internet environment will be illustrated in part, including improving students' awareness of using metacognitive strategies, arousing students' learning interest of oral English, and improving students' autonomous study ability in oral English learning under Internet.

1. Improving students' Awareness of Using Metacognitive Strategy

Wen Qiufang's (1995) research on metacognitive strategies shows that there are great differences in using metacognitive strategy between the students who succeed in learning and the students who are the losers in learning.

The former has a strong awareness of using metacognitive strategy, adhering to strict plan of English learning and learning on their own initiative; however, the latter has a slim awareness of using metacognitive strategy and they just learn blindly and passively. So it is critical to improve students' awareness of using matacognitive strategies in oral English learning.

There are two ways for students to improve their awareness of using metacognitive strategies in oral English learning.

(1) To enrich students' knowledge and experience about metacognition. Students' metacognitive ability is greatly related to their metacognitive knowledge. When teaching, the English teachers should have awareness to impart metacognitive knowledge and strengthen the application of knowledge in learning activities. At the meantime, the teachers should stir up students to have metacognitive experience by using situational teaching method and increase the precision of experience step by step. By dong so, the students' metacognitive ability can be improved.

(2) To create harmonious and democratic feedback conditions. During the teaching process, the teachers should create harmonious and democratic feedback conditions for students. Not only can each student freely evaluate the fellow students' learning ways and strategies, but also they are willing to accept the evaluation given by others. Based on this condition, the teachers should drive students from teacher-based feedback to student-based feedback and gradually to instruct students to foster a good learning habit and therefore, they can really master the way to learn metacognition straetegies.

2. Arousing Students' Learning Interest in Oral English

Interest is the best teacher for learning English. In traditional teacher-based oral English teaching classroom, the teacher is the center of the class and traditional teaching pattern should be like this: first of all, the teacher tell the students what the topic is for that day; then, what patterns and useful sentences students should remember and use to develop the topic; the following 10 or 15 minutes are for students to prepare in pairs or in groups; the last is the show time. You may find that it is a weird phenomenon that some students are always to be elected as representatives to state their ideas of groups and some students are always keep silent in oral English class room. So, gradually, to some students, oral English become dumb English, they lose interest in learning English bit by bit. They have no interest in the topic because the topic sometimes seems too out of date; they have no interest in speaking because they are frightened to being laughed at by their fellow students due to their accents. Therefore, stirring up the learning interest in oral English learning under Internet environment is a major concern and learning under Internet environment seems as the best solution.

Under Internet environment, without the restriction of traditional teaching materials, teaching methods and even teachers themselves, the learners can choose to learn materials they are fond of based on their learning level and their needs. What's more, students' interest can be stirred up by the vivid images of materials and the materials are excellent both in illustrations and texts. Internet environment provides a freedom space for students to acquire knowledge they are interested in.

The highlight of learning oral English under Internet environment is its timely interaction such as the interaction between learners and computers, interaction between teachers and learners and interaction between learners. More chances and time are given to the interaction between learners and computers via learning under internet environment. The major ways for interaction between teachers and learners are E-mail, discussion zone, BBS and MSN, sometimes, interaction can be made by phonetics and video. Students can state ideas freely in discussion zone without being afraid of losing face; especially in discussing their favorite topics. Teachers can join in QQ zone which is set up by students and talk to them every now and then to find out students' hard questions. Students are interested in talking with teachers in QQ Zone because it seems that teachers become more friendly and closer, just like a common friend. Students have interest in learning everything interesting in the Internet, and teachers should encourage them to develop their oral English on-line.

3. Improving Students' Autonomous Study Ability in Oral English Learning

The illiterate in the future are no longer those who aren't capable of reading words, but those failing in knowing how to learn. It is a trend that fostering independent learners is the ultimate goal of education. Independent learners are the learners who learn autonomy. Holec(1981), who remains a prominent figure within the field of autonomy, defines learners autonomy as the ability to take charge of one's own learning. Huttunen(1982) thinks that autonomy learning means a learner is fully autonomous when he is working individually or in a group, taking responsibility for the planning, monitoring and evaluation of his studies. In a word, students will take an active part in making decisions about their own learning, which includes setting goals at the begging of their learning processes, monitor the pace of progress during their learning processes and evaluate the outcome at the end of their learning processes.

To cultivate students' autonomous study ability in oral English learning under Internet, first of all, teachers can design a questionnaire like "what kind of topic I would to learn in oral English class?" "What kinds of method I would like to use to learn oral English?" "I would like to do what out of class and I will improve my oral English by…. etc.? Teachers distribute questionnaire via Internet and students answer the questionnaire and summit to teachers via Internet. This can help students realize that it's themselves rather than others to make decision about their own learning and make goals explicit.

Then, students should have more opportunities to monitor their own learning processes. Teachers can make a form

which containing such questions as “Do I remember the words and useful expressions learned in oral English class?” “Do I finish the oral assignment?” “Do I make progresses in oral English learning?” etc. and pass them to students via Internet. A week or two weeks later, students are required to fill in the form and hand in via Internet. This can help students realize that it’s themselves who monitor their pace of learning processes and regulate them. Students should improve their autonomous ability by self-evaluation. With the help of Internet, Instead of traditional evaluation methods, students can check their oral English proficiency whenever and wherever. Such as there are some small quizzes on line for students to check their vocabulary. If students want to have perfect accent, they can choose a famous person whose accent they admire, they can download recordings of his/her from Internet, and imitate the way he or she speaks. They can send their recording to teachers by QQ or E-mil, and without giving specific marks, teachers only assess whether their accent is more standard than before or not.

REFERENCES

[1] Brown, A. (1987). Metacognition, executive control, self control, and other mysterious mechanisms. NJ: Erlbaum.
[2] Cohen, A. D. (1998). Strategies in teaming and using a second language. NY: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
[3] Chamot, A.U. (1987). The learning strategies of ESL students. Cambridge: Prentice-Hall
[4] Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[5] Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and Cognitive Monitoring: A new area of cognitive developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34, 906-911
[6] Holec, H. (1981). Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
[7] Huttunen, I. (1982). Towards Learner Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning in Senior Secondary Schools. Oulu: Acta Universitatis Ouluensis
[8] Stern, H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 31, 304-318.
[9] O’Malley &. A. U.Chamot. (1990). Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[10] Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. New York: Newbury House.
[11] Wen Qiufang. (1995). The different learning methods used by successful learners and unsuccessful learners. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 3, 61-66.

Wen Xu was born in Guilin, China in 1971. She received her Bachelor’s Degree in linguistics from Guangxi Normal University, China in 1994.

She is currently a lecturer in College of Foreign Studies, Guilin University of Technology Guilin, China. Her research interests include teaching theories and British literature.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1436-1444, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1436-1444

Task Complexity and Its Implication for Pedagogy

Mohammad Hossein Yousefi
Department of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran
Email: mhh.yousefi@gmail.com

Ebrahim Ghorban Mohammadi
Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Khorramabad Branch, Lorestan, Iran
Email: ebrahimqm1354@yahoo.com

Mansour Koosha
Department of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran
Email: mansourkoosha@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—The purpose of the present paper was to present the rationale for the Task-based Language teaching and discuss its significance within the SLA approaches to language teaching. First, different approaches to Task-based language teaching research and practice were discussed, then the notion of 'Task Complexity" has been touched upon and different models for estimating task difficulty or Task Complexity were mentioned. Attempt, then, was made to elaborate on the empirical studies within the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2003, 2005, 2007). Finally, the implications of Task Complexity for SLA research and pedagogy were widely discussed.**

***Index Terms*—task-based teaching, task complexity, cognition hypothesis, second language acquisition**

I. Introduction

In recent years there has been a considerable research interest in tasks, both as a construct and as a research instrument (Kuiken and Vedder, 2007). In task-based research four major approaches can be distinguished (Robinson 2007a): (i) a psychological, interactional approach, influenced strongly by the work of Long (1985); (ii) a sociocultural approach, represented by the work of researchers like Lantolf (2000) and Swain (1995); (iii) a structure-focused approach, where tasks are designed to elicit the use of a particular structure feature (Van Patten, 1996), and (iv) a cognitive, information-theoretic approach (Skehan 1998, 2001; Robinson 2001a, 2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007a) (Cited in Kuiken and Vedder 2007).

Tasks have, over the past 20 years, become well established as a unit of design in a communicative curriculum. They are designed to engage learners in realistic communication on the grounds that engagement in communicating meaning is likely to lead to implicit learning (Crabbe, 2007). Research on task design attempts to find variables in task design that will lead to recognized second language acquisition processes such as negotiation or noticing (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003). Tasks, and more specifically their components, characteristics, different types, and implementation conditions, have been the focus of much recent research (Albert and Kormos, 2004).

The great advantage of tasks is that they allow for learner engagement in realizing the communicative potential of the encoded semantic resource (Widdowson, 2003) and the most important role for a language task is to confront learners with certain language problems in completing the task (Long, 1985).

Nunan (2003) pointed out that task-based language teaching is an approach to the design of language courses in which the point of departure is not an ordered list of linguistic items, but a collection of tasks. It draws on and reflects the experiential and humanistic traditions as well as reflects the changing conceptions of language itself.

Among three aspects of task-based pedagogy, to Robinson (2001a), task complexity is the task dependent and proactively manipulable cognitive demand of tasks. Different criteria for task complexity, Robinson (2001a) believes, provide a basis for decisions about sequencing tasks in a task-based syllabus as well as a framework for studying the effects of increasing L2 task complexity on production, comprehension and learning.

Despite the increasing number of different models for determining task complexity (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Brindley, 1987; Brown & Yule, 1983; Candlin, 1987; Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987; Rahimpour, 1997, 1999), Robinson's model (2001b, 2007a), seems to the present researchers that, meets the requirements of what Robinson (2001b) calls 'theoretically motivated, empirically substantiable, and pedagogically feasible sequencing criteria to syllabus design'. Robinson (2001a) also believes that this framework is a more operatioalizable framework for studying task complexity and for the design of language learning materials and task-based syllabuses since it draws on some previous SLA research as well as on some current work in applied cognitive psychology (Robinson, 2001a). He, further, relates this

framework to issues in the study of memory, attention, and processes implicated in 'focus on form' during task performance.

It should be noted that there is no consensus over any established criteria for sequencing and grading tasks. According to Robinson's model (2001b, 2007a), which seems to us more comprehensive, tasks with many similar elements, in There-and-Then condition, and with higher reasoning demands are more cognitively complex, compared to tasks with few easily distinguished elements, in Here-and-Now condition, and with no or less reasoning demands. His *resource-dispersing* facet of task complexity, also, predicts that giving learners no planning time, doing two tasks simultaneously, and having no or little prior knowledge about the task in question contribute to the cognitive complexity of tasks. Many studies have, empirically, lent support to these predictions of the Cognition Hypothesis (Lee, 2007; Michel et al., 2007; Rahimpour, 1997, 1999; Gilabert, 2005, 2007; Robinson, 1995a, 2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007a).

II. Significance of the Studies on Task Complexity

The ordering of different tasks has prime importance in task-based instruction, as authors working within this framework argue that language learning and teaching should be sequenced by means of tasks; therefore, tasks form the basis of the curriculum (Albert and Kormos, 2004). No doubt, information about the cognitive complexity of tasks will be of prime importance to syllabus designers and language teachers adhering to TBLT (Gilabert, 2005, 2007; Rahimpour, 1997, 1999;Robinson, 2001b, 2007a). Seen from the same angle, Robinson (2001a) relates task complexity, cognitive defined, to options in syllabus design and to other issues in the implementation and assessment of task-based instruction.

The Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a) claims that tasks should be designed and sequenced for the learners on the basis of increase in their cognitive complexity. And these designs and sequencing decisions should be the basis of the task-based syllabus (Long 2007; Long and Crookes 1992; Robinson 2007a; Van den Branden 2006). Moreover, Skehan and Foster (2001) believe that issues of cognitive complexity have important implications for our understanding of how attention is deployed during task completion.

One of the reasons behind this research is the need to bring together the explanations of L2 production, views of pushed output, noticing and learner uptake together and integrate them into an account of how task complexity affects performance.

III. Rationale for Task-based Language Teaching

Task-based language teaching focuses on the ability to perform a task or activity without explicit teaching of grammatical structure (Rahimpour, 2008, p.50). Such an approach, it is argued that, creates more favorable conditions for the development of second language ability than does an approach that focuses on the explicit teaching and learning of the rules of the language alone (Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987; Rahimpour, 1997, 1999; Robinson, 1995a, 2001b).

Recently, there has been a growing interest in task-based language teaching (see Bygate 1999; Bygate et al., 2001; Crabbe, 2007; Long, 2007; Skehan, 1998a; Van den Branden, 2006; Willis and Willis, 2001). This is because 'task' is viewed as central to both syllabus planning and methodology (Willis and Willis, 2001); a valid 'unit of analysis' in syllabus designs (Candlin, 1987; Long, 1985, 1996, 2007; Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 2005a, 2007c), and it facilitates 'noticing' of L2 linguistic forms (Schmidt, 1990, 2001). Moreover, underlying each task is a series of learning opportunities (Crabbe, 2007), and it is a device which can lead to implicit learning (Ellis, 2003).

The rationale for task-based teaching (TBT) comes from different camps; Ellis (2003) provided psycholinguistic rationale, whereas, Skehan (1998a, 1998b, 2002, 2003a, 2003b) took a more cognitive approach to advocate it (see Ellis, 2000). In Widdowson's terms (2003), Skehan provided the most comprehensively theoretical rationale for task-based learning. Skehan (1998a, p.95) pointed out that "as an approach to instruction, TBT is theoretically defensible and practically feasible. The assumption here, then, is the fact that transacting tasks will engage naturalistic acquisitional mechanisms, cause the underlying interlanguage system to be stretched, and drive development forward".

Elsewhere, Skehan (2002, p.293) suggested that a task-based approach is generally based on language use, that the language learning problem is how learners, from such use, develop a system of rules, and that individualization is an important aspect of the learning situation.

From different perspective, Ellis (2003) listed three arguments in favor of task-based syllabi. According to him, "the rationale for task-based syllabuses that has been advocated by SLA researchers draws on a variety of arguments. First, it is based on the theoretical view that instruction needs to be compatible with the cognitive processes involved in L2 acquisition. Second, the importance of learner 'engagement' is emphasized. And third, tasks serve as a suitable unit for specifying learners' needs and thus for designing specific purpose courses".

In line with the cognitive approaches to language learning, Robinson (2003b) forcefully argues that task-based pedagogy facilitate the cognitive processes involved in second language production (performance) and acquisition (development), and their relationship (p.46). Similarly, Prabhu (1987) views language development as the outcome of natural processes and argues against focus on language form as inhibiting language learning.

As proponents of Focus on Forms, Long and Crookes (1992, p.43) pointed out that "tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners – input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty". Furthermore, according to a more SLA perspective to advocacy of TBT, issues such as learnability, the order of acquisition of particular L2 structures, and the implications of the input, interaction and output hypothesis are central issues (Lynch & MacLean, 2000).

Skehan (2002), moreover, advocates TBT by stating that task-oriented approach stems from three main sources: First, evidence from more naturalistic studies suggests that learners in such situations do not follow the sequences that are typically expected in classrooms, and in language teaching materials. Second, SLA strongly suggests that language development involves the growth of an interlanguage, a rule-based system which reflects the learner's appreciation of the patterns of the target language which must be learned. And third, there is a need to build in opportunities for individualization of instruction, so that learners who are at different stages can profit in relation to the point which they have reached.

More importantly, one of the main advantages of task-based instruction is that well-designed tasks can facilitate noticing of L2 syntax, vocabulary, and phonology that may lack perceptual and psychological saliency in untutored conversational settings and so may go unnoticed and unlearned (Schmidt, 1990).

The best documented application of a task-based approach is probably Prabhu's procedural syllabus (Willis & Willis, 2001). The Bangalore project, the communicative teaching project, took place from 1979 to 1984 and was based mainly on the premise that language form can be learnt in the classroom solely through a focus on meaning, and that grammar construction by the learner is an unconscious process (Prabhu, 1987).

IV. Task Complexity

Robinson (2001b) argues that task complexity is the result of the attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task to the language learner. Robinson (2007, p.210) regards task complexity as differences in intrinsic cognitive processing demands of tasks which will explain within-learner variation in successfully completing any two tasks (such as doing simple addition versus calculus, or doing the simple versus complex intentional reasoning task). Ellis (2003, p.351) believes that task complexity is the extent to which a particular task is inherently easy or difficult. Different dimensions of task complexity are *code complexity*, *cognitive complexity*, and *context dependency*.

A. Research into Task Complexity

Robinson (1995a) lists three theoretical frameworks for task complexity. According to him, the theoretical framework for the proposed task complexity is based on research into first language acquisition (e.g., Brown & Bellugi, 1964), research findings from second language development (Meisel, 1987), and functional linguistic theory (Givon, 1989).

It is a widely accepted idea that research into complexity of second language tasks is necessary to pedagogical decisions regarding the grading and sequencing of tasks for the purposes of syllabus design (Gilabert, 2005, 2007; Long 2007; Rahimpour 1997, 1999, 2008; Robinson, 1995a, 2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007a, 2007a; Robinson and Gilabert 2007; Van Den Branden 2006). Skehan (1998a, 1998b) reiterates that knowledge of task difficulty provides the teacher or syllabus designer with information about the level of challenge that a task is likely to contain, a level which the teacher will then have to match his or her knowledge with that of the students who will do the task. Skehan (1998), also, provides rationale for estimating task difficulty: "the rationale for estimating task difficulty is twofold, firstly, tasks of appropriate difficulty are likely to be more motivating for learners as they feel that they are required to meet reasonable challenges, and secondly, considering that attentional capacities are limited, tasks of appropriate difficulty mean that learners will be able to overcome the difficulties put upon their attentional resources".

In par with the above arguments, Skehan (1998b, p.134) argues that: "If the appropriate level of task difficulty is chosen, there is much greater likelihood that noticing will occur, that balanced language performance will result, and that spare attentional capacity can be channeled effectively".

Researching in the framework of the Cognition Hypothesis, Rahimpour (1997) is of the belief that criteria for distinguishing the difficulty of second language tasks are an important issue for SLA researchers, syllabus designers, and second language instructors who are concerned with implementing task-based proposals for syllabus design.

Like other researchers working in the cognitive framework (Rahimpour, 1997; Skehan, 1998a; Robinson, 2007c), Gilabert (2005) relates the construct of task complexity to the syllabus design by stating that, "the concept of task complexity was born from the need to establish criteria for sequencing tasks in a syllabus from easy/simple to difficult/complex in a reasoned way that will foster interlanguage development."

Apart from application in syllabus design, Robinson (1995a) rightly points out that the emergent debate about task complexity promises to be an important site for the development of comprehensive theories of second language acquisition. Additionally, Robinson and Gilabert (2007) argue that research into the effects of task complexity aims both at pedagogic applications of findings regarding the effects of task design and sequencing decisions on learning and performance, and also at the deeper understanding of the second language processing and learning mechanisms that

cause these effects. To sum up, all the above statements by the authoritative figures in SLA highlight the significance of task complexity in implementing task-based pedagogy.

It is widely accepted that information about manipulating the complexity of tasks can be used to guide decision-making about sequencing in task-based approaches to syllabus construction (Rahimpour, 1997, 1999; Robinson, 2001b, 2003b, 2005a). Robinson (2001b) and Gilabert (2005) have, also, made a case for basing sequencing decisions in task-based approaches to syllabus design on distinctions between the cognitive demands of tasks which contribute to their relative complexity. Having demonstrated that the complexity of tasks exert a considerable influence on learner production, Robinson (2001b) argued that sequencing tasks on the basis of their cognitive complexity is to be preferred over sequencing decisions based on task difficulty or task conditions.

Robinson (2001b, 2005a, 2007), also, holds the view that factors affecting perception of difficulty (such as anxiety) are difficult or impossible to diagnose in advance of pedagogy task performance, and are problematic as a basis for a priori prospective decisions about sequencing tasks. However, task difficulty factors are important to assess on line, and modifications to decisions regarding syllabus. Robinson also suggests that decisions about task conditions will largely be motivated by the needs analysis; so task difficulty factors play little role in sequencing decisions.

As pointed out by Gilabert (2005), task complexity is the result of the preoccupation with grading and sequencing tasks in a principled way in a task-based syllabus. Thus, information about the effects of task complexity on language production and interlanguage development are important because they help syllabus designers to design tasks from simple to complex, in a way that they gradually approximate real world tasks. More importantly, Robinson (2001b) argues that cognitive complexity is a robust and manipulable influence on learner production, and is therefore a feasible basis for design and sequencing decisions which operationalize a task-based syllabus.

Of three sets of factors discussed in task-based teaching (task complexity, task conditions, and task difficulty), Robinson (2003b) reiterates the fact that complexity differentials should be the sole basis for proactive pedagogic task sequencing in task-based approaches to syllabus design. However, Candlin (1987) and Nunan (1989) have based arguments for difficulty variables, such as motivation to perform, and anxiety about performing tasks, in sequencing and grading tasks. Still, some others, such as Prabhu (1987), have argued that task sequencing should be based on differences in task conditions (e.g., from closed, information gap, to open opinion gap tasks).

B. Task Complexity and L2 Development

Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007) claims that increasing the cognitive demands of tasks along certain dimensions will: (a) push learners to greater accuracy and complexity of L2 production in order to meet the greater functional and conceptual communicative demands they place on the learner; (b) promote interaction, and heightened attention to and memory for input, so increasing learning from the input; (c) cause longer term retention of input; and that (d) lead to automaticity and efficient scheduling of the components of complex L2 task performance.

More importantly, the Cognition Hypothesis predicts that along resource-directing dimensions more interactive complex tasks will result in greater amounts of interaction, and negotiation for meaning. Following Long (1996), the Cognition Hypothesis claims that such negotiation provides a content for attending to problematic forms in the input and output, and additionally that on complex versions of tasks, there will be greater attention to, and uptake of forms made salient during provision of *reactive* Focus on Form techniques such a recasts. Alternatively, where *proactive* Focus on Form is provided, for example in the form of pre-modified input to the task, then it similarly claims there will be greater use of this on complex, versus simpler task versions (Robinson and Gilabert, 2007).

C. Different Models for Determining Task Complexity

There have been a wide variety of models or criteria for estimating task complexity in the literature on task complexity, each highlighting one dimension of a task at hand (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Brindley, 1987; Brown & Yule, 1983; Candlin, 1987; Candlin and Nunan, 1987; Long, 1985; Prabhu, 1987; Rahimpour, 1997, 1999; Robinson 2001, 2007). However, it seems to the present researchers that the latter one is more comprehensive as well as theoretically motivated and practically oriented. Because of the limitation of scope, some of these models briefly will be discussed but the Robinson's model (2001b) will be given the focal attention with respect to the research done in the field.

Brindley (1987) suggested that the following factors will determine the complexity of what the learner has to do:

1- Relevance:

Is the task meaningful and relevant to the learner?

2- Complexity:

How many steps are involved in the task?

How complex are the instruction?

What cognitive demands does the task make on the learner?

3- Amount of context provided prior to the task:

How much prior knowledge of the world, the situation or the cultural context is assumed in the way the task is framed?

4- Processability of the language of the task:

Is the language that learners are expected to produce in line with their processing ability?

5- Amount of help available to the learner:

How much assistance can the learner get from the teacher, other learners, books or other learning aids?

6- Degree of grammatical accuracy/contextual appropriacy:

How 'standard' does the task require learners to be? And,

7- Time available to the learner;

How long does the learner have to carry out the task?

Brown and Yule (1983) have devoted a noticeable attention to task difficulty. They suggested that listening tasks can be graded with reference to *speaker*, *intended listener*, *content*, and *support*. When listening to a tape, the fewer the speakers, the easier the text will be to process. Following one speaker will be easier than following two, and so on. With respect to the intended listener, they propose that texts, especially 'authentic' texts which are not addressed to the listener, may be difficult to process. As far as 'content' is considered, they suggest that specialized vocabulary which is unfamiliar can be a source of difficulty. And finally, by 'support' they mean the provision of visual cues to a listener that facilitates the cognitive load of the listening task.

Prabhu (1987) provides the following factors for determining difficulty:

1. *Information provided*: the amount and type of information handled will affect difficulty.

2. *Reasoning needed*: the number of steps or cognitive operations (e.g. deduction, inference, or calculation) will affect difficulty.

3. *Precision needed*: difficulty increases with the degree of precision called for.

4. *Familiarity with constraints*: learners' knowledge of the world and familiarity with purposes and constraints will affect difficulty.

5. *Degree of abstractness*: working with concepts is more difficult than working with the names of objects or actions.

Anderson and Lynch (1988) identify a range of factors which influence difficulty;

1. the sequence in which information is presented;
2. the familiarity of the listener with the topic;
3. the explicitness of the information contained in the text;
4. the type of input;
5. the type and scope of the task to be carried out; and,
6. the amount of support provided to the listener.

Rahimpour (1997, 1999) proposed Task Complexity in terms of temporal reference Here-and-Now vs. There-and-Then as determinants of task difficulty. He also indicated that second language narrative Here-and-Now tasks, requiring tense, context supported references are simpler than those requiring references to objects and events which are isolated in time and space. Rahimpour (1997), also, argued that second language narrative tasks requiring references to the There-and-Then are more cognitively complex than tasks requiring references to the Here-and-Now. This complexity will be manifested in the narrator's oral production in terms of accuracy, linguistic complexity, and fluency (Rahimpour, 2002, p.13).

Candlin (1987) proposed a set of criteria by which tasks might be selected and graded. These are:

1- *cognitive load*: this concerns the general complexity of the content of the task, including the naturalness of the sequence it may be required to follow;

2- *communicative stress*: more stressful tasks are seen as those which involve pressure which comes from the interlocutor, either because s/he is a native speaker or because of superior knowledge or proficiency;

3- *particularity and generalizability*: this concerns the clarity of the goal of the task, as well as the norms of interpretation;

4- *process continuity:* this derives from the familiarity of the task as well as the learner capacity to relate the task to tasks they are familiar with; and,

5- *code complexity and interpretative density*: the first concerns the complexity of the linguistic code, while the latter is concerned with the complexity of the operations which need to be carried out on such a code.

Skehan (1998a, 1998b) has proposed the following criteria for determining task difficulty:

1. *Code complexity*

-linguistic complexity and variety
-vocabulary load and variety
-redundancy and density

2. *Cognitive complexity*

a. Cognitive familiarity
-familiarity of topic and its predictability
-familiarity of discourse genre
-familiarity of task

b. Cognitive processing
-information processing
-amount of 'computation'
-clarity and sufficiency of information given

-information type
3. *Communicative stress*
-time limits and time pressure
-speed of presentation
-number of participants
-length of texts used
-type of response
- opportunities to control interaction.

Candlin and Nunan (1987) have also suggested that activities can be graded according to the general cognitive demands they make. Their scheme has four levels as follows:

1. Attending and recognizing; the learner's ability to notice what kind of input he or she is being confronted with.

2. Making sense; the learner's ability to make sense of the input as a particular example of language, determining, for example, what particular language it is, how it is organized , how it is classified and patterned.

3. Going beyond the information given; the learner's ability to hypothesize, infer, and make judgments, for example, about the underlying meaning of the test.

4. Transferring and generalizing; the learner's ability to extrapolate from any particular texts of same type, genre, and purpose, or transferring the information gained from and about a particular text to other texts that may be of other quiet different structure, channel and purpose.

D. Task Complexity and the Cognition Hypothesis

As stated earlier, in a series of arguments advanced by Robinson, he proposed the most comprehensive criteria for determining task complexity (Robinson 2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007a, 200c). It should be mentioned that his criteria, also called Triadic Componential Framework or the Cognition Hypothesis, is not free of critique. Kuiken and Vedder (2007) have questioned the validity of the framework as being not empirically researchable and operationally feasible. Unlike Kuiken and Vedder (2007), the present researchers assume some authority to this framework and believe that further research is needed to investigate some dimensions of the Cognition Hypothesis.

Robinson (2001b) pointed out that the development of theoretically motivated, empirically substantiable, and pedagogically feasible sequencing criteria has long been acknowledged as a major goal of research aimed at operationalizing task-based approaches to syllabus design. To this end, he proposed distinctions between cognitively defined task *complexity*, learner perceptions of task *difficulty*, and the interactive *conditions* under which tasks are performed. Robinson (2001b, p.29) strongly argued that Task Complexity is the result of the attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner. These differences in information processing demands, resulting from design characteristics, are relatively fixed and invariant. Task complexity will aid explain within learner variance when performing any two tasks. It is also argued that the cognitively simpler tasks will involve a lower error rate, and/or be completed faster.

The criteria proposed by Robinson (2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007a) are divided into two categories; *resource-directing* dimensions and *resource-dispersing* dimensions. Resource-directing dimensions are those in which the demands on language use made by increases in Task Complexity, and the increased conceptual demands they implicate, can be met by specific aspects of the linguistic system. For example, tasks which differ along the Here-and-Now versus There-and-Then dimension obviously require the learner to distinguish between the temporality of reference (present versus past), and to use distinct deictic expressions (this, that, here, there) to indicate immediately present, versus absent object (See Rahimpour, 1997).

It is argued that increasing complexity along these dimensions therefore has the potential to direct learners' attentional and memory resources to the way that the L2 structures and code concepts, so leading to interlanguage development (Robinson, 2003b, 2007a, 2007c; Robinson and Gilabert 2007).

In contrast, increasing task complexity along the *resource-dispersing* dimensions does not direct learners to any specific aspects of language code which can be used to meet the additional task demands (Robinson, 2001b, 2003b, 2005a, 2007a). Taking planning time, or relevant prior knowledge away, or increasing the number of tasks that have to be performed simultaneously, simply disperses intentional resources. Although, increased along these resource-dispersing is important, since it stimulates the processing conditions under which real time language is often used, and practice along them, Robinson (2003b) argues that, facilitates real-time access to an already established and developing repertoire of language, rather than to facilitate new form-function and conceptual mapping in the L2.

In a more recent study, (Robinson, 2007a) adds +/- perspective taking and makes distinction between three kinds of reasoning: +/- spatial reasoning, +/- causal reasoning, +/- intentional reasoning (see Table .3).

TABLE 1:
THE TRIADIC COMPONENTIAL FRAMEWORK FOR TASK CLASSIFICATION-CATEGORIES, CRITERIA, ANALYTIC PROCEDURES, AND DESIGN CHARACTERISTICS (FROM ROBINSON 2007A)

Task complexity (cognitive factors)	Task condition (interactive factors)	Task Difficulty (learner factors)
(classification criteria: Cognitive demands) (classification procedure: Information-theoretic analyses) (a) *Resource-directing variables* making cognitive/conceptual demands	(classification criteria: Interactional demands) (classification procedure: Behavior-descriptive analyses) (a) Participation variables making interactional demands	(classification criteria: Ability requirements) (classification procedure: Ability assessment analyses) (a) Ability variables and task-relevant resource differentials
+/- here and now +/- few elements +/- spatial reasoning +/- causal reasoning +/- intentional reasoning +/- perspective-taking	+/- open solution +/- one-way flow +/- convergent solution +/- few participations +/- few contributions needed +/- negotiation not needed	h/l working memory h/l reasoning h/l task-switching h/l aptitude h/l field independence h/l mind/intention-reading
(b) *Resource-dispersing Variables* making performative/procedural demands	(b) Participant variables making interactant demands	(b) Affective variables and state-trait differentials
+/- planning time +/- single task +/- few steps +/- independency of steps +/- prior knowledge	+/- same proficiency +/- same gender +/- familiar +/- shared content knowledge +/- equal status and order +/- shared cultural knowledge	h/l openness to experience h/l control of emotion h/l task motivation h/l processing anxiety h/l willingness to communicate h/l self-efficacy

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As discussed earlier in this paper, the ordering of different tasks has prime significance in task-based teaching, as scholars working within this framework argue that language learning and teaching should be sequenced by means of tasks; therefore, tasks form the basis of the curriculum (e.g. Albert and Kormos, 2004). No doubt, information about the cognitive complexity of tasks will be of prime importance to syllabus designers and language teachers adhering to TBLT (Gilabert, 2005, 2007; Robinson, 2001b, 2007a). Seen from the same angle, Robinson (2001a) relates task complexity, cognitively defined, to options in syllabus design and to other issues in the implementation and assessment of task-based instruction.

It was argued, based on the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a), that tasks should be designed and sequenced for the learners on the basis of the increase in their cognitive complexity. And these designs and sequencing decisions should be the basis of the task-based syllabus (Long 2007; Long and Crookes 1992). Language teachers and syllabus designer should assume central role for the Task Complexity while designing pedagogical tasks for students. This, in turn, is in favor of finding other criteria along with linguistic factors in syllabus design.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study has a number of pedagogical implications for SLA researchers, syllabus designers, and language testing specialists. Firstly, it was demonstrated that task complexity leads to more learner uptake and consequently more opportunities for Focus-on-Form, for pushed output, and 'noticing', and language acquisition opportunities. Secondly, this study claimed that task-based teaching demands proficient language teachers that should react promptly to the learners' non-target like utterances. Thirdly, the implications of this study for syllabus designers is that cognitive complexity is a more robust and valid criterion for selecting and grading of pedagogical tasks. That is to say, task complexity can be manipulated for the purpose of matching with learners' developmental sequences and their proficiency levels. Furthermore, task complexity can be manipulated in order to optimize opportunities for 'noticing' and for interlanguage development.

As pointed out by Gilabert (2005), the manipulation of task complexity can be combined with an array of pedagogical forms of intervention such as input flooding, recasts or elicitations to achieve higher levels of accuracy. Likewise, Robinson (2001a, 2001b) argues that if increasing complexity along resource-directing variables has the potential to draw learners' attention to the forms in their own production, it can also lead them to focus on the input they receive. Therefore, by careful analysis of task difficulty and integrating the findings in sequencing tasks, syllabus designers as well as instructors can make sure they have provided appropriate material and instruction for enhancing

learners' attention to input and output structures. This learners' attention to linguistic features can lead to a better grasp of the L2 students are attempting to learn.

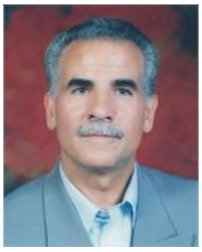
REFERENCES

[1] Albert, A. and Kormos, J. (2004).Creativity and narrative task performance; an explanatory study. *Language Learning*, 54:2, 227-310.
[2] Anderson, A. & Lynch, T. (1988). Listening. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[3] Brindley, J. (1987). Factors affecting task difficulty. In D. Nunan, (Ed.), *Guidelines for the development of curriculum resource* (pp.45-56). Adelaide: National Curriculum Resource Center.
[4] Brown, R., & Bellugi, U. (1964). 'Three processes in the child's acquisition of syntax'. *Harvard Educational Review*. 34: 133-151.
[5] Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1983).Teaching the spoken language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[6] Bygate, M. (1999).Task as context for framing, reframing, and unframing of language. *System*, 27, 33-48.
[7] Bygate, M., Skehan, P. & Swain, M. (2001). Introduction' In M. Bygate, P. Skehan and M. Swain (Eds.).*Researching pedagogic tasks, second language learning, teaching and testing*. Harlow: Longman.
[8] Candlin, C. (1987). Towards task-based language learning. In Candlin, C. & Murphy, D. (Eds.), *Language learning tasks* (pp.5-22). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
[9] Crabbe, D. (2007). Learning opportunities: adding learning value to tasks. *ELT Journal*, 61/2.117-125.
[10] Ellis, R. (2003). Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[11] Gilabert, R. (2005). Task complexity and L2 narrative oral production. Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation. University of Barcelona, Spain.
[12] Gilabert, R. (2007). Effects of manipulating task complexity on self-repair during L2 oral production. *IRAL* (45), 215-240.
[13] Givon, T. (1989).Mind, code, and context. essays in pragmatics. Hillsdale, NJ:Erlbaum.
[14] Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). TESOL methods: changing tracks, challenging trends, *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 59-81.
[15] Lantolf, J (Ed.). (2000). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[16] Lee, S. (2007). Effects of textual enhancement and topic familiarity on Korean EFL students' reading comprehension and learning of passive form. *Language Learning*. 57:1, 87-118.
[17] Long, M. H. (1985). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: task-based language teaching. In K. Hyltenstam and M. Pienemann (Eds.), *Modeling and assessing second language acquisition* (pp.77-99).Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
[18] Long, M. H. (1996). The role of linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia Eds.).*Handbook of second language acquisition*.(pp.413-463). San Diego; Academic Press.
[19] Long, M. (Ed.) (2007). Problems in SLA, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
[20] Long, M. H. & Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design, *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(1), 27-56.
[21] Lynch, T., & MacLean, J. (2000). Exploring the benefits of task repetition and recycling for classroom language learning, *Language Teaching Research*, 4, 221-250.
[22] Meisel, J. (1987). Reference to past events and actions in the development of natural language acquisition. In C. Pfaff (Ed.), *First and second language acquisition processes* (pp.206-224). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.
[23] Michel, M. Kuiken, F., &Vedder, I. (2007).The influence of complexity inmonologic versus dialogic tasks in Dutch L2. *IRAL*, 45, 241-259.
[24] Nunan, D. (1989). Designing tasks for the communicative classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
[25] Nunan, D. (2003). Second language teaching and learning. Boston, U.S.A: Newbery house.
[26] Prabhu, N. S. (1987).Second language pedagogy. Oxford: Oxford university press.
[27] Rahimpour, M. (1997).Task complexity, task condition and variation in L2 oral discourse. Unpublished PhD Thesis. The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.
[28] Rahimpour, M. (1999).Task complexity and variation in interlanguage. In N. Jungheim& P. Robinson (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Pedagogy: Proceedings of the 3rd Pacific Second Language Research Forum*, 2, 115-134, Tokyo: PacSLRF.
[29] Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001).Approaches and methods in language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[30] Robinson, P. (1995a). Task complexity and second language narrative discourse, *Language Learning*, 45(1), 99-140.
[31] Robinson, P. (1995b). Attention, memory and the "noticing" hypothesis. *Language Learning*. 45: 283-331.
[32] Robinson, P. (1996). Task complexity and second language syllabus design: data-based studies and speculations. *Working papers in language and linguistics*, 1(1), 1-15.
[33] Robinson, P. (1998). State of the art: SLA theory and second language syllabus design. *The Language Teacher*, 22(4).7-14.
[34] Robinson, P. (2000). Task complexity and reasoning demands: effects on dyadic NNS- NNS interaction, fluency, accuracy, complexity and incorporation of input. Unpublished data, Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo.
[35] Robinson, P. (2001a). Task complexity, task difficulty, and task production: exploring interactions in a componential framework. *Applied Linguistics*, 22, 27-57.
[36] Robinson, P. (2001b). Task complexity, cognitive resources, and syllabus design: A triadic framework for examining task influences on SLA. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp.285-316). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[37] Robinson, P. (2003b). The cognition hypothesis, task design, and adult task-based language learning. *Second Language Studies*, 21(2), 45-105.
[38] Robinson, P. (2005a). Cognitive complexity and task sequencing: A review of studies in a componential framework for second language task design. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*. 43(1): 1-33.

[39] Robinson, P. (2007a). Criteria for grading and sequencing pedagogic tasks. In *investigating tasks in formal language learning,* Maria Del Pilar Garcia Mayo (Ed.), 2-27.Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
[40] Robinson, P. (2007c). Task complexity, theory of mind, and intentional reasoning: Effects on L2 speech production, interaction, uptake and perceptions of task difficulty. *IRAL*, 193-213.
[41] Robinson, P., & Gilabert, R. (2007). Task complexity, the Cognition Hypothesis and second language learning and performance. *RAL* 45, 161-176.
[42] Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistic*s.11: 17-46.
[43] Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention in P. Robinson (Ed.): *Cognition and second language instruction*. (PP. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[44] Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(1), 38-62.
[45] Skehan, P. (1998a). Task-based instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 268-286.
[46] Skehan, P. (1998b). A cognitive approach to language learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[47] Skehan, P. (2002). A non-marginal role for task.*ELT Journal*. 56/3, 289-295.
[48] Skehan, P. (2003a). Focus on form, tasks, and technology. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 16/5, pp. 391-411.
[49] Skehan, P. (2003b). Task-based instruction, *Language Teaching*, 36, 1-14.
[50] Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (1997). Task type and task processing conditions as influences on foreign language performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), 1-27.
[51] Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (2001).Cognition and tasks. In*' Cognition and second language instruction*,' P.Robinson (Ed.), 183-205. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[52] Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language. In H.G. Widdowson, G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in applied linguistics*: studies in honor of H. G. Widdowson (pp.125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[53] Urwin, J. (1999). Second language listening task complexity. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Monash University, Australia.
[54] Van den Branden, K. (Ed.) (2006). Task-based language education. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
[55] Van Patten, b. (1996).'Attending to form and content in the input'. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 12: 287-301.
[56] Van Patten, B. (2004). Input processing in SLA. In Van Patten (Ed.), *Processing instruction Theory, research, and commentary* (pp.5-31). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
[57] Widdowson, H. G. (2003). Defining issues in English language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[58] Willis, D. & Willis, J. (2001).Task-based language learning. In D, Nunan. & Carter, R. (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to the speakers of the other languages* (pp.173-179). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mohammad Hossein Yousefi is currently doing his PhD at the Islamic Azad University of khorasgan (Isfahan), Iran. His main research interests are; Task-based Language Teaching, Cognitive Complexity, Corrective Feedback, and SLA. He, also, teaches ESP for undergraduate students at the Islamic Azad University of Bonab, Iran.

Ebrahim Ghorban Mohammadi is currently a PhD candidate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch. He has published papers in domestic and international journals. His areas of interest include pronunciation and vocabulary acquisition, EFL reading and writing, language assessment, and psycholinguistics.



Mansoor Koosha is an associate professor of applied linguistics. He received his B.A. in English Language and Literature from Isfahan University, Iran, in 1961. He earned his M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from the American University of Beirut, Lebanon, in 1970. Later, he did his PhD studies in English Education in University of Colorado, U.S.A., in1980. He is currently an associate professor at Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Iran. He has published several ESP textbooks for EFL students in Iran, and has also been the author of several articles in Iran and abroad. His research interests include material development, L2 acquisition, EFL reading, translation studies, and ESP.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1445-1451, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1445-1451

On BE Vocabulary Teaching Embarrassments and Its Strategy

Lin Yuan
Zhejiang Gongshang University, Hangzhou, China
Email: bonyyuan@163.com

***Abstract*—Vocabulary is considered a vital core in learning a language. As the cornerstone of language acquisition, vocabulary acquisition exerts direct influence on language competence and sociability. So it is with Business English teaching. However, due to the specific features of BE lexis, China' BE teachers and learners are faced with spectacular embarrassments. This paper analyzes the present situation and makes proposals to improve it.**

***Index Terms*—Business English, vocabulary teaching, embarrassments, strategy**

I. Introduction

A. Business English

Business English, to be exact, is then English for Business. The terminology "BE" is rather a vague concept with diversified Chinese names.

BE is firstly English, and BE is not a special variety of English, different in kind from other forms. Certainly there are some features which can be identified as typical of a particular context of use. BE looks out to the general public and inwards to a particular business. It resembles GE in one way, but it also contains many words and phrases strange to the laymen. However besides language competence, BE is completed by a combination of business professional knowledge, communication skills, cross-cultural awareness and management skills.

I prefer to define BE as a dynamic and open concept, with its content constantly enlarging, expanding and developing. Facing the challenges brought by the economic globalization and China's entry into the WTO, educators of BE must correspondingly shift their mode of concepts and thinking, and align the teaching objectives with the needs of the modern society and their local condition, so as to cultivate a contingent of integrative talents who not only have a good command of English but also master the fundamentals of business. The modern society needs a diversified contingent of integrative talents. This is the inevitable trend of specific education.

B. BE Vocabulary Features

BE should not and could not repel all language phenomena. It should not repel phonetics, pragmatics, semantics, grammar, rhetoric, discourse, though they are not them. But due to its technical specification, BE has its design features in style, syntax and lexis. BE lexis features are summarized into the following five aspects.

⑴ Many BE expressions are coined with GE (General English) ordinary vocabulary, but make specific and technical sense. The superficial understanding will surely mislead learners. For example:

If a country is exporting more than it imports, it is receiving foreign currency and has a balance of trade surplus.

"balance" in GE means "apparatus for weighing, esp. with scale at each end of beam supported by central pivot" or "counteracting weight or force". In the above sentence, "balance" technically means "difference in value between exports and imports". See more examples:

You have a credit balance of £250.

Unable to be authorized further credits from the bank, the company is driven to bankruptcy.

If we see the expression as "a man of credit", we will respond with least hesitation and understand it as "a credible and respectable man". But in the previous two example sentences, we see "credit" no longer means "belief or confidence", but refers to "a sum of money advanced or loaned by a bank.". And "balance" refers to "remained amount between savings and expenditures".

⑵ In BE, some words are rare and complicated, but they are professional and idiomatic.

a) Foreign trade contracts are typical of adopting old English that are out of use in modern English. They are usually compounded adverbs by adding one or more prepositions to "here", "there", "where" and the like, such as hereby, whereof, thereabout.

b) A lot of uncommonly-used words are used in BE. Most of these can be substituted with ordinary words in GE which are shorter and more readable. However, if these rare words are replaced by common words, the text style may be harmed. for example, the choice of "extraneous ~~ external ~~ from outside" is listed from the rare to the common.

⑶ Frequent use of abbreviations

a) In telex and telegraph, words are shortened and capitalized according to practice for the sake of economy and efficiency, which look more like signals.

YR TLX 28 TH RCVE.

b) As e-mail popularizes, telex and telegraph are gradually replaced. Initialisms are commonly found in BE expressions. Such as DM ---direct mailing, DFS ---duty-free stores

⑷ Fixed terms belonging to a certain industry or business cannot be replaced readily. The existing jargons or neology have formed on the basis of average acceptance, so alternative way to express them will make you a layman or confuse others, though the alternative is grammatically logical and semantically similar.

⑸ Numeric Expressions.

It will never be too precise in BE expressions. In BE, random use of unit words will leave a loophole to cause later loss or trouble. Take measurement system for example. American system adopts short ton (0.9072 metric ton), while British system adopts long ton (1.0161 metric ton). "ton" is ambiguous in BE expression. Time indications should tally with what is stated in agreement without least difference or least room for misunderstanding. The seemingly-trifle preposition plays a vital role. "To be shipped before Dec.5.", and "To be shipped on or before Dec. 5." are of different dispatch conditions.

II. BE Vocabulary Teaching Embarrassments

Many factors play a role in BE vocabulary acquisition, though the exact nature of the role is not always clearly understood and the findings of some research studies seem to contradict what has been standard or ideal practice in BE classroom. Some factors are to do with input, in other words the way in which BE vocabulary presents itself. Other factors are to do with mental process when it is needed to recall or retrieve BE vocabulary. These factors have been considered key and beneficial to GE acquisition, however, in the present BE teaching, these pose embarrassments of BE teaching.

A. Input Factors

⑴ Frequency

BE beginners' ambition is hit by an abrupt turn. They are depressed to find that familiar words suddenly become odd and they are unable to catch the implication of the expressions even with every word known. Seemingly, they are reduced from intermediate learners to ABC beginners.

BE beginners' courses are usually arranged by content of business conducts rather than by grammatical or semantic gradation of difficulty. Each unit focuses on one special subject. Words related to the subject do not necessarily repeat in another topic, though they are all under the jurisdiction of BE. And the beginning unit isn't surly primary enough for BE beginners to cope with.

⑵ Materials

China's BE education is carried out as required or optional courses, lasting at least one semester with students who take it out of general or vague idea. Prior to a course, seldom will teachers meet students to investigate and analyze their needs. Secondly, Unlike a seminar or a training center, there is rare chance for college BE teachers to group students of identical or similar needs and basic training level together and teach on a case-by-case basis. Lastly, material writing is such a time and money-consuming business. Academically qualified as some teachers are, not all can afford the cost.

Therefore, we usually adopt ready-published materials. In most cases, this choice is made on the basis of teachers' capability rather than that of students, or even sometimes by sponsors out of commercial purpose.

⑶ Contextualization

The disparity in GE meaning is due to grammatical structure while the specific concept in BE are confined to the scope it describes. When teaching lexis, we cannot input a comprehensive concept of the word without input of necessary background information. In BE, so many words are so diversified in various scopes and express abstract concepts. It is impossible for teachers to master all and put across a systematic but hyper-general business world to students, which may distract students from word to business.

B. Mental Process

⑴ Depth of processing

Cognitive psychologists have suggested that learners are more likely to remember a word if they have worked on its meaning actively. In other words, a depth of process will aid mental retention.

Students are prone to retention of concrete words, which are easily related to daily life. Enhanced GE vocabulary library can push negative inference or transfer to BE memory. Besides, BE words, esp. terms are mostly abstract concepts to pre-experienced BE learners. Except in reading and paper test, students seldom come into contact with such concepts initiatively. Lack of application in real communication causes the word memory to fade fast.

⑵ Word network

Intermediate BE learners have built a vocabulary library mentally. When mentioning "laugh", they will recall " smile", "giggle", "chuckle", " beam" and so many to describe the meaning shadows. A particular word will gradually

expand into part of a semantic cluster. In GE teaching, teachers are making use of learners' systematical networks of meaning to facilitate word memory.

Since intermediate GE learners are still BE beginners, their BE vocabulary library is right in process of scaffolding. As we all know, not until the connection of Internet can computer display incredible power besides its primary computing capacity. Where to start pre-experienced BE learners' vocabulary scaffolding and how to build associations for abstract BE words deserve careful consideration.

(3) Cultural factors

When we teachers conduct BE teaching to intermediate learners, we are facing a new task to achieve integration of language, culture and business in one single curriculum. It is a reflection of market orientation of foreign language teaching. In the past decade of GE learning, learners are imparted with much information about the history, geography, political and economic systems, customs, etc. of the target language country (mainly the USA and the UK). That is informational culture. In this way, students are cultivated a sense of which the worldwide native speakers of English have about the American and the British culture.

When they are involved in BE learning, achievement culture and behavioral culture must be emphasized more. Hammerly (1982) describes achievement as "artistic and literary accomplishment". An achievement culture is one where people work hard to achieve goals and better the group as a whole. Behavioral culture is "actual behavior plus attitudes, values, etc", including "conversational formulas and kinesics." (Hammerly, 1982). The interpretation of achievement and behavioral culture may be too elusive for academic research purpose, but "conversation formulas and kinesics" and "accomplishment" are the forms of culture most important to real communication. By grasping these, the students will understand the nature of intercultural business communication skills and be able to operate effectively in an intercultural business environment.

The language proficiency gives learners the advantage of easy adaptation to a foreign culture and the business knowledge grants them the power to handle business affairs, and cultural competence in the cross-cultural business communication aids them to take off quickly in business circle.

Business world is a borderless world, which means that communicating with other multiple cultures besides American or British ones is not a luxury, but a necessity. There have been numerous theoretical models of cultural differences and practical guide books and course books based on the research on cross-cultural communications. Normal ways for teachers to introduce the relative cultures are comparison between the target culture and mother culture, oral explanation to a certain language point, illustration by figures or games and so on. Multi-media equipment brings more three dimensional presentations of foreign cultures. However, the armchair strategy is not impressive enough for students to integrate the theoretical input into their actual behavior. Without being involved personally involved, students won't have chance to refer to a prototype.

Another problem is that business communication touches upon so many regional cultures. This requires more roundabout multi-cultural awareness and knowledge of BE teachers and high sensitivity and tolerance of cultural differences and flexibility in dealing with the differences. All these are better accomplished in actual practice outside classrooms.

III. Vocabulary Teaching Strategy

The traditional grammar-translation method had prevailed for quite a long time, and right now many business-oriented language teaching still adopts this method. In BE teaching, G-T method mostly suits students' established model of language learning but it produces more desirable results in written tests than in real business communication. Focusing on full cognitive development, I propose to expand BE vocabulary from the following aspects.

A. Expanding from Comparison

1. Comparison in Meanings

In BE vocabulary teaching, teachers can present a word with its antonyms at the same time. It is more efficient to present licencee with licencer, proceeds with expenses than to present separate words.

It is easily found that the so-called antonyms in BE are more in the complementary or conversive sense. The denial of one means the assertion of the other or vice versa or there is an interdependence of meaning, which implies that one member of the pair presupposes the other member. Thus, they are not simply contraries. The concepts are related closely. Students won't thoroughly catch the isolated sense of one without idea of the other. By presenting them in line can help students remain the unity of opposites simultaneously. Students save the trouble of explaining isolated concepts one by one and students are building up their BE vocabulary domains step by step.

2. Comparison in Word Formation

Conciseness and accuracy will be of primary importance in BE, which is reflected on modification parts well. Complex phrases or sentences with more than one attributive modifications are rare. Highly-compact compounding is preferred in BE. And N+N structures are syntactic tendency.

Such expressions as product line, or marketing mix are not actually new to students, for they have learned almost every single word in GE. However, the reformation and adaptation causes confusion. By comparing with those

expressions in GE style, students catch the core with ease. And this comparison is exerting potential influence on students' awareness of BE word formation. Gradually, they can derive such original and accepted expressions by making use of what they have acquired in GE, students will be more creative in thinking for their own, more capable in expressing themselves comprehensively and more readily receptive to new idea.

3. Comparison in Collocations

Two linguistic items that occur together frequently are collocations. Collocations are institutionalized, fixed and non-compositionalized. Institutionalization means a collocation is conventionalized in a language. Fixedness means that a collocation is frozen as a sequence of words. And non-compositionality means the global meaning of a collocation cannot be interpreted by its component words. These three criteria operate together and present in different degrees in each collocation.

BE professionals have intuition of collocation knowledge from their practical experience, but it is quite problematic for pre-experienced BE learners. Pre-experienced BE learners tend to translate BE collocations out of Chinese literal equivalents intuitively rather than out of its essential business implications. And moreover, their GE knowledge may bring about adversarial interference.

Psycholinguists discover that language is processed, and often acquired in chunks of words, rather than a word-by-word basis. The important thing is to enable students to realize that each language register has its own collocations. Practice overweighs grammar here.

In fact, collocations have specialized meanings, which are different from the meanings of their head words. BE collocations have their stylistic constraints. Most of BE collocations are rare and non-substitutable. The properties of BE collocations challenge learners' confidence in using. Even if learners have a nodding acquaintance with a certain collocation, the fixedness in the form and the pragmatic specifications of the idiom may prevent learners from proper production.

The table above lists some possible alternatives occurring to BE learners. When given the Chinese translation of those collocations, BE learners can soon find familiar synonyms or informal words in GE to express the sense and make grammatically-logical collocations. By distinguishing the deviation from the original meaning, students will comprehend the uniqueness of the BE collocations. Specific and purposeful matching exercises can keep them on the alert for subtle switch of meaning, which is just the prudence required in real business communication.

There is another type of BE collocations prone to causing confusion among pre-experienced BE learners, for those collocations are professional definitions or contain specific implication. Not all can understand open policy or sea protest without second thinking.

The obscure or opaque definitions are abstract and complex, and experience in business will help a lot in acquiring the essential sense of them. As to pre-experienced BE learners, the explanation of one single concept may involve a chain of more complex and systematic introduction to be pre-informed as a premise. So it will be wiser for teachers to accompany students to the large gap between the BE collocations and their corresponding confusing expressions or misunderstanding on the basis of passing on certain business knowledge, which will not go beyond students' head too much to puzzle or bore them. Since the linkage between a multi-word unit and its headword is quite loose, if not absent, students surely need much independent efforts to enhance the comprehension.

4. Comparison in Word Specification

As mentioned above, BE has many rare words in use to meet its formal style. However, much classroom behavior is set within taken-for-granted frameworks of expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs. Facing the BE learners who have grasped a good command of GE but nearly zero command of BE, teachers should lay stress on BE word specification extremely so as not to train students as non-professionals.

Certainly, we do not encourage students to choose rare or unfathomable words to show off their sophistication, but we guide them to spot the right word on the right occasion.

Traditional straight translation or rote learning are proved "easy come and easy go". Words can neither be long retained nor correctly used because students are passively pushed to facing the isolated concepts. By comparison in differential aspects of BE vocabulary with those of GE, students participate personally in the discovery trip. Teachers are like guides who lead students to the spots along and give cues occasionally, and students themselves sense the beauty or hardship at their own pace. Potentially students will one day become backpackers who are capable of an independent trip or even guides.

B. Expanding from the Incidental

Language learning is to a large extent incidental. You can learn a language incidentally, while you are actually thinking about something else. (Hutchinson, 1987, p.129) This indirect teaching of vocabulary assumes that vocabulary expansion will happen through the practice of other language skills, which has been proved not enough to ensure vocabulary expansion.

BE has its specification together with mass popular penetration into everyday life. Consciously or not, more or less everyone touches upon BE, let alone BE learners, by watching TV, reading magazines, walking on the streets and so on. The important thing for BE teachers is to organize students' unconscious bits and pieces in BE pickup into conscious acquisition.

Brands are flashing around our lives. And currently English branding is in fashion. BE learners should not only be sensitive to the brand names or brand marks, but also to their commercial intentions and cultural connotations by understanding the language well. Brands have been so far used mainly for identification. A well-organized brand makes its offering "sure" things in market. "Ivory Soap" under P&G, "Ace Hardware", and "Midas Muffler" are good models. "Ivory" implies the 99.44% pureness of the soap. "Ace" suggests "excellent and outstanding". And by quoting the name "Midas"--- a legendary king who was said to touch a stone and turn it into gold, we easily think of the muffler as a magic tool.

After certain accumulation, a mini-seminar can be held to clarify and enhance students' incidental pickup in bits and pieces. BE teachers encourage learners to observe, to question and to air opinions. BE learners should taste the ingenious tactics in the language use and ponder over the problems and solutions. Of course, brands won't be the only topic. Commercial phenomena can be all brought into issue. In this way, we cultivate students' business sensitivity and flexibility and oblige the learners to use language and thereby to fix the language into the matrix of knowledge in their minds. We can expect a more international commercialization in China due to a better qualified generation of BE learners.

C. Expanding from the Perceptual

University BE learners are mostly pre-experienced in actual business despite their proficient language competence. Classroom teaching equips them with theoretical knowledge awaiting test in practice. That is to say, students' perceptual cognition must be consolidated into rational system.

Chinese students are very likely to confuse "company" with "corporation". When asked about the differences between the two words, we usually get the following explanations:

1) In British English, people prefer "company"; in American English, people prefer "corporation".

2) A corporation is a large company.

3) They actually mean the same and are exchangeable.

The confusion or taken-for-granted frameworks are partly due to the messy English translated name of organizations of China. And even in dictionaries or textbooks, students find various translated English versions at will, such as

the People's Insurance Company of China;

China Ocean Shipping Company;

China National Foreign Trade Transportation Corporation;

International Trust Investment Corporation of China

From the above English versions, we don't see any particularity in choosing the word "company" or "corporation".

The word "company" or "corporation" has been used in China with the introduction of legal form of western enterprises. However, the two words are still being used separately in the laws of the U.S. and the U.K.

According to the Oxford Companion to Law, company is "an association of a number of persons for a common purposes, frequently for the carrying on of a business with a view to profit, and a mode or organization suitable for association too large to operate as partnerships…". In current British law, company excludes the ownership of partnership which is included in Chinese company law. According to the same law, "Corporation: a group of individuals, or a series of the holders of an office, who are deemed in law to be a single legal entity. A corporation is accordingly sometimes called an artificial or juristic or corporate person, as distinct from a natural person."

Things go opposite in America. According to Black's Law Dictionary, "company: union or association of person for carrying on a commercial or industrial enterprise; a partnership, corporation, association, joint stock company." Company is too broad a definition to Americans. Then "corporation: an artificial person or legal entity created by or under the authority of a state or nation, composed, in some rare instance, of a single person and his successors, being the incumbents of a particular office, but ordinary consisting of an association of numerous individuals"(Roberts. W, 1999, p.25). The definition is essentially similar to that of the British one, but American corporation has more categories such as private corporation, public corporation, Eleemosynary corporation and professional corporation.

The above analysis exhort us to be cautious of the deeper implication behind rather than be mislead by the superficial phenomenon. Even a single BE word can contain strict legal regulations, learners with ignorance about the point will fail to meet the challenge both from language and from professions.

To expand students cognition from the perceptual to the rational is a long and tortuous course. We are impossible and inadequate to tell all the truth, but we should spare no efforts to drive students to meticulous thoughts.

IV. Implications for BE Vocabulary Teaching

The traditional focus of BE vocabulary learning for Chinese college students has been on the expansion of BE vocabulary size, which is often meaning driven. Typically, BE learners are encouraged to get a vocabulary as large as possible and they are proud of knowing one particular sense of a BE word. However, our study revealed that, even for primary BE expressions that have been considered common sense to business professional and that are generated from so simple GE words, BE learners' lexical competence is far from proficient. In the current BE teaching in China, more attention is drawn from vocabulary size to vocabulary depth. BE teachers should be made aware of the various levels

and dimensions of BE vocabulary knowledge so that the insights of academic research can find their way into the everyday educational practice. The present study brings us some implications for BE teaching.

Above all, attention to the core of BE should be spotted on BE lexis. As an American saying goes, "We are friends because of differences." GE and BE are a pair of friends, who supplement each other. BE not only caters to professional requirements but also faces the public. It thus in one way resembles GE, but it also contains many words and phrases unknown to the layperson. These distinctions are more to do with lexis and less to do with grammar.

Since BE never goes against the principles of English language, it is wise to exert efforts on the uniqueness of BE---its lexis. Due to its distinct features, BE lexical teaching pattern needs adaptation from that of GE. GE vocabulary teaching centers on the grammatical patterns while the lexical patterns are virtually untouched. Most GE learners therefore copy the lexical patterns of the Chinese corresponding words into those of English words. Sometimes, teachers may be uncertain about some lexical items because of the lack of the native instinct to judge the properness. That imposes a hindrance. With a decade of such GE learning experience, BE learners continue to follow the convention--- they copy the lexical patterns of the corresponding GE words into those of BE words. Those patterns often look stilted, if not totally wrong in business context.

So we should remain the authentic exposure of BE to learners. What BE learners need most is not the recognition of isolated new words but the nativelike and professional mastery of BE words. Concordances from BE corpora, such as Key Words in Business (Mascull,1996) can serve as good texts to cultivate BE learners' insight into the specification of BE lexis. The occurrence of certain partner in the corpora demonstrates whether the pattern is acceptable in a most natural BE environment. In addition, typical mistakes or avoidance in the corpora can foretell what will be likely to happen among learners. In this way, teachers can come up with more needs and effective instructions.

Secondly, a rule learning of fixed collocations is suggested in BE teaching. Many of the phrasal verbs, nouns which one feels one does not have to learn, or learns with little effort are very frequent in GE. However, the recombination of them brings about confusion among learners. In GE, students get accustomed to moving gradually from isolated words into phrases. In BE, students are encouraged to make full and extended use of known words on a recombination basis. BE beginners should learn common collocations, phrasal verbs in particular, as single lexical items. Then they are supposed to find rules in the BE language through frequent application of the chunks. The assumption is that by finding rules one also find restrictions on use and generate new patterns by unpacking their chunks. Rote learning and the construction of rules interact and actively feed into each other.

Finally, BE output is held to be of super importance. Though students always stumble over words in production, they are not really challenged. Unlike GE proficiency which is measured mainly in receptive tests for academic purposes, BE is tested in actual business practice. Knowing what BE professionals do renders more confidence and reference to BE learners than marking a correct choice in a paper test. "Production will aid acquisition only when learner is pushed" (Ellis, 1994, p.282). "Pushing" learners beyond their current performance level can lead to enhanced performance, which may ensure the internalization of BE acquisition or the consolidation of existing competence. BE teachers should push students to an open business environment rather than restrain teaching in a closed classroom. Even a virtual task or presumed occasion can aid learners to move from the semantic processing prevalent in comprehensions to the communicative processing needed for production.

Sometimes, without the innovation of BE testing, teachings' efforts in raising students' consciousness to real production end in vain. To ensure a successful output-oriented vocabulary teaching, a corresponding change in the vocabulary testing is urgently called for. A yes/no test won't help much. BE should be tested in macro aspect. Unlike micro test items as Vocabulary and Grammar in CET Band Four and Six, BE test items should manifest more of learners' in-depth vocabulary knowledge and generactivity. BEC can be a reference model for BE test carried out at university level. The test should achieve a balance among validity, reliability and practicability.

REFERENCES

[1] Aitchison, J. (1994). Words in the mind: An introduction to the mental lexicon (2nd edition). Oxford: Blackwell.
[2] Carter, R. (1987). Is there a core vocabulary? Some implications for language teaching. *Applied Linguistics* 8: 178-193.
[3] Hector Hammerly. (1982). Synthesis in second language teaching: an introduction to linguistics. Second Language Publications.
[4] Hutchinson, Tom and Alan Waters. (1987). English for Specific Purpose NP: Cambridge University Press.
[5] Leech, G. (2011). The role of frequency in ELT: New corpus evidence brings a re-appraisal. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, Issue 1 Vol 4, 3-20.
[6] Lewis, M. (1997a). Pedagogical implications of the lexical approach. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.). *Second language acquisition* (pp. 255-270). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[7] Lewis, M. (1997b). Implementing the lexical approach. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
[8] Nation, P. (1990). Teaching and learning vocabulary. New York: Newbury House.
[9] Liu Fagong, Nan zuomin, (1998), Contemporary International Business English, Chongqing: Chongqing Publishing House.

Lin Yuan was born in Nanchang, China in 1977. She received her Master degree in applied linguistics from Zhejiang Gongshang University, China in 2006.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Zhejiang Gongshang University, Hangzhou, China. Her research interests include intercultural communications and Business English.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1452-1457, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1452-1457

Conceptualization of 'Death is a Journey' and 'Death as Rest' in EkeGusii Euphemism

Damaris G. Nyakoe
Department of Linguistics, Maseno University, Kenya
Email: nyakoed@yahoo.com

Peter M. Matu (corresponding author)
Department of Languages and Communication Studies, The Kenya Polytechnic University College;
Department of Language Management and Language Practice, University of the Free State, South Africa
Email: mainamatu@yahoo.com

David O. Ongarora
Department of Linguistics, Maseno University, Kenya
Email: dvongarora@hotmail.com

***Abstract*—This paper concerns itself with two conceptual metaphors DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST in reference to the dead, death and dying in EkeGusii Euphemism. The metaphors take the two concepts of journey and rest as source domains while death is used as a target domain. EkeGusii euphemistic substitutes are analyzed into the metaphors DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST using the Cognitive Theory of Metaphor as initiated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). The findings reveal that most of the EkeGusii euphemistic substitutes in the conceptual metaphors DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST have religious undertones. Further, these metaphors focus more on life than on death. Finally, the conceptual metaphors DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST illustrate a clear negation of death. Therefore, EkeGusii euphemism utilizes these two metaphors to mask death and the effects that arise out of the dying. This in turn is used as a consolation to the bereaved as they come to terms with the dead, dying and death.**

***Index Terms*—conceptual metaphor, euphemism, EkeGusii, death, domains, journey, and rest**

I. Introduction

EkeGusii is a Bantu language that is spoken in the Western part of Kenya. It is part of the Eastern Nyanza sub-group of Nyanza/Suguti of the Lacustrine Bantu which includes Kuria, Ngurimi, Zanaki, Shashi, Ikizu and Nata (Nurse and Phillippson, 1980). It is set apart from the other languages in its sub-group principally because it has acquired a considerable amount of new non-Bantu vocabulary (Nurse and Phillippson, 1980). Further, all her neighboring languages are non-Bantu, that is, Dholuo, Maasai, and Kipsigis (a Kalenjin dialect). The native speakers of EkeGusii are known as AbaGusii. EkeGusii is used as a first language by approximately two million speakers in two counties of Kenya namely; Kisii and Nyamira, collectively known as Gusii (Ogechi, 2002). However, AbaGusii form part of a considerable proportion of local immigrant workers and settlers outside these counties in various towns and therefore, EkeGusii is spoken in areas far away from the original EkeGusii-speaking region. Ekegusii makes up approximately 6% of the Kenyan population and has two dialects: EkeroGoro and EkeMaate, also referred to as Rogoro and Maate in Bosire (1993).

AbaGusii as any other speech community have a way of mentioning the unmentionables. As a result, EkeGusii speakers use special terms to communicate some ideas that are often seen difficult to express in literal speech because either literal words are lacking or the ideas are too embarrassing to mention them publically. Epstein (1985) maintains that there are times and places where a spade cannot be called a spade. In such cases, the use of a euphemistic expression becomes handy. Euphemism is the substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive expression for one that may offend or suggest something unpleasant (Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 1997). Euphemistic expressions are used in presenting a situation, a person or an object in a more agreeable, more reassuring or politer light than would be afforded by the hard glare of reality or by crude, direct definition (Cobb, 1985).

As it happens in other languages, euphemism is used to lubricate communication in EkeGusii. Williams (1975) argues that euphemisms are created when a taboo is abandoned and people have to find another linguistic form or expression to fill up the vacancy. Euphemism as a form of language is profoundly influenced by culture. The culture of a people has an effect on the people's way of avoiding taboo words and their choices of euphemism.

Further, Rawson (1981) observes that euphemism is embedded so deeply in people's language that few individuals, even those who pride in being plainspoken, never get through a day without using it. Fan (2006) also posits that almost

all cultures seem to have certain notions or things that people try to avoid mentioning directly, even when there are terms for such notions in the language. Similarly, Allan and Burridge (1991) argue that language users resort to euphemisms to avoid taboo terms that might cause distress for themselves and the receivers. Consequently, Trinch (2001) asserts that euphemistic substitutes are not only used because they are softer and more delicate terms, but also because they can be ambiguous, thus they permit the mitigation of the taboo.

Rawson (1981) finally posits that the euphemistic effect of using 'kind words' will enable language communication to go on smoothly and successfully and broaden people's vision of euphemism as well as understanding of social cultural communication. Trinch (2001) observes that sexuality, physical and mental illness, diseases, personal finances, death and criminality, among others, are common taboo topics that are euphemized in different cultures.

Death is among the many concepts that are tabooed in EkeGusii and people use euphemism when referring either to death, dying or the effects of death. Whether due to respect or fear, people avoid mentioning the dead, dying or death directly and whoever goes contrary to the expectations of AbaGusii is seen to be disrespectful. Therefore, death is mentioned and understood using different ideas.

Conceptualization is the principle of understanding an idea or a concept in terms of another. The principle can be stated informally as a metaphorical scenario. With regard to death, it can be understood in terms of a journey or rest whereby human beings are travellers on a journey, with death and/or 'going to heaven' seen as a destination to be reached. The metaphors involves understanding one domain of experience, death, in terms of a very different experiences, in this case, that of a journey and rest. In other words, the metaphor can be understood as a mapping from the source domain (in this case journey and rest) to a target domain (in this case death). Therefore, in EkeGusii issues dealing with death are developed by reasoning about the dead, dying and/or death in terms of other concepts or ideas for instance in terms of journeys or resting. In this sense, EkeGusii euphemistic substitutes do utilize the knowledge about journeys and resting when dealing or reasoning about death. The euphemistic substitutes that constitute DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST metaphors map the aspect of travel onto that of death. Lakoff (1993:208) states:

Metaphor is not just a matter of language, but of thought and reason. The language is secondary. The mapping is primary, in that it sanctions the use of source domain language and inference patterns for target domain concepts.

Fernández (2006) asserts that mankind's failure to come to terms with death has been pervasive in different times and societies. In fact, human beings have traditionally felt reluctant to deal with the subject of death using straightforward terms. Whether owing to superstitions, fear or social respect, the fact remains that when facing death language users resort to use euphemism so that they can soften the effect of what they really wish to communicate. In such a case, the taboo is stripped of its most explicit, offensive or obscene undertones (Fernández, 2006). Further, the number of euphemisms used in reference to human mortality show human being's cultural discomfort in the topic. In fact, in most cultures, EkeGusii included, rarely is death mentioned by its name.

The main concern of this paper is to explore the conceptualization of DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST in EkeGusii, a Bantu language spoken in Kenya. The current study is a worthwhile concern, because, whilst there is substantial literature on the metaphorical conceptualization of death (Arrese, 1996; Sexton, 1997; Bultnick, 1998 and Fernández, 2006), there has been no indepth study of the metaphors, DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST. In addition, there is scanty literature that has dealt with the metaphorical conceptualization of death and dying in an indigenous African language. Metaphorization is a potential source for euphemisms (Gómez 1986, Warren, 1992) and a common device to cope with death (Goatly, 1997, Sexton, 1997 and Fernández, 2006). The focus of this paper is predominantly on the conceptualization of death and dying to DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST in EkeGusii euphemism within the framework of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory initiated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980).

II. Methodology and Theoretical Background

This study was conducted in Nyamira County where EkeRogoro dialect of EkeGusii is spoken. Data for this study was collected by purposively sampling ten EkeGusii speakers. These respondents were required to supply five euphemistic substitutes that are used when referring to the dead, dying or death. Therefore, a total of 50 euphemistic substitutes for death were expected to be used during the analysis. In the end, 21 euphemistic substitutes were realized from the respondents as this kind of data was bound to be similar from one respondent to the other. It was revealed that out of the 21 terms, 6 of them constituted the conceptual metaphor, DEATH IS A JOURNEY whereas 3 terms constituted the other metaphor DEATH AS REST.

The theoretical assumptions on which the present paper is based are derived from the Cognitive Theory of Metaphor as propounded in Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and later summarised into hypotheses in Jakel (2002). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) present a cognitive assumption which revolves around the existence of a set of metaphorical concepts in terms of which human beings conceptualize the world or their world views. Thus, certain aspects of life are conceptualized metaphorically in a systematic way. Lakoff and Johnson offer a wide range of metaphors covering basic aspects of life by structuring metaphorically one aspect in terms of another. Metaphorical concepts are restructured metaphorically while metaphorical expressions are derived from metaphorical concepts. The domain hypothesis of the Cognitive Theory of Metaphor provided the parameters upon which the analysis was conducted and conclusions drawn.

According to Jakel (2002), most metaphorical expressions are not to be treated in isolation, but as linguistic realizations of conceptual metaphors. Domains play a crucial role in the definition of metaphor as a mapping from one

domain that is from one concept or idea to another. According to the domain principle, a metaphoric mapping involves a source domain and a target domain. One of these conceptual domains which functions as a target domain, for example, the target domain of ARGUMENT is understood by taking recourse to another conceptual domain which acts as a source domain (WAR) and therefore, the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR. The source domain is therefore used to understand, structure and, in some cases, mitigate the target domain. The domain hypothesis was useful in the current study in identifying the conceptual metaphors of death in EkeGusii euphemism. According to the domain hypothesis, these metaphorical expressions should display enough systematicity to be accounted for in terms of conceptual metaphors. In these metaphor-based euphemisms, euphemistic expressions in the source domain are used to replace the taboo expressions in the target domain.

III. Results and Discussion

One concept can be understood through different conceptual metaphors as they structure and define the target domain in different ways. In the analysis of EkeGusii euphemism, it was evident that there were a number of conceptual correspondences from the source domain, the realm of physical or more concrete reality, to a target domain. Therefore, EkeGusii euphemism had several conceptual metaphors for death and, as a result, one could reason about the dead, dying or death using the knowledge of something else. This proves significant information concerning the way in which death was actually used, perceived and mitigated in EkeGusii, for instance, death in EkeGusii was perceived in terms of a journey and rest.

Conceptualization of DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST metaphors arise from the principle of understanding the domain of death in terms of the domain of journeys and that of rest. The principle can be stated informally as a metaphorical scenario where human beings are travellers on earth with death and/or 'going to heaven' seen as a final destination to be reached. Whenever one is travelling, there must be occasional reposes or episodes of rest as one can not embark on a journey and travel forever. The metaphors involve understanding one domain of experience; death in terms of a very different experiences that of journeys and rest.

In other words, the metaphors can be understood as mappings from the source domain (in this case, journeys and rest) to a target domain (in this case, death). Therefore in EkeGusii, issues dealing with death are dealt with by reasoning about it in terms of journeys. The euphemistic substitutes that constitute DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST metaphors map the aspect of travel and rest onto that of death. The mappings for the two metaphors showed a lot of systematicity as the attributes were mapped from the source domain to the target domain only. In other words, the source domain of a journey and rest were used to understand that of death and not the other way round. Thus the concept death was understood by referring to it in inoffensive and softer terms; that of a journey and rest. he metaphor DEATH IS A JOURNEY will be discussed first followed by DEATH AS REST.

Firstly, DEATH IS A JOURNEY was the source of six out of the 21 euphemistic substitutes surrounding death which translated to 29%. This conceptual metaphor that understands death in terms of a journey had some spiritual connotation. By virtue of this conceptualization, based on the assumption that the dead person is no longer around, and as Bultnick (1998) points out, human mortality is conceptualized as a departure from this world. Bultnick (1998) further notes that a basic domain of experience like death is understood in terms of a different and more concrete domain, as a journey, an association which provides the basis of verbal mitigation of taboo.

Further, this metaphorical mapping transfers different attributes from the source domain of a journey to the target domain of death. More specifically, it uses different conceptual correspondences as a result of using the knowledge about journeys to talk about death. For instance, it is common to hear one mourning that the late had responded to a call, so it was necessary for him/her to embark on the journey. This is further exemplified in data set 1 below.

DATA SET 1

i) Go- kor- a oro-gendo
INF finish-FV 11-journey
'to finish the journey'

ii) ko-ng'any-a
INF-migrate-FV
'to migrate'

iii) ko-rangeri-w -a na Omo-nene
INF-call -PASS -FV by 1-big/Almighty/God
'to be called/summoned by God'

iv) Go- tir- a
INF- ascend- FV
'to ascend'

v) ko-rund-a
INF-sail-FV
'to sail/swing'

vi) a -a -gend -a
He/she –be–gone fv

's/he has left us'

Further, EkeGusii euphemistic substitutes, to 'finish the journey', 'migrate', 'to be called/summoned by God', 'to ascend', 'to sail/swing', and 'he has left' use the knowledge about journeys to talk about death because the act of dying corresponds to the act of leaving, the destination of the journey is an encounter with God in Heaven and the dead person is the one who embarks on a journey. Furthermore, 'to migrate' corresponds to this conceptual association of journeys as one is taken to have migrated or vacated; the act of dying corresponds to the act of leaving and, consequently, the deceased is viewed as the one embarking on a journey. In addition, the euphemistic substitute 'to be called/summoned by God' and ' ascend' have a religious belief and it entails that one has to heed to the call, hence the journey aspect sets in. Lastly the euphemistic substitute, 'he has left', does give an account of a journey as it is assumed that whoever is being mentioned is on transit; in most cases, the one who has left is purported to have gone to heaven. These euphemistic substitutes indicate that death involves travelling and in most cases it is a living being that travels as the dead do not have the ability to travel.

Moreover, it is in this view of the deceased as a living being that these euphemistic substitutes fulfil their euphemistic function. These euphemistic substitutes imply a negation of death and some of them emphasize the role of survivors rather than death itself. Death and the person who is dead are terms that are avoided or rarely mentioned in EkeGusii. This is illustrated in the euphemistic expressions, 'to be called/summoned by God' 'to migrate' and 'to ascend' as it is a person who is alive who can hear God's call and is capable of migrating or going upwards. The religious undertone of the metaphor DEATH IS A JOURNEY is further exemplified from a common song that is sung by the Seventh Day Adventists during burial ceremonies. Seventh Day Adventist church is one of the major churches in Gusii. The song 'ntore ase orogendo kogenda igoro' which can be loosely translated to mean 'we are on a journey to heaven' euphemises death and emphasizes the concept of all the human beings being travellers on earth. The destination of the said journey, according to the song is heaven, a dwelling for the Godly and a place that has no worries at all. Therefore, AbaGusii have an assumption that once one dies, 'the passenger alights' at a specified bus stop, thus marking the end of his/her journey. According to the song, DEATH IS A JOURNEY metaphor is used to encourage the bereaved as all are travellers heading to a common destination where all shall live happily forever.

Finally, the EkeGusii euphemistic substitutes that constitute the conceptual metaphor DEATH IS A JOURNEY can be summarized to have the ability to map the idea of travel onto that of death. The destination of the journey in most cases is unspecified, although, for Christian believers, it is normally assumed that the destination is heaven. Therefore, dying can be referred to travelling as exemplified in the euphemism theses (DomÍniguez 2005). So, to DIE IS TO TRAVEL in that:

To die is to depart this life
To die is to pass over
To die is to go the way of all fresh
To die is to meet one's maker
To die is to go to heaven
To die is to fly to glory.

Secondly, death in EkeGusii euphemism can be conceptualized as DEATH AS REST which had realised 14% out of the 21 euphemistic substitutes surrounding death and dying. In this conceptual mapping, death is viewed as a desirable condition in that the euphemistic substitutes portray death as a peaceful repose after an earthly existence. Thus, these euphemisms show a positive assessment or attitude towards death. Fernández (2006) argues that the underlying notion of metaphors included in this mapping is based on the fact that rest, a repose or sleep are temporary, and therefore, death is conceptualized as a temporary event.

In EkeGusii euphemism, death is viewed as 'rest', 'sleep' and passing on' and thus indicating death as a temporary event too. The attributes associated with rest are thus used to structure and understand death as they are transferred from the domain of rest to the domain of death. When a person is resting, it is assumed that such a person resumes his/her normal duties later on and the same assumption is held when one sleeps, as one is expected to wake up. Therefore, in EkeGusii, death is conceptualized as rest and it is assumed that all the bodily functions resume their duties afterwards. Fernández (2006) continues to assert that this analogy implies that the cessation of bodily functions and speech are not automatically identified with the symptoms of physical death, as they are present in a peaceful sleep. The conceptualization which relates death to rest or sleep provides effective euphemistic reference to the taboo mainly because this association ultimately leads to the denial of death as such: the dying person is no longer dead, but sank into comforting sleep. In addition, this conceptual metaphor is thought to provide some sort of relief for the dying person, a notion on which a euphemistic force of this mapping is also used (cf.Data set 2).

DATA SET 2

i) go-timok-a
INF rest FV
'to rest'

ii) ko-rar-a
INF-sleep-FV
'to sleep'

iii) go-twek -a mo
INF-pass-FV on
'to pass on'

From the illustrations in Data Set 2 above, the EkeGusii euphemistic substitutes for death conceptualize death as rest. The euphemistic substitutes 'resting', 'sleeping' and 'passing on' have may not be directly be linked to death as whoever is said to be resting, sleeping or to have passed on indicate some kind of temporary repose. It is assumed that such a person will soon resume his/her normal duties. These euphemistic substitutes do fulfil their euphemistic functions as they mask the effects of death and transform it to a normal bodily function. These euphemistic substitutes transform death to something that is temporary, less threatening and very normal.

Lastly, EkeGusii speakers are fond of using the metaphor, DEATH AS REST to console and cushion themselves against death. The speakers at times justify death using this metaphor, especially when death is as a result of terminal illness. Christians do use this metaphor to comfort themselves whenever one of them has passed on and to mean that the dead has just rested from the earthly commitments. This is further illustrated from the song aforementioned. There is an assumption from the song that once the travellers reach their destination which is heaven, the earthly burdens will lessen. Thus they will rest from the earthly commitments.

IV. Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that death is a subject that handled with a lot of care and caution in EkeGusii. Most of the euphemistic substitutes in EkeGusii that exemplify the conceptual metaphor DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH AS REST have a religious connotation. These in the long run help the bereaved to accept death, trust and hope that the departed is surely on a journey to heaven-a journey that is compulsory to all Christians. And with the hope that all the dead will rise up one day and meet the loved ones gives a consolation to all human beings. It is also evident that euphemizing death in EkeGusii focuses on life rather than death. Further, the mappings for the metaphors show a lot of systematicity. Finally, there is a general tendency of avoiding referring to the person concerned as dead or to have died, instead it is assumed that the dead shall have rested from the many commitments of the world. Lastly, the conceptual metaphors DEATH IS A JOURNEY and DEATH IS REST ultimately lead to the denial of death as the dead person is assumed to be travelling or somewhere resting or sleeping.

References

[1] Allan, K. & K. Burridge (1991). Euphemism and Dysphemism: Language Used as Shield and Weapon. New York: Oxford University Press.
[2] Arrese, M. (1996). To die, to Sleep. A Contrastive Study of Metaphors for Death and Dying in English and Spanish. *Language science*s, 18 (1-2): 37-52.
[3] Bosire, F. (1993). Dialects Rogoro and Maate. Kenya: Unpublished MA Thesis University of Nairobi.
[4] Bultnick, B. (1998). Metaphors We Die By: Conceptualizations of Death in English and their Implications for the Theory of Metaphor. Antwerpen: Universitet Antwerpen.
[5] Cobb, R. (1985). Euphemism and Argot in France. In Enright, D. J. (Ed.) *Fair of Speech: The Uses of Euphemism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. PP. 72-78.
[6] Epstein, J. (1985). Sex and Euphemism. In Enright, D. J. (ed.) *Fair of Speech: The Uses of Euphemism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. PP. 56-71.
[7] Fan, Z. (2006). The Mechanism of Euphemism: A cognitive Linguistic Interpretation. *US-China Foreign Language*, 4(7): 71-74.
[8] Fernández, C. (2006). The language of Death: Euphemism and Conceptual Metaphorization in Victorian Obituaries. *Sky Journal of Linguistics*, 19: 101-130.
[9] Goatly, A. (1997). The Language of Metaphors. London and New York: Routledge.
[10] Jakel, O. (2002). Hypotheses Revisited: The Cognitive Theory of Metaphor Applied to Religious Texts. *In Metaphorik de*, 2: 20-42.
[11] Lakoff, G. [1993]. The contemporary Theory of Metaphor. In Andrew Ortony (ed.), 1993. *Metaphor and Thought* (2end ed.), pp.205-251. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
[12] Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). Metaphors We Live By. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
[13] Nurse, D. & Phillippson, G. (1980). Bantu Languages of East Africa. In E. C. Polomé & C. P. Hill (Eds.) *Language in Tanzania.* London: Oxford University Press.
[14] Ogechi, N. (2002). Trilingual code switching in Kenya-Evidence from EkeGusii, Kiswahili, English and Sheng. PhD Thesis, University of Hamburg.
[15] Rawson, H. (1981). A Dictionary of Euphemisms and other Double Talk. New York: Crown.
[16] Sexton, J. (1997). The Semantics of Death and Dying: Metaphor and Mortality. *A Review of General Semantics* 54-3: 333-345.
[17] Trinch, S. L. (2001). Managing Euphemism and Transcending Taboos: Negotiating the Meaning of Sexual Assault in Latinas Narratives of Domestic Violence. *Text* 21 (4), PP. 567-610.
[18] Williams, J. (1975). Origins of the English Language: A Social and Linguistic History. New York: The Free Press.

Damaris G. Nyakoe holds a Bachelor of Education degree from Kenyatta University, Kenya and Master of Arts (Linguistics) from Maseno University, Kenya. Her research interests are on cognitive semantics in relation to metaphors and euphemism, especially in the tabooed concepts in EkeGusii. Damaris is currently working on her doctoral proposal.

Peter M. Matu, PhD is an Associate Professor in Linguistics and Communication and Director of Common Undergraduate Courses at The Kenya Polytechnic University College. He is also a Research Associate in the Department of Language Management and Language Practice, University of the Free State, South Africa. He has published widely in both local and international journals. His research interests are centred on syntax, pragmatics, communication and media discourse.

David O. Ongarora holds a PhD in Linguistics from Jawaharlal Nehru University in India, a Master of Arts in English and Linguistics from Egerton University in Kenya and a Bachelor of Education (Arts) degree from Kenyatta University, also in Kenya. He teaches English and Linguistics in the Department of Linguistics at Maseno University, Kenya. Although his research interests are in formal and theoretical linguistics in general, his particular focus is on morphology and syntax.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1458-1464, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1458-1464

A Comparative Study on Heroism in *Shooter* and *Water Margin*

Xiaohong Wei
School of Literature and Law, Sichuan Agricultural University, Ya'an, Sichuan Province, China
Email: ongwx126@yahoo.com.cn

Jian Xu
School of Literature and Law, Sichuan Agricultural University, Ya'an, Sichuan Province, China

***Abstract*—Hero has constantly been an important theme of American commercial movies, which have been swarming into every corner of the world. Those movies focusing on heroism have already become the dominance of modern movie market. Individual heroism as the logo of commercial movies has become the quintessence and soul of Hollywood movies. Just as the freedom and democracy characterize the United States, so is the case with individual heroism which has shaped Hollywood movies. On the other hand, the collective heroism is more and more popular among people around the world and used as a special means of management in the enterprises of different fields. This paper aims to compare the cultural backgrounds and social influence of these two kinds of heroism in *Shooter* and *Water Margin* so as to improve the intercultural communication between Chinese and western people.**

***Index Terms*—individual heroism, collective heroism, comparative study**

I. Introduction

It is more than one hundred years since the first movie was invented. The invention of the movie was initially just a coincidence of an experiment, with its purpose to entertain people. In the past periods, with the rapid development of economy and the globalization of the coming era, movie industry as a big part in economy has developed a lot. Movies are not only an approach to enriching people's life but also a good way of culture exchange.

Nowadays, movies are more like a symbol of a culture than an entertainment. When it comes to American movies, a very interesting phenomenon attracts our attention, that is, many people swarm into the cinema. They are crazy for the commercial movies, especially those Hollywood movies of America, in which the Spider Man hovers above our heads and uses his supper power to save those people who are in trouble; the Bat Man fights with the evil to protect the whole city, and a group of ordinary people try their best to destroy a big asteroid which seems to hit our planet and at last save the whole world. These movies are all characteristic of individual heroism. As *Transformers* is introduced to our cinema, people can feast their eyes on those glaring stunts, but they seldom uncover the cultural backgrounds and general values behind the scene such as the individual heroism. For example, *Shooter*, as one of the typical American movie, on which this paper will focus, is also attracting many movie fans. Especially the shooter Bob Lee, who conquers many difficulties and defeats his enemies, at last, fascinates his fans with his amazing personality: typical American individual heroism. In *Shooter*, Bob Lee is a vivid character or a mirror reflecting the value of America. He is a perfect product of individual heroism. Compared with the individual heroism of America, the collective heroism rooted in Chinese culture is still fascinating many people. For instance, *Water Margin* creates one hundred and eight heroes working together to pursue their great dream. It also creates a heroic dream for Chinese.

With the acceleration of globalization, the world becomes smaller and smaller. The earth becomes a small village. The international communication becomes more and more frequent and comprehensive. Movies serving as the reflection of cultures and a good method to promote mutual communication are influencing many aspects of the world such as culture, economy, and environment. So to probe into movies from different cultures can be of great benefit to intercultural communication. This paper intends to compare the different connotation of heroism in *Shooter* and *Water Margin*, which can help us bring out the deep-rooted cultural values beneath the fantastic frames, thus improving people's understanding of different cultures.

II. Individual Heroism in *Shooter*

A. The Definitions of Heroism and Individualism

It is not an easy job to define heroism, for its meanings are so subtle and diverse that most definitions are dissatisfactory. On the basis of definitions given by scholars, it can be concluded as follows: A hero, in Greek mythology and folklore, was originally a demigod, the offspring of a mortal and deity, its cult being one of the most distinctive features of ancient Greek religion. Later, hero and heroine came to refer to characters who, in the face of

danger and adversity or from a position of weakness, displayed courage and the will for self sacrifice—that is, heroism. Stories of heroism may serve as moral examples. In classical antiquity, hero cults—veneration of deified heroes such as Heracles and Achilles—played an important role in Ancient Greek religion. Politicians, ancient and modern, have employed hero worship for their own apotheosis.

As for individualism, its definitions are even more diverse. Researchers at the University of Michigan ever analyzed over 250 studies that investigated individualism, collectivism, or both (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002). They found that the most relevant feature of individualism, as defined in the majority of the studies they reviewed, was valuing personal independence. Researchers at the University of Auckland in New Zealand point out that valuing personal independence involves putting an emphasis on personal responsibility and freedom of choice, personal autonomy, and achieving self-fulfillment. Moreover, individualists strive to maintain distinctive personal attitudes and opinions and prefer self-directed behavior and independence of groups. Individualists tend to see themselves as unique from others (Shulruf, Hattie & Dixon, 2005).

B. The Synopsis of Shooter and the Embodiment of Individual Heroism

Shooter is a story of a top Marine sniper, Bob Lee Swagger, one of the world's greatest marksmen and the son of a Congressional Medal of Honoree, a loner living in the Rockies. He's left the military, having been hung out to dry in a secret Ethiopian mission a few years before, when he's recruited by a lisping colonel to help find a way that the President of the US might be assassinated in one of three cities in the next two weeks. He did his work, but the shot was fired notwithstanding and Bob Lee was quickly the fall guy: wounded and hunted by thousands, he went to ground and, aided by two unlikely allies, searched for the truth and for those who double-crossed him (Levison, 2002).

Shooter, as one of the typical heroic movies, has some features in common with other American heroic movies. In American heroic movies, there is always a superman, no matter what happens and how difficult the situation is, he will never give up, because nothing can scare or defeat him. It is a traditional rule of American heroic movies. In *Shooter*, Bob Lee, the protagonist who was cheated by the General but eventually reached the truth through many difficulties. In that movie, when Bob was chased by the FBI and the killers from the General, he did not give up although he was badly injured. He tried his best to find his friends to help him. Then he saved one FBI who became his supporter latter. He had a strong belief in himself that he could expose the truth at last. He had never given way in front of his enemies. Besides, those heroes in different Hollywood movies are always frustrated by various difficulties. It seems that the adversity really makes a hero. After struggling desperately, they can overwhelm the difficulties from outside and those pressures from inner side; just as the saying goes "when the going gets tough, the tough gets going" and this kind of heroes can always do things which are difficult or impossible for the ordinary people. Bob in *Shooter*, was circumvented and assassinated by the government after he finished his assignment. When he tried to kill the senator who had made hidden agenda in a farm, he was besieged by hundreds of armed soldiers. By killing almost half of them, he escaped from the encirclement. It is ridiculous and impossible for ordinary people to do this. While in the Hollywood movies it is just a piece of cake for those heroes. There were so many traps and conspiracies waiting for him, and it is adverse fortune for Bob, he did not give up himself in order to find the truth. Evidently, the progress of revealing the truth made his life at the risk and it was always a cliffhanger. Ultimately, he revealed all scheme of the government.

Actually, the individual heroism in American movies has several characteristics. First, most of the heroes are always considered to be the American soldiers, such movies as *Pearl Harbor, Rambo*, and *Independence Day*, for those heroes are always strong physically and mentally. Then all of them have one thing in common, that is, they do not belong to any group according to individualism. So in most of the heroic movies, the heroes are always a desirable dream of common people. In these movies, the characters all have a terrible experience which is a necessary background and factor for their success because "adversity makes a man wise and strong". Besides, they also have a special skill or supper power. For example, shooter Bob Lee is one of the best marksmen in the world. Apart from these, all the heroes in Hollywood movies are trying to be the embodiment of wisdom and courage, symbol of truth and justice. Those heroes are benefiting the whole society by punishing the criminals and dispelling the darkness. Shooter, as the typical American hero who lives in the society filled with crime and corruption, which is the political background of this story, has the strong responsibility for the society which encourages him to uncover the hidden agenda of the American government and then revenge for those victims, he does all he has to do as a hero of that time.

Obviously, when referring to individual heroism, it is easy to pick up their common values. The individual hero is not only a specific symbol in the movie to attract people attention, but also an embodiment of American culture. Peace, justice, love, and kindness are always considered to be the logo or embodiment of a hero. In the Hollywood movies, heroes are usually brave, wise, fearless, fair, strong, compassionate and persistent. Meanwhile, they are also a risk taker and good listener. Braveness or courage is the most important characteristic of a hero. Wisdom is a necessity for a hero, or he is just a giant with super power rather than a hero. That the shooter Bob fights against the powerful government is just like the sheep with his brave hearts facing the wolves. Just under such circumstances, the shooter makes use of his wisdom to find a FBI partner and achieves his success at last.

C. Influence of Individual Heroism

The influence of individual heroism is permeating every field. People who live in this kind of culture are all having a heroic dream in their mind. They do not want others to have a hand in or to meddle in their own personal affairs when

they are doing their own work (Xu, 2003). Individual heroism is encouraging people to pursue democracy and freedom. It affects many aspects of Americans' life such as the way they are wearing or dressing, the education for little kids, the way they are acting in daily life and their ideas about family and marriage. They believe that they are a group of special people blessed by god; they have their own right to do what they want to do, because that is their special rights for "all men are created equal". Human rights and freedom are considered to be the symbols of this country. Individual heroism is encouraging people to stand up to fight for their own rights. In *Shooter,* Bob was a typical soldier who had affected a lot of American values; even faced with strong enemy he did not give up his pursuit, which was to uncover the truth in order to purge his criminal. In American's daily life, individualism plays a vital role. In their conversation, they prefer to show their own idea, and do not want other people to give suggestions or help. It is not polite to inquire about personal affairs, otherwise, it will be considered to be pushing your nose into other people's business. For the education of children, parents and schools are encouraging children to develop their creative abilities instead of shaping them into something or somebody (Luks, 2006).

People in individualistic cultures emphasize their successes and achievements in their jobs or private wealth. Especially in the U.S.A., the fight for jobs and climbing up in the hierarchy ladder are something very common there. In business, they try to improve their connections and gain more value out of them, not for establishing a good relationship but just for being involved in a calculative way. Employees are expected to defend their interests and to promote themselves whenever possible. So sometimes they are some kind of selfish, because they only focus on their interests and ignore others. It is a common claim that individualism represents the central feature of western civilization. Indeed, people in that society appreciate the idea that they are different from others. They aspire to autonomy and independence in their daily life and usually their own interests prevail over collective interests. So individualism really seems to embody a commonplace and resolute way of behaviors (Wootten et al, 2003).

According to these analyses, we can safely draw a conclusion that in western civilization, the individualism is rooted deeply in their culture. No person must think for others; thought is an attribute of the individual. One can start with the ideas of others, but each new discovery, each creative step beyond the already known, is a product of the individual. Individual does build on the work and ideas of others which is also an individual idea instead of the idea of the whole society. Those western heroes all have bravery, fortitude, wisdom, and superpower, and they are always preparing to bell the cat for other people. Heroes, from the Shooter Bob Lee to Rambo, are all the products of the individual heroism. They advocate the ability of individual instead of group. They are all doing their task in a perfect way by themselves instead of cooperation with others or asking for help from others. This kind of ideology has created many other Hollywood heroes in different movies.

The individualism affects economy and society too. For example, "Rising Tides" identifies the global-warming dangers created by our gluttonous use of energy resources. He suggests that it's impossible that Americans might consider some sacrifices to keep a viable environment for future generations. If Americans would stop driving their grossly oversized sport utility vehicles, it would be a step in the right direction. The idea that giving up such vehicles might be a "sacrifice" just shows how selfish and irresponsible Americans have become (Franklin, 2001). They focus too much on themselves, but little on other people or the next generation. Besides, they do not concern much with others' benefits. For instance, the whole world was threatened by the financial crisis, most of the countries were cooperating with each other and trying their best to escape from the abyss of suffering. While at this time the individualism is taking effect, in order to protect Americans' benefits, they began to slap tariff on the imports from other countries. Every coin has two sides, so does the individual heroism. It plays a good part in the development of America. Under the influence of individual heroism, American people are attending to be more personal and individual. We can seldom find out two Americans who are similar to each other in personalities, even for the twins. Just for this reason, it makes this country unique for inventions. Almost every important invention in this century has something to do with this country.

III. Collective Heroism in *Water Margin*

A. The Definition of Collectivism

Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier point out that the central ingredient of collectivism is the assumption that groups bind and mutually obligate individuals (2002). In their extensive review of literature, they found that collectivism is linked to a sense of duty to group, inter-dependence to others, harmony, and working with the group. Triandis asserts that in collectivistic societies, group goals have precedence over individual goals. Unlike the individualists, collectivists are emotionally connected to the in-group. A collectivist's values and beliefs are consistent with and reflect those of the in-group. Moreover, a collectivist's association with his or her in-group may last a lifetime. In many collectivistic cultures, the primary value is harmony with others. Just because group harmony is so highly valued, obedience to and compliance with in-group pressures is routine. One's behavior is role based, and deviations from the prescribed role are discouraged and often negatively sanctioned. In this sense, a person's behavior is guided more by shame than by personal guilt. A collectivist who stands out from the group disrupts the harmony and may be punished. Most collectivistic cultures value social reciprocity, obligation, dependence, and obedience. But by far, the primary value stressed by many collectivistic cultures is harmony (Triandis, 1990).

B. The Synopsis of Water Margin and the Embodiment of Collective Heroism

Water Margin, as one of the four Chinese classic novels, has been adapted to a famous movie also named *Water Margin* or *All Men Are Brothers*. It has the same plots with the novel. In *Water Margin,* there were one hundred and eight people with different backgrounds and from different classes. Though all the characters had their own personalities which were totally different, they were living in the same society which was under the iron heel of the empire. They were driven to live in the water margin. Besides, they had the same tragic destiny. In their struggle for life and insurrection, numerous heroic stories were produced which won universal praise, such as tiger killing story in which the hero Wu Song killed a huge tiger just with his two fists and the story in which a group of people cooperated with each other to occupy the Zhu Family village by strategy. *Water Margin* is not only a story of loyalty but a presentation of collective heroism. Although these people were from different classes, some used to be rich while some others were poor, actually, most of them were from the bottom of the society. They were not entitled to a better life or could not enjoy basic human rights to pursue justice. Their lives were filled with darkness and exploitation. All they could do was to revolt against the empire. These factors provide a very good background for those heroic stories. Unlike American heroes who always have super power and can save the world, the heroes in *Water Margin* are not perfect ones. They were all ordinary people, and suffered a lot from the trifles of their life. Additionally, American heroes always fight with evil by themselves, while heroes in *Water Margin* had to be more collective and to obey the rules of their own group.

Water Margin is the turning point of Chinese heroism, before *Water Margin*, the definition or symbol of a hero is a man or woman (always a man) who sacrificed himself or herself in order to protect the motherland or the people. In that long period, there were just a few people who can be regarded as the heroes in people's eyes such as Wen Tianxiang and Yue Fei (both sacrificed their lives for the country's benefit). Later, the hero became a common symbol rather than a privilege of those special people. There were one hundred and eight heroes in *Water Margin* and each of them was unique, but when they were working in the big water margin, they had to obey the rules of that big family. They had to work with other people instead of working alone, and they also had to fight for all the people who lived in the darkness rather than for themselves.

When people refer to Chinese heroes, *Water Margin* can not be missed, because it reveals the typical collective heroism in Chinese culture. Collective heroism differs from individual heroism. In *Water Margin*, there is a very strange phenomenon that all the excellent heroes, who had one or more special skills, were willing to take order from the leader Song Jiang, who didn't excel in any physical skill. This will never happen in the culture of individual heroism. In China, the core of culture is the loyalty to the country or to the empire. The man, who shows loyalty to his country, the most sincere fidelity to his parents, the faith and loyalty to his friends, the sympathy for the poor and the strong conviction to justice, is considered to be the hero or the saint (Wang, 2005). In *Water Margin* the heroes were assigned to be on behalf of the gods to punish the tyrant, to comfort the people and to uphold justice. For the same purpose, different people with different backgrounds gathered in *Water Margin* in order to pursue their dream. Most of these people had ever done some bad things, such as killing travelers in order to get their money, or being chased by the government for the crimes they committed. When these people who lived at the bottom of the society were uprising to punish the tyrant, they were becoming the heroes who were on behalf of all the poor people.

Water Margin reflects the complete process of the beginning, development and failure of the peasants uprising in the later period of Chinese feudal society, reveals the broad vision of the social life at that time, exposes the darkness of the feudal society and the evils of the feudal rulers, excavates the social sources of the peasant uprising, brings to light the inevitability and justice of the peasant uprising, creates and extols a series of heroes who are fighting against the feudal oppression, writes out the tragic ending of the uprising of the Liang Shan, reveals the inner reasons for the failure of the uprising and the basic contradictions in the feudal society. *Water Margin* may be regarded as a solemn and stirring epic of peasant uprising of collective heroism.

C. Influence of Collective Heroism

Collective heroism plays a vital role in Chinese culture and affects the society a lot. Nowadays the loyalty to the people and the country, the most sincere fidelity to his parents, the faith and loyalty to his friends, and the sympathy for the poor and the strong conviction to justice are still prevalent in Chinese society. The collective heroism in *Water Margin* as one of Chinese philosophy plays a vital part in Chinese society and culture.

Nowadays, people are still judging and choosing friends with the rule of loyalty in *Water Margin*. A man who is loyal to his friends is considered to be the best friend just as the saying goes "the best friend is the one who can do everything for you". In Chinese culture, the rule that people should be loyal to his country, his friends, and his family has passed from generation to generation. During the anti-Japanese war those people who betrayed their country and helped those invaders were called traitors and regarded as the criminal of the whole people. Until now, loyalty to one's marriage is still looked upon as a virtue. Besides, fidelity to parents is the biggest part of Chinese culture. Old Chinese called themselves "land of ceremony and propriety". Being dutiful is the principle for all Chinese children. In *Water Margin*, Song Jiang, the chairman of Liang Shan, was a man who was respected by all the heroes for his sincere fidelity to parents. As for dutifulness, Chinese have many idols that play a big part in Chinese culture.

Nowadays, the values and spirits from *Water Margin* are advocated in company operation. Collective heroism is

perfectly used. A big enterprise with hundreds of elites from various fields working together is running very well due to the influence of collective heroism. It is similar to the sixteenth interception story of *Water Margin.* In the atmosphere of collective heroism, every elite can make most of his ability and give his talent to full play, which differs from individual heroism culture in which only one hero can survive. China is constructing a harmonious society in which the collective heroism has been put into great play. In the harmonious society, everyone has his position, where he can show his talent. Everyone can be a hero in his own field. From the angle of collective heroism, the world cannot be saved by one person, or be operated by individual, for the entire world consists of different aspects, no one can be a generalist. The construction of the harmonious world needs cooperation among different countries. Collectivism has been rooted deeply in Chinese philosophy—Confucianism and Taoism. Confucius once said countries were always upon individuals, and in order to establish a powerful country, the empire should focus on the life of the people who were living in this country instead of his own life, just as the old saying goes "the most important thing for a man is to benefit the whole society". Led by this philosophy, Chinese people always regard the collectivism as their social values. Collectivism becomes the backbone of Chinese philosophy (Yuan, 2005).

IV. Reasons for Different Connotation of Heroism in Two Movies

A. Cultural Background of Individual Heroism

"Individual heroism of the sort dominant in America and many European nations, viewed overall, is a broad concept with complex roots going back into the deepest well springs of European civilization."(Emerson) Individual heroism is the core of American culture. The origin of individual heroism has been rooted in American religion, politics, and geographic position. Firstly, America is a country built by those Protestants who had escaped from the persecution of the Reformation. Those Protestants believed that it was unnecessary to have luxurious ritual, and every Christian was equal in front of god and they all had the right to have a direct connection with god rather than through the bishop, so all the human beings were created equal, even the King and the Queen were equal to their citizens. In *Shooter*, Bob Lee who believed all men were created equal struggled for his rights and freedom. Even faced with the threat of death, he did not give up. Anyone who has the superpower can save the world and the human beings are just like the super man and the bat man. This is the fundamental meaning of the individual heroism.

Secondly, the Declaration of Independence announced that "all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, which among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness." (Emerson) This statement emphasizes the individual right in the constitution, and provides a perfect evidence for individualism. In American history, the fights for human rights took up most of the time, such as feminism and the African-Americans' fight for civil rights. Then shooter Bob Lee is a paradigm of American individual heroes.

Besides, the geographic position of the United States plays a vital role in the emergence of individual heroism. America is located on an isolated continent surrounded by the Pacific Ocean and Atlantic Ocean, so they don't have much connection with other continents and countries. People's thoughts are also influenced by this kind of isolation. As the famous American writer Emerson said in his article "the union is only perfect when uniters are isolated…the union must be ideal in actual individualism." (Emerson) Just for this reason, they could focus on their development during World War I and II. The isolation of this country creates the individualism rooted in Americans' personalities. What's more, the frontiers went to the Westland which impressed people with loneliness and dangers. In order to survive in the barren land, those frontiers had to be brave and wise and depend on themselves. For example, the American frontiers had to develop the strength and self-reliance to survive in the Westland where civilization had not yet been established, laws and orders were weak, villains always preyed on the innocents. The process of the development of the Westland was also the process of the development of individual heroism. The triumph of good over evil justifies liberal politics, which relies on human self-reliance and independence.

B. Cultural Background of Collective Heroism

Compared with individual heroism, collective heroism also has been affected by specific philosophy, politics, and environment.

Firstly, collectivism has been affected by Chinese philosophies. Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism are the core philosophies or religions of China, all of which teach people to think more about team work, harmony and loyalty. Collectivism emphasizes that the relationship between people should be harmonious. Such concept is demonstrated in such proverbs as "Two brains are better than one", "unity is strength" and "both together do best of all". In the classic Confucianism, people are required to be loyal to his country and people. Collective heroism also requires people to work together as a group rather than as an individual. In *Water Margin* the group of heroes were making their efforts to work together to pursue their dreams.

Secondly, the origin of collectivism has been rooted in Chinese politics too. China used to be a country of feudalism in which Confucianism played a very important role. It required people to ignore their own benefits in order to serve the country. Those heroes in *Water Margin* were affected by collective heroism and at last they had the same destiny.

Last but not the least, China is a big country with expansive territory, while the conditions are not very good for people's life. It is universally known that China is surrounded by many countries and most part of its land are deserts and mountains. Chinese people have to work together to fight for a better life. This kind of environment helps the

development of collective heroism.

C. A Comparison between Individual Heroism and Collective Heroism

Collective heroism and individual heroism have something in common. Firstly, the Shooter Bob Lee suffers a lot from the government, while the heroes in *Water Margin* also suffer a lot from the governors and the tyrants. Those heroes, whether in Chinese culture or in American culture, have some similar backgrounds. They always live under the pressure of the government or society. Those heroes are created by the people living in the real world where they could not have a better life. Heroes are the reflection of the thoughts or the dreams of ordinary people, which they cannot realize in their daily life, such as hovering in the sky like a bat man, killing or punishing those people who used to offend them, overthrowing the tyrants and wiping the evil out of the earth like the spider man. *Water Margin* describes a society in which people were oppressed by the governors and the empire. In spite of this, the governors could not manacle people's thoughts, so they created those heroes in *Water Margin* in order to show their dissatisfaction and desire for a better life. Likewise, American people created the shooter Bob in order to show their feelings against the government. Secondly, heroes in Chinese movies or American movies have the same function to reveal ordinary people's dream of something or desire for something that they cannot achieve in their life. At last, all the heroes are characterized by the same qualities, such as loyalty, wisdom, courage, and justice. One of the most important factors is that almost every super hero has experienced many adversities which make them stronger than before, as the saying goes "the adversity really makes a hero." (Dewey, 1999)

Although there are many similarities between collective heroism and individual heroism, the differences should not be neglected. To begin with, collective heroism pays more attention to the cooperation among different people. It emphasizes that the society consists of many aspects and the harmonious society needs perfect cooperation or group work among different fields. As in *Water Margin*, although those heroes stood out with their unique skills, when they lived or worked in the big water margin, they had to obey all the rules, otherwise, they would get punished. For example, there was a story that Li Kui wanted to help the gentleman to find his daughter, but he made a mistake and broke the rules of water margin. Although his action was reasonable and the initiative was right, he was still punished by the rules. In contrast, the foundation of individualism lies in one's moral right to pursue one's own happiness. This pursuit requires a large amount of independence, initiative, and self-responsibility. People in individualistic cultures emphasize their success and achievements in job or private wealth and aim to reach more or a better job position. Especially in the U.S.A., it just counts to get there less caring who will leave behind one. In business they try to improve their connections and to gain more value out of them, not for establishing a good relationship but just to be involved in a calculative way. Employees are expected to defend their interests and to promote themselves whenever possible. The individual heroism always encourages people to show themselves and make most of their abilities. The shooter Bob Lee was in that kind of situation in which Bob Lee could make most use of his rights and resources to uncover the truth, for he lived in a country or society which focused more on people's freedom and rights. The individual heroism pays more attention to people's freedom and individual benefits rather than the community.

Besides, the two kinds of heroism contribute to different social influence. In the process of more than five thousand years' history, the Chinese government always advocates collective heroism. The core of Chinese philosophy is also collective heroism, and there are many proverbs describing them, such as "many hands make light work", "two heads are better than one" and "Great things may be done by mass effort" etc. Under its influence, many heroes come into people's life, such as the famous officer Kong Fanseng and the ordinary soldier Lei Feng, who sacrificed themselves to serve people and the country. Even today, the students whether in the primary school or in the university, are taught to learn collective heroism and implement them in their daily life. Likewise, individual heroism also has a big influence among American culture, value, people and society. One obvious influence among American's value is that, they are the ones who can save the world or can wipe the evil off. In the movie, shooter Bob Lee only depended on himself to fight against the evil which was impossible in the real world.

At last, the two kinds of heroism have different focus of attention. Collective heroism in *Water Margin* stresses group consciousness, harmony, emotional interdependence, obligation, and group solidarity. In contrast, individual heroism in *Shooter* emphasizes personal autonomy. For American individualism, everyone has his own independent personality and free will and others should not impose their will upon him except when individual interests endanger public interest. What's more, individualism means two aspects: pursuit of individual interests and bearing one's own responsibility at the same time.

V. Conclusion

Hollywood movies have earned a lot of money through the magnificent scenes and amazing special effects, meanwhile, American values and spirits are transmitted to the world. Among these movies, we can feel the earthshaking charm of individual heroism. However, with the rapid development of Chinese economy, the collectivism of Chinese culture is also increasingly attracting the whole world.

In recent years, as the global cultural crisis has become more and more serious, culture study has become a significant one. Movies become one of the most efficient ways to communicate with different people. Through the comparative study of *Shooter* and *Water Margin*, we can find that the excellent movies often reveal the most important

cultural values of the host countries, which helps to propagate the native cultures and strengthen the influence of the culture. At the same time, appreciating the excellent foreign movies can help people to learn about different cultures and improve their intercultural awareness, which is sure to promote international communication.

REFERENCES

[1] Dewey, John. (1999). Individualism Old and New. New York: New York Publisher.
[2] Emerson, Ralph Waldo. Essay II-Self Reliance. http://wenku.baidu.com/view/18b46ffafab069dc502201df.html (accessed 27/10/2010).
[3] Franklin, Benjamin. (2001) .The Autobiography and Other Writing. *Modern Language Journa*l, 5, 6-19.
[4] Levison, Ian. (2002). A Working Stiff's Manifest: A Memoir. New York: SoHo
[5] Lukes, Steven. (2006). The Semantic History of Individualism. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Publisher.
[6] Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M. & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). "Rethinking Individualism and Collectivism: Evaluation of Theoretical Assumptions and Meta-Analyses," *Psychological Bulletin*, 128,3-72
[7] Shulruf, B., Hattie, J., & Dixon, R. (2005). "Development of a New Measurement Tool for Individualism and Collectivism," *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 25, 385-401
[8] Triandis, H. C. (1990). "Cross-cultural Studies of Individualism and Collectivism," in J. J. Berman (Ed.) *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: 1989* (pp. 41-133). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press
[9] Wang, Hongqing. (2005). New Thought about the Theme of Water Margin, *Research on Novels of Ming and Qing Dynasties*, 2, 36-48.
[10] Wootten, David, et al. (2003). The Essential Federalist and Anti-Federalist Papers. Hakett Publishing Company.
[11] Xu, A'li. (2003). An Overview of Foreign Famous Movies. Sichuan: Sichuan Literature and Arts Press.
[12] Yuan, Xingpei. (2005). Chinese Literature History. Beijing: Higher Education Press.

Xiaohong Wei was born in Jianyang, Sichuan Province, China in 1971. She received her M. A. degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics from Sichuan University, China in 2004.

She is currently a professor in school of literature and law, Sichuan Agricultural University, China. Her research interests include intercultural communication as well as culture and translation.

Jian Xu is an English Major in school of literature and law, Sichuan Agricultural University, China.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1465-1471, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1465-1471

Cooperative Learning Boosts EFL Students' Grammar Achievement

Mohammad Reza Ghorbani
University of Bojnord, Bojnord, Iran
Email address: mrg872@yahoo.com

Maryam Nezamoshari'e
Ferdowsi University, Mashhad, Iran
Email address: m.nezamosharie@gmail.com

***Abstract*—It has been suggested that Cooperative Learning (CL), as a close relative of Community Language Learning (CLL), might be a good alternative to the dominant Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in Asia, where learners are believed to be individualistic, passive, and unable to work cooperatively to construct their own knowledge. Based on ten ninety-minute-long sessions, this study compared CL to GTM in north-east Iran, using an experimental design. This research investigated 64 female freshmen's achievement on 10 grammatical forms. Thirty-two students (eight four-member groups) participated in the experimental group (CL), and the other thirty two in the control group. The same instructor (one of the researchers) taught in both classes. Using the SPSS software, a covariance test and independent samples t-tests were used to test three hypotheses. A prescribed textbook at the national level was used as the material and a thirty-item test with a reliability of 0.82 was used as the instrument. The findings suggest the superiority of CL to GTM and its being applicable in an Iranian context. Furthermore, in the CL class, the gifted students were found to improve as much as the poor ones. The study offers some implication for teachers, teacher educators, students, and theory developers.**

***Index Terms*—cooperative learning, traditional instruction, grammar and high/low-achievers**

I. Introduction

The long-held grammar-teaching in language classes was hindered with the heyday of the communicative method of language teaching in the 1970s. The concept of grammar has been defined in a variety of ways; besides, various methods and techniques in the world of teaching English as a second/ foreign language (TESL/ TEFL) have added different colors and costumes to it, in the eyes of the learners. It has been defined, for instance, by Richards & Schmidt (2010) as a description of different ways in which bits of linguistic value are or can be combined so that longer linguistic units by the name of sentences are made. Nunan (2003), further, classifies grammar into two categories; prescriptive grammar, dealing with what to do, and descriptive grammar, dealing with what there really is. Noteworthy is the fact that grammar was (and still is) either oppressed and thrown away since the rise of communicative revolution focusing on meaning, or dealt with in rigid teacher-fronted classes focusing on forms except for the case of some classes whose teachers focus on form (not forms), that is, form + meaning at the same time (Long & Robinson, 1998).

Nowadays, nevertheless, there is some support for the idea of grammar instruction, which implies focus on form. Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis and Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis (cited in Swain & Lapkin, 1995), for instance, maintain the fact that mere exposure to comprehensible input would not be sufficient for language acquisition to occur. In addition, Long (1983, cited in Nassaji & Fotos, 2004) insisted that grammar instruction is inevitable and necessary to language acquisition. Furthermore, R. Ellis (2002, cited in Nassaji & Fotos, 2004) concluded that extensive grammar instruction over a long period of time would lead to the construction of implicit knowledge in individuals. Therefore, as teaching grammar is useful and necessary, there should be a search for the most appropriate way of performing it.

As Liang (2002) puts it, cooperative learning (CL) is very close in nature to the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Thus, CL was chosen by the researchers as the method under experiment as an alternative to the traditional instruction (TI) in Iran.

English in Iran is currently a significant part of all university majors (Eslami, Eslami-Rasekh, & Quiroz, 2007, cited in Eslami, 2010). However, teaching English is summarized into requiring students to read English texts and translate them into Persian, that is, GTM is still dominant in Iran (Eslami, 2010; Ghorbani, 2009). Hence, the need to find an alternative to GTM was the first factor that motivated this study.

The innovation of CL has roots in hundreds of years ago, with its developed application at the US schools in the 1960s and 1970s against the then-familiar GTM (Richards & Rodgers, 2002). CL is supported by such key figures as Vygotsky (1978), Long (1996, cited in Brown, 2000), Krashen (1985, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2002), and Bandura (1997), to mention a few. Olsen and Kagan (1992, p.8, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2002) define CL as follows:

Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially constructed exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others.

In choosing what method to use in a class, a teacher should have a sense of plausibility, to use Prabhu's (1990) term. That is, teachers should try a method themselves to see if it works in their context. For instance, CL is believed to be globally applied successfully (Johnson & Johnson (1998, cited in Liang, 2002). Nonetheless, some researchers believe it cannot be applied well in Asia—including Iran—where students are supposed to be passive consumers of knowledge and cannot go beyond what they have been spoon-fed (Gow & Kember, 1990, Go & Mok, 1995, cited in Liang, 2002). Moreover, Thanh-Pham, et al. (2009 as cited in Thanh, 2011) in their meta-analysis reported that more than 50% of the studies about CL in Eastern contexts found it inappropriate. What makes the waters muddier is that CL is still unknown to Iranian universities where GTM with rigid roles for learners as passive recipients and mere audience, and teachers as lecturers and decision makers is dominant (Eslami, 2010; Ghorbani, 2009). Thus, to see if Iranian students are really Asian passive students and if CL is applicable in Iran, the present study was conducted.

Moreover, it seems essential to consider students with different levels of academic achievement (i.e., high-achievers or gifted vs. low-achievers or poor students), regarding the extent to which they might take advantage of CL. However, the fact that too few studies with diverse results have focused on this problem (e.g., Matthews, 1992; Parveen, et al., 2011; Hajilari, 2001) was the second reason motivating the current study. This study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group (CL) and control group (TI) regarding their grammar achievement?
2. Is there a significant difference between the high and low achievers in the CL class regarding their grammar achievement?
3. Is there a significant difference between the high and low achievers in the TI class regarding their grammar achievement?

To answer these questions, the following null-hypotheses were formulated:

1. Ho1: There is no significant difference between experimental group (CL) and control group (TI) regarding their grammar achievement.
2. Ho2: There is no significant difference between the high and low achievers in the CL class regarding their grammar achievement.
3. Ho3: There is no significant difference between the high and low achievers in the TI class regarding their grammar achievement.

II. Literature Review

The related literature is both for and against CL, in both EFL and ESL contexts. Reviewed here are first the literature comparing CL with TI, and then that of comparing gifted and poor students. Mostly the literature supports CL. For instance, Cohen & Kulik (1981) meta-analyzed 65 CL studies and reported the outperformance of 87% of the CL classes as compared to their control counterparts. Six years later, Good and Brophy (1987, cited in Momtaz & Garner, 2010) in their meta-analysis of 41 studies found that 63% of them supported CL, 34% showed no significant difference between the experiment and control groups, and 2% was against CL. In China, Zuo (2011) examined the effects of three methods of CL on reading comprehension and recommended it as a useful device.

Hajilari (2001) compared CL vs. (TI) on some Iranian junior high school students regarding their academic achievement. He reported the success of the CL class. In an Iranian context of university students, Behjat (2011) compared individualistic reading comprehension to collaborative one and reported the success of the latter. Zarei and Keshavarz (2011) studied the effects of two models of CL on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning, with 132 Iranian participants. They reported the success of the CL models as compared with the non-cooperative control groups. Javadi Rahvard (2010) investigated the effects of CL on 16 Iranian students's—as compared with control group — reading comprehension ability. She proved CL as successful compared with the individually working control group. Momtaz and Garner (2010) focused on some Iranian students' reading comprehension through CL and proved it to be successful as well.

Despite its global popularity (Johnson & Johnson, 1989, Kessler, 1992, cited in Liang, 2002) CL is not reported as very successful in nonwestern contexts. The results of a meta-analysis of a series of studies about CL in Eastern contexts by Tanh-Pham et al. (2009, cited in Thanh, 2011), for instance, showed that 50%, and even more, of those studies were against CL, as compared to the traditional classes. Thanh (2011) in a survey interviewed 40 university students and 40 teachers from Vietnam on CL in that country. The majority of them—65% of the students and 60% of the teachers—expressed their disapproval of CL. Thanh mentioned cultural barriers as the main reason for this failure in Vietnam. Kou (2011) studied CL in a British EFL setting. Generally, CL was not reported as facilitative to language acquisition. Other evidence comes from Pakistan, where Parveen et al., (2011) compared CL and TI, regarding the students' academic achievement. The findings suggested no significant difference between the two groups. Moreover, Clark (2008) mentions culture as a barrier to successful CL in Japan.

Few studies have been on the effects of CL on the acquisition of grammar. Wang (1992) reported the superiority of the CL group to the traditional one in the study regarding grammar acquisition. Sharifi-Ashtiani (2010) examined the effects of cooperative test-writing on 60 female Iranian high school students' grammar acquisition. It was revealed that the CL class outscored the traditional class in their post-tests.

Most of the related literature is on comparing CL to TI, and too little of it has been on gifted vs. poor students in the CL classes. Hajilari (2001), for example, focused on a sample of Iranian students' academic achievement and concluded that not only is CL superior to TI, but also both the gifted and poor students developed equally in the CL class. Armstrong (1999, cited in Parveen et al., 2011) compared two CL groups: one group consisting of only gifted students and the other one consisting of heterogeneous ones. The results showed that both groups improved regarding their academic achievements. However, the gifted group stood a little higher. Evidence also comes from Western contexts. Matthews (1992) conducted a needs analysis, interviewing 15 gifted students in Mexico, and they all expressed their approval of working in homogeneous cooperative groups. Outside the field of English, CL has also been proved to be effective. Iqbal (2004, cited in Parveen et.al. 2011) compared CL with TI in teaching mathematics. The results were for CL, with poor students taking more advantage—compared with their gifted counterparts—of the CL program. Based on the above mentioned literature the researchers conducted the present study.

III. Method

The study included 62 female freshmen majored in different fields—from Law to Accounting, to Economics—at Ashkhane Distance Learning University, Ashkhane, north-east Iran. All of them were native speakers of Persian. Their ages ranged between 18 and 20. They were all accepted in that university through the yearly nation-wide-held University Entrance Examination in Iran. The participants were randomly divided into two groups of experiment (CL) and control (TI). Each class consisted of 32 learners. Both groups were taught by the same instructor—one of the researchers.

After preliminary checks were conducted to ensure there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, an analysis of variance (ANCOVA), a pretest-posttest randomized experimental design, was used in this study to test the first hypothesis by controlling the pre-test scores statistically. ANCOVA removes the obscuring effects of pre-existing individual differences among participants. Then, Independent samples t-tests were used to test the second and third hypotheses.

The study was based on ten ninety-minute-long sessions of General English course each week, within a period of two and a half months, in the first semester of the 2011-2012 academic year. Alimohammadi and Khalili's (2008) textbook was the only material covered in the two classes. It consists of 10 chapters, with one grammatical point focused on in each. The ten grammatical points were: 1. Adjective Clause; 2. Adverb/Adjective/Noun Word Order; 3. Adverb Clause; 4. Active/Passive Voice; 5. Adjective Phrase; 6. Conditional Sentences; 7. Gerund; 8. Gerund Phrase; 9. Noun Clause; and 10. Pronouns. There are mechanical drills on the grammatical points, which were focused on in both classes, but in different ways: learner-centered (CL) vs. teacher-centered (TI).

A decade's previous nation-wide Distance Learning General English final examinations—which are accepted as reliable, valid and practical in Iran—were the basis of the pre/post-tests. Those tests assess only vocabulary and grammar, thus, regarding the purpose of this study, in each test the items on grammatical points were chosen. Next, the repetitive items were left out, and totally 30 items were chosen randomly, with three items on each of the 10 chapters of the textbook. The same test was used as both the pre-test and post-test. Although the nation-wide-held Distance Learning University final examinations are believed to be reliable, the reliability of the pre/post-test was once more assessed through being given to a number of 30 students from that university who had passed the course the previous term. The KR—21 formula was used, and the reliability was estimated at 0.82, which is considered by experts in this field as a high level of reliability (Farhady, et al., 2005).

Using the SPSS software, the independent samples t-test was used to compare the gifted vs. poor students' performances on their pre-tests and post-tests. To estimate both groups' knowledge on the specific grammatical points covered in their textbook before the instruction, the pre-test was given to them before the classes started. The 32 students in that class were divided into eight groups of four (Richards & Rodgers, 2002). Following Larsen-Freeman (2003), the groups were heterogeneous regarding their grammatical knowledge on the specific grammatical forms, based on their pre-test scores. In other words, it was tried to have students with as different pre-test scores as possible in the same group. According to their pre-test scores the students in the CL class were divided into three groups of 11 poor students, 10 medium-achievers, and 11 gifted ones. This was done by first ranking their pre-test scores, then choosing the 11 lowest scores as the low achievers, and the 11 highest ones as the high-achievers.

In the CL class, at the beginning of the first session, following Richards & Rodgers's (2002) recommendation for teachers, the teacher determined heterogeneous groups, explained about the rules and purpose of CL, motivated students to forget about the long-held competition in traditional classes and be more cooperative, and reminded them of the fact that they can learn from each other. She had explicitly instructed the necessary social skills, e.g. asking for help, continuing the conversation, respecting other students' rights, and supporting and encouraging their group mates. Before each activity, she would set a time limit. While they were doing the drill, she walked in the class, interacted with the students, provided them with the necessary feedback, answered their questions, and if necessary, taught the point

again. In the CL class the teacher talked less than she did in the traditional one. She tried to facilitate the learning process, not to spoon-feed the learners. Students were responsible for their own learning. They were taught to organize and monitor their learning and provide feedback to their group mates.

Moreover, following Johnson and Johnson (1999) the learners in the CL class were positively interdependent; i.e. they mutually supported each other in a group, developing the theme that they could sink or swim all together, both gifted and poor students. They also retained their teacher-given roles in their groups during the cooperative activities. They knew well that an individual could represent the whole group and have a voice in the class. The learners interacted with each other face to face, following the social skills they had been taught by the teacher before. Furthermore, they continuously processed and evaluated their own groups' progress and tried to find better ways to improve the cooperative results.

In the CL class the teacher broadly mentioned the grammatical points, gave brief explanations, and raised broad questions in order for the students to think. On the contrary, in the traditional class the teacher explained each and every point about the grammatical points—the typical characteristic of GTM (Larsen-Freeman, 2003), and the typical teacher activity in Iranian classes (Eslami, 2010; Ghorbani, 2009). While in the CL class the students tried to do the drills cooperatively, in the traditional class they acted individually with a sense of competition and fear of not being able to do the drills correctly or not having the chance to express themselves if they knew the answer.

At the end of the first session, the students in the CL class were interviewed informally on their attitudes towards CL. The gifted students confessed to have been shocked and a little reluctant to share their knowledge and good marks with their group mates. The poor students, too, had been shocked to have the opportunity to be expressed and ask their questions freely from a classmate, rather than a teacher, without feeling stressed to lose face. Gradually, however, almost all of them were used to this way of learning. Throughout the semester, the students in the CL class showed more interest and enthusiasm to take part in the class activities and not to be absent, as compared with their counterparts in the traditional class.

According to Johnson & Johnson's (1999) classification of CL groups, the eight groups in the CL class had heterogeneous members, lasting for ten weeks. Slavin's (1978, cited in Zuo, 2011) method of CL, namely, Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) was used throughout the study. Richards and Rodgers (2002) and Olsen and Kagan (1992) mentioned three types of CL activities, namely, Think-pair-share, Roundtable, and Numbered Heads. All three types of activities were used in the CL class in this study. In the Think-pair-share activities each of the eight groups was given a different drill. The students in each group first were asked to do the drills individualistically; next, they compared their answers with those of their group mates'. Finally, one student from each group explained the answer to the whole class. In Roundtable activities, each group took one piece of paper and the group mates took turns to do the drills and write their arguments for coming to that answer. In Numbered Heads activities, the teacher first gave a number to each student in each group—from one to four. After she asked a question or wanted the class to do a special drill, all of the students in each group thought about the answer, explained their answers to their group mates, and made sure that all of their group mates understood everything. The teacher then called a number—e.g. four—and all of the number fours in all groups raised their hands and, not unlike traditional classes, one student was chosen by her to answer the question. In all three types of activities whatever mark the representative student got was given to all of the students in that group.

Both the teacher and the students used their first language (L1), Persian, in the classes. That was due to the students' low level of language proficiency and also lack of time. In addition, L1 should not be considered as a taboo in classrooms; rather, it may even be a facilitator of learning (Brown, 2000). To estimate and compare the effects of the CL vs. TI, at the end of the tenth session the post-test was given to both classes. The results are discussed below.

IV. Results

The results of the study are summarized in the following tables.

TABLE 1:
STATISTICAL DESCRIPTION OF PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES OF BOTH GROUPS

Experimental Group			Control Group	
	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error
pretest	8.03	3.86	8.41	3.75
Post test	21.25	3.87	17.16	6.17
Post-test after neutralizing the pre-test effect	21.08	.87	17.31	.87

TABLE 2:
RESULTS OF THE COVARIANCE TEST

Effect	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	η^2
Group	1	329.169	52.551	.000	.463
Error	61	6.264			

Table 1 and 2 indicate that the first null-hypothesis (There is no significant difference between experimental group (CL) and control group (TI) regarding their grammar achievement.) is rejected because there is a significant difference between the two groups regarding their grammar achievement.

TABLE 3:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE HIGH AND LOW ACHIEVERS IN CL GROUP

Group	N	Post-test mean increase in comparison to pre-test	Std. Deviation	Sig.
Low achievers	11	13.1818	1.83402	.340
High achievers	11	12.1818	2.85721	

Table 3 shows that the second null-hypothesis (There is no significant difference between the high and low achievers in the CL class regarding their grammar achievement.) is retained, that is, both the high and low achievers took advantage of CL equally.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE HIGH AND LOW ACHIEVERS IN TI GROUP

Group	N	Post-test mean increase in comparison to pre-test	Std. Deviation	Sig.
Low achievers	11	6.2727	1.42063	.000
High achievers	11	11.0000	1.84391	

Table 4 shows that the third null-hypothesis (There is no significant difference between the high and low achievers in the TI class regarding their grammar achievement.) is rejected, that is, the high achievers took more advantage of TI than low achievers.

V. DISCUSSION

That CL proved to be superior to TI is in line with most of the research in Western contexts (Good & Brophy, 1987, cited in Momtaz & Garner, 2010; Cohen & Kulik, 1981), and against most of the related literature in Eastern contexts (Tanh-Pham et al., 2009, cited in Thanh, 2011; Gow & Kember, 1990, cited in Liang, 2002, to mention a few). The results can be explained in different ways.

Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is the first reason. ZPD is that much knowledge that a student owns through which he/she cannot solve a problem alone, but if some instruction is received, he/she can solve the same problem (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). In his view, learning is social, with an emphasis on dialogue. The CL class did receive instruction from the teacher, so in Vygotskian terms the drills were in their ZPDs. Working in groups, the students provided the necessary extra instruction to each other. Vygotsky's ZPD has originally been used for expert/novice interaction, but it can also be used in a neo-Vygotskian way (Storch, 2002, cited in Clark, 2008), i.e. peer/peer interaction—the case in the present study. This can be a rational reason for the poor students' development in the CL class. The gifted students who played the role of an expert developed significantly, too, as compared to their counterparts in the traditional class, and as much as the poor students did. In conversing and tutoring their group mates, the gifted students used the third function of speech, i.e. thinking with language (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). Their counterparts in the traditional class did not have any dialogue with their classmates or the teacher, so language could not improve their thought. After all, according to Vygotsky (1978, 1986) cognition is not just in an individual's head; it is distributed in his/her head and the environment. The gifted students in the CL class used both their own minds and the environment (i.e. their group mates' minds and the opportunity to tutor what they had received from the teacher).

This superiority can also be explained through Swain's Output Hypothesis (Swain & Lapkin, 1995), which considers mere input and teacher-talk as insufficient. It states that for language acquisition to happen, students need to have revised comprehensible output, besides intelligible input. During the CL activities, the students tried to have revised output. Of course their cooperatively produced revised output was written, not spoken. In addition to the poor students, the gifted ones tried to have revised output, which can be a reason for their having equally been improved.

Long's (1996, cited in Brown, 2000) Interaction Hypothesis, which requires meaningful communication besides comprehensible input as the necessary condition for language learning to occur, is also another factor supporting the success of CL.

In addition, through CL, the students did not encounter a high affective filter (Krashen, 1985, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2002). Since they could ask their questions and express themselves to their classmates, rather than a teacher, they were less anxious than their counterparts in the traditional class. Therefore, the affective filter was low enough for them to acquire the grammatical forms. Furthermore, peer feedback within the CL groups could be a manifestation of Krashen's (1985, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2002, Brown, 2000) concept of i+1 and comprehensible input which helped to the acquisition.

Moreover, according to Bandura (1997), whatever an individual chooses to do has been affected by his/her self-efficacy which causes him/her to pursue attainable, challenging and rewarding goals. In Bandura's (1988) opinion, individuals can learn by observing and following some models. This was noticeable in the CL class, where students observed their peers doing the same exercises, so that they built self-efficacies and noticed the drills as attainable and

rewarding. The same was true with the gifted students who observed their teacher as their model. CL also finds some roots in Behaviorism. Based on Bandura (1971), a learner can learn by seeing both himself and other learners being encouraged and/or discouraged. This was a common scene in the CL class where different students with diverse levels of knowledge and academic achievement were either encouraged or discouraged by the teacher, which led to their learning and, in turn, to their classmates' learning.

Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis also has a role in explaining the success of the CL class. According to this hypothesis, mere exposure to input (as in the case of the traditional class) is not enough for language acquisition to happen. Students should notice the form and meaning themselves (as in the case of the CL class).

Larsen-Freeman (1997) views language learning as a dynamic system. In that case, the CL class could be regarded as an open system, and the traditional class, as a closed one. The open system receives feedback and is open to the outside world (there is conversation between the students, and also between the students and the teacher), therefore becomes more regular and complex and learning happens. The closed system, however, has no relation with the outside world (no feedback is received) and finally 'settles down to a fixed point attractor' (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p.152), and therefore, no learning happens.

To summarize this part, it should be mentioned that almost all of the students in the CL class developed their critical thinking ability and could regulate their performances (Vygotsky, 1978) on the post-test which was a similar occasion to the drills they had done cooperatively before. In fact, they first learned socially and then individually (Vygotsky, 1978).

VI. Conclusion

The current study confirms the idea of CL as superior to traditional teacher-fronted classes and applicable in a small class in an Iranian EFL context. Therefore, the findings are in contrast with some part of the related literature which considers Eastern and Asian students as passive consumers of knowledge and unable to work cooperatively and rely on their own and their peers' knowledge (Gow & Kember, 1990, Go & Mok, 1995, cited in Liang, 2002; Thanh-Pham et al., 2009, cited in Thanh, 2011). Moreover, the findings of this study proved both the gifted and poor students to have equally taken advantage of the program.

This study is wished to be a beam of hope to those teachers all around the world and especially in Asian countries who are reluctant to apply CL in their classes lest they fail and waste their time. Teacher educators are also required to reconsider and defend the concept of CL in non-western contexts.

The fact that both the gifted and poor students developed equally is mostly to both teachers and students'—especially the gifted ones—concern who might be unwilling to accept the concept of CL (e.g. Matthews, 1992).

Moreover, the findings of this study confirm Vygotsky's (1978) concept of Dynamic Assessment, since post-test scores were higher than the pre-test ones as a result of the delivered instruction—a point to teachers and teacher educators' concern.

Furthermore, the opportunity given to the students, especially the poor ones, in the CL class to freely express themselves, have a voice in the class, and improve their critical thinking—what they have long been deprived of in the teacher-fronted classes—might have a 'butterfly effect' (Gleick, 1987, p.8, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.144) on their education and their whole life.

The results also have implications for theory developers. As a matter of fact, this study confirmed CL which is in turn supported in different models of second/foreign language acquisition. As mentioned before, Krashen's (1985, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2002) Affective Filter Hypothesis in Innatism, Long's (1986, cited in Brown, 2000) Interaction Hypothesis and Swain's (1985, cited in Swain & Lapkin, 1995) Output Hypothesis in Constructivism, Bandura's (1971) Social Cognitive Theory in Neo-Behaviorism, and last but not least, Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD in Social Constructivism support CL in some ways.

Points of further research might refer to first, studying the extent to which students can retain the acquired knowledge; second, comparing two CL classes of students, one consisting of heterogeneous students and the other consisting of homogeneous gifted ones; and third, considering students' EQ, IQ, gender, and major as independent variables to which their language acquisition in CL groups depends.

The researchers hope that this study will shed some light on the vague concept of CL in Asian countries as well as teachers and students' uncertainty.

References

[1] Alimohammadi, M., & Khalili, H. (2008). General English. Tehran: Payame Noor University Press.
[2] Bandura, A. (1971). Social learning theory. NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
[3] Bandura, A. (1988). Organizational application of social cognitive theory. *Australian Journal of Management, 13*(2), 275-302.
[4] Bandura, A. (1997). Selfefficacy: The exercise of control. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
[5] Behjat, F. (2011). Reading through interaction: From individualistic reading comprehension to collaboreadig. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(3), 239-244.
[6] Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching. Fourth edition. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

[7] Clark, I. (2008). Collaborative learning: The cultural barrier to effective language acquisition in Japanese classrooms. *Journal of English as an International Language, 3*, 99-126.
[8] Cohen, P. A. & Kulik, J. A. (1981). Synthesis of research on the effects of tutoring. *Research Information Research, 39*, 227-229.
[9] Eslami, Z. (2010). Teachers' voice vs. students' voice: A needs analysis approach to English for academic purposes (EAP) in Iran. *English Language Teaching, 3*(1), 3-11.
[10] Farhady, H., Jafarpoor, A., & Birjandi, P. (2005). Testing language skills from theory to practice. Tehran: SAMT.
[11] Hajilari, E. (2001). A comparison between effects of cooperative and traditional learning on third-grade junior high school students' academic development. (Master's thesis, Islamic Azad University of Central Tehran, 2001). Retrieved on 8/12/11 from http://www.hawzah.net/FA/thesisview.html?ThesisID=87147
[12] Javadi Rahavard, Z. (2010). Cooperative learning strategies and reading comprehension. *California Linguistic Notes, 35*(2), 1-15.
[13] Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, R. T. (1999). Making cooperative learning work. *Theory into Practice, 38*(2), 67-73.
[14] Kuo, I. (2011). Student perceptions of student interaction in a British EFL setting. *ELT Journal, 65*(3), 281-290.
[15] Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 18*(2), 141-165.
[16] Larse-Freeman, D. (2003). Techniques and principles in language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[17] Liang, T. (2002). Implementing cooperative learning in EFL teaching: Process and effects. (Doctoral dissertation, National Taiwan Normal University, 2002). Retrieved on 2/19/12 from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis_Liang_Tsailing.pdf
[18] Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (15-42). Cambridge University Press.
[19] Momtaz, E. & Garner, M. (2010). Does collaborative learning improve EFL students' reading comprehension? *Journal of Linguistics and Language Teaching, 1*(1), 15-36.
[20] Nassaji, H. & Fotos, S. (2004). Current developments in research on the teaching of grammar. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 24*, 126-145.
[21] Nunan, D. (2003). Practical English language teaching. New York: MC Graw-Hill.
[22] Parveen, Q., Mahmood, S. T., Mahmood, A. & Arif, M. (2011). Effect of cooperative learning on academic achievement of 8th grade students in the subject of social studies. *International Journal of Academic Research, 3*(1), 950-954.
[23] Prabhu, N. S. (1990). There is no best method—why? *TESOL Quarterly, 24*(2), 161-176.
[24] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). Approaches and methods in language teaching. Second edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[25] Richards, J., & Schmidt, R. (2010). Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (4th ed.). London: Longman.
[26] chmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*(2), 129-158.
[27] Sharifi-Ashtiani, N. (2010). Effects of cooperative test-writing on students' learning English and their attitudes towards it. *Educational Innovations, 9*(34), 25-44.
[28] Swain, M. & Lapkins, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive process they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 16*(3), 371-391.
[29] Vygotsky, L. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
[30] Vygotsky, L. (1986). Thought and language. Massachusetts: MIT Press.
[31] Wang, H. M. (1992). Using cooperative learning in the EFL classroom. *National Taiwan Police College Bulletin, 5*, 289-312.
[32] Zarei, A. & Keshavarz, J. (2011). On the effects of tow models of cooperative learning on EFL reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods, 1*(2), 39-54.
[33] Zuo, W. (2011). The effects of cooperative learning on improving college students' reading comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(8), 986-989.

Mohammad Reza Ghorbani is Assistant Professor of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) at the University of Bojnord, Bojnord, Iran. He has worked as an EFL teacher and researcher in Iran, Japan, and Malaysia since 1990. He has published three books on educational issues and one in Germany as well as eleven articles in specialized international journals. He has also presented six papers in international conferences. His interests are English Teaching, Learning, Testing, and Evaluation.

Maryam Nezamoshari'e is an M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. She got her B.A. in English Literature from Ferdowsi University, Mashhad, Iran, in 2006. She has worked as an EFL teacher since 2007. She is currently teaching general English and English for academic purposes at different universities in north-east Iran. Her research interests are focus on form and ELT methodology.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1472-1476, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1472-1476

The Effectiveness of Dictation Method in College English Vocabulary Teaching

Qu Tang
College of Foreign Studies of Guilin University of Technology, China
Email: tangqu1@163.com

***Abstract*—As known to all, dictation method is an effective way to review and test one's vocabulary. This paper introduces the theories that support dictation method and the effective strategies for applying it. Besides, this paper also explains how the teachers should do to help the students enhance enthusiasm and confidence for learning, stimulate learning motivation, reduce or eliminate their difficulty and take measures to improve their own language skills, so as to raise the efficiency of memorizing vocabulary and achieve the purpose of increasing vocabulary.**

***Index Terms*—effectiveness, dictation method, vocabulary teaching**

I. Introduction

Vocabulary is a very important but difficult part of language, but the straits of English vocabulary study widely exists. So researches on vocabulary learning have attracted the author's attention. Vocabulary is of primary concern in any second language system and ways of vocabulary study are various, but achieving good learning effect is not easy. So the research to this field shows significant meanings.

Currently, there are some thesis and books about how to improve vocabulary study. And some suggestions have already made to tackle this problem. However, it is hard to find suitable methods for non-English majors in books. So as a college English teacher, the writer of this paper expects to give some advice according to the feature of non-English majors through the investigation and analysis.

II. The Importance of Vocabulary Study

With the tendency of globalization and the frequent exchanges of culture and politics among countries, English, as a worldwide accepted language, becomes more and more important. The fact that more foreigners are coming into and more Chinese are going abroad to study, to a large extent, enhances people's enthusiasm and eagerness to improve their English language abilities.

As we know vocabulary is of primary concern in any second language setting, so as the English. English study involves the study of speech sounds, grammar and vocabulary. Vocabulary has proved particularly important and certainly the most important. Engels once said that vocabulary was basement of language. Linguist Stalin also pointed out that vocabulary is the building material of language and the basis of many communication abilities, such as reading, listening, writing and spoken language. One individual can only express little meaning with grammar. However, nothing can be expressed without vocabulary. Teaching Requirements of College English states that the teaching purpose of college English is to develop students' comprehensive ability to use English, especially their listening and speaking abilities, so as to enable them to effectively carry out oral or written communications in their future work and social interaction, and meanwhile enhance their ability of independent learning and students' comprehensive cultural accomplishment. Therefore, this purpose will never be realized unless the students can memorize certain vocabulary. According to the new requirements, students should master 5,500 words and 1200 phrases, which indicate that vocabulary teaching has been the key to learn English. However, most non-English major students in our university, Guilin University of Technology, (especially the students majoring in engineering) have not laid a solid basis for English learning and the biggest obstacle for them is the poor vocabulary, which has encumbered the improvement of interpersonal skills and their listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities. In other words, it has been a bottleneck for the students' English learning. With respect to words memory, although they have spent lots of time on it, little success has been made. What's worse, few students have found an effective way to memorize English words. Therefore, how to help the students memorize the English words, the most boring but also the most basic and important things in English learning, and enrich their vocabulary in a short time has been a difficult problem in college English teaching.

There are several common problems in present English vocabulary teaching, such as (1) the students are unable to understand so many grammar knowledge and use them in English listening, speaking, reading and writing; (2) the repetition frequencies of the same words are so low that students can not memorize the words they have learned; (3) vocabulary teaching does not distinguish common words from uncommon words, which makes students bear more burden to memorize the vocabulary; (4) present vocabulary teaching lacks logics and does not reveal the regularity of

English words. Therefore, with the aim of solving the problems in vocabulary teaching and helping the students find an effective way to enrich their vocabulary, Guilin University of Technology establishes a task group, called Empirical Research on the College English Vocabulary Teaching, so as to apply many strategies, such as word formation, application of vocabulary, words explanation and interesting explanation, to English teaching, and make a comparison experiment about vocabulary teaching. And the writer of this paper is responsible for one part of this comparison experiment, i.e. the role of dictation method in vocabulary teaching. It has to be admitted that traditional vocabulary teaching can benefit students' vocabulary learning, but it also has its limitations and shortcomings, especially its ignorance about vocabulary test. However, as a means to test vocabulary, dictation method is demonstrated to be effective. And a comparison experiment about dictation method was made between two classes, grade 2008, majoring in gemology and telecom respectively since March, 2009, so as to enrich students' vocabulary through the dictation method.

III. Methodology

A. Subjects of the Experiment

This experiment chooses two classes of sophomore of Guilin University of Technology as experiment subjects, including 40 students of Class one, Grade 2008, majoring in gemology (treatment class)and 45 students of Class 2, Grade 2008, majoring in telecom(comparison class).

B. Textbook of the Experiment

All the experiment subjects use the same textbook, that is, book III and book IV of New College English.

C. Experimental Method

The treatment class makes use of dictation method to help students memorize vocabulary, mainly through increasing the times of dictation (for example, dictation is done in every English lesson) and constantly changing the mode of dictation (for example, compound dictation and words connection); however, the comparison class employs the original mode of dictation that words are dictated for one time per unit, and the students write down the words according to the teacher's pronunciation and give their corresponding Chinese meaning.

D. Design of Test

In order to evaluate the students' progress, this experiment plans two tests which use the same test paper. The test paper contains 100 CET 4 words and requires the students to choose the right meanings from the options for the given words (one point per word). The students should finish the test paper in 15 minutes. And the experiment will take the average score as data analysis. In addition, the first test should be done one week before the beginning of the experiment so as to define the overall difference between these two classes. Two months after the end of the experiment, the students take the second test, with the aim of determining the effect of this mode.

E. Comparison of Vocabulary Scores before and after the Experiment of Dictation Method

Class	Average Scores	
	Before the experiment	After the experiment
Treatment class	59.3	75
Comparison class	62.9	64

The data of the table above reveals that the students of two classes do not do a good job in vocabulary and are at the similar level. Although the students of both classes have improved their vocabulary scores, the score of the treatment class is significantly higher than that of the comparison class. This result demonstrates that the students of the treatment class have significantly enlarged their vocabulary.

IV. Theoretical Basis for Dictation Method

After 1960s, research into vocabulary learning strategies began to arouse the linguistics' interest in western countries. In recent years, considerable researches have been done in the area of language study, but vocabulary-learning strategies have attracted relatively less attention. However, it does not follow that no achievement has been obtained. Following are some strategies that applied into vocabulary learning.

A. Social Strategies

Social strategies involves students enlisting teachers to check their work for accuracy, especially flash cards and word lists, since these are commonly used for independent learning outside class.

B. Memory Strategies

Most memory strategies involve relating the word to be retained with some previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery, or grouping.

C. Picture/Imagery Strategies

New words can be learned by studying them with pictures of their meaning instead of definition. Imagery has been shown to be more effective than mere repetition for reading passages and sentences, suggesting it should well be more effective for vocabulary, too.

D. Related Words and Unrelated Words

Likewise, new words can be linked to L2 words, which the students already know. Usually this involves some type of sense relationship, such as coordination synonymy, or antonym. Words association research has shown that coordinates in particular have very strong connective bonds these and other sense relationships can be illustrated with semantic maps, which are often used to help consolidate vocabulary.

The learner can also link words together that have no sense relationships. One first memorizes a rhyme like "one is a bun, two is a shoe, three is a tree." Then an image is created of the word to be remembered.

E. Grouping

Grouping is an important way to aid recall, and people seem to organize words into groups naturally without prompting. Grouping words can be done in the way of writing the synonyms or related words together, or words can be grouped together in a very natural way by using the target words in sentences. Similarly, words can be grouped together in a story. The narrative chain method has been shown to be more effective.

From above description we know that many strategies can be used to help students enlarge their vocabulary, however, dictation method, as one of the most common and traditional ways for remembering words, is rare to be mentioned. It is an unforgettable way that is worth making a research on it.

Vocabulary means the total number of words that make up a language and accordingly, vocabulary learning strategies in earlier researches refer to those techniques that help to commit those words into memory.

The brain of human is a treasure of memory. Memory is usually defined as retaining cognitive things in the brain for a long time, which is the key to learn and master English vocabulary. According to the forgetting curve proposed by the famous German psychologist Ebbinghaus, memory can be classified into short-term memory and long-term memory. Input information becomes human beings short memory through the process of study. If human do not review the input information in time, they will easily forget these information. However, timely review can develop short-term memory into long-term memory which will retain in brain for a long time. In other words, forgetting is a regular but also unbalanced thing. At the initial stage of memory, human beings forget input information very quickly, and then the pace gradually slows down. After a certain period of time, almost nothing could be forgotten. If the students do not review what they have learned in time, they can only master 25% of the knowledge. Therefore, according to the forgetting curve, teachers should give timely dictation to the students so as to develop short-term memory into long-term memory. And finally, students' vocabulary will be enlarged gradually through dictation method.

V. Strategies for Dictation Method

Dictation should have a focus and employ appropriate strategies.

(1). Teachers should take the words that can not explained and spelled through pronunciation, formation rules and stereotype mode, such as the words with double consonants and homophone affixes, as well as some confusing words. Of course, these representative words that can reveal English pronunciation and formation rules should not be ignored.

(2). Teachers should lay emphasis on the dictation frequencies of CET 4 and 6 vocabularies so as to make the students familiar with the spelling of the vocabulary. For example, teachers should dictate the bold words, especially the bold words with a ▲ sign (book III and book IV of New College English) for several times.

(3). From the perspective of memory psychology, too many words per time are not beneficial for memory. Therefore, 20-30 words are appropriate per time.

(4). Independent revision to the dictation. College English Teaching Requirements encourage independent learning and require the students to finish learning task independently under the guidance of teachers. Therefore, the teacher should formulate strict requirements and the students must correct their spelling mistakes independently.

(5). Dictation scores should be counted as a part of daily scores.

VI. Points for Attention

Dictation is mainly aimed at checking students' pronunciation and their knowledge of spelling rules and corresponding Chinese meanings. During the process of dictation, students make use of input skills and output skills and write down the words through their hands, pens and ears, so as to check the effect of dictation and enhance their understanding and memory of English words. According to the experiment results, a conclusion is reached that dictation is an effective quantization strategy, which can reveal students' vocabulary and learning outcomes to some extent. However, teachers should pay much attention to the following points.

A. Urging the Students to Improve English Pronunciation and Intonation

Dictation is the combining of listening and writing. Therefore, the traditional pattern of dictation that students write

down the words according to teachers' pronunciation should be improved. The students of the university are from the four corners of China, especially from Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region. Due to the influence of their mother tongue or dialects, there are different levels of gap between their pronunciation and standard pronunciation. For example, they can not distinguish /l/ from /n/, and /c/ from /z/. During the process of dictation, the phonological representations of the mental lexicon are first activated. Then the semantic representations are activated by phonological representations. Therefore, correct pronunciations of vocabulary are crucial to dictation. Otherwise, the students will not be able to write down the words corresponding to the pronunciation, not to mention effective activation of words' semantic representations. Accordingly, the teachers should try their best to standardize their own pronunciation when teaching new words. Besides, the students must practice pronunciation repeatedly so as to correct their own pronunciation mistakes and standardize their pronunciation. All in all, only correct input can lead to correct output.

B. Having a Correct Attitude towards Vocabulary Learning

Word dictation requires students to pay attention to the form, pronunciation and meaning of English words. However, it usually leads to a bad habit of superficial memory and at last makes the students lose their enthusiasm for vocabulary learning. Besides, there is also a common phenomenon that some students can not make sentences although they can write down almost all the words. In fact, this phenomenon can be explained by the properties of mental lexicon, i.e. the different levels of mental lexicon is not isolated but mutually associated. Therefore, the teachers should try their best to improve students' ability of using words and expand the depth and breadth of their mental lexicon. For example, while giving them dictation, the writer of this paper requires the students to make sentences.

C. Employing a Diversified Dictation Strategy so as to Overcome the Emotional Barriers and Anxiety

Before conducting this experiment, a questionnaire investigation is carried out between treatment class and comparison class, and there are altogether 13 items in the questionnaire which include students' attitude towards words dictation, the amount of the words, the period of one dictation, independent correction or not and the effect of dictation etc. The purpose of the questionnaire is to find the students' attitude towards dictation and the frequency of the dictation that teaches use to test the students' vocabulary. Following is the overall description of the questionnaire.

Item1: 80% of the students select B (teachers often dictate English words), 20% select C (sometimes, teachers dictate English words). In general, dictation method is a means used by teachers to check the students' vocabulary.

Item2: 90% of the students select A and 10% select B, which demonstrates that teachers still focus on students' memory of new words.

Item3: 100% of the students select A, which demonstrates that the students hope the teachers to help them memorize the new words.

Item4 85% of the students select B, which shows that the teacher usually dictate words one time per unit.

Item5 50% of the students select A and the rest students select B, in other words, one half of the students prefer one time per unit and another half prefer two times per unit. But they all reveal a fact that all of them are willing to increase the frequency of dictation.

Item6 75% of the students select C and 25% select B, that is, the teacher often dictate 11-30 words one time.

Item7 80% of the students select C, which demonstrate that students are able to memorize 30 words in a short time.

Item8 40% of the students select B, 20% select C and the rest select D. Even few students select E, which demonstrates that the students lack the awareness of independent learning. They only focus on the process of dictation but ignore its result.

Item9 90% of the students select B, which demonstrates students also think that dictation is an important means to check their vocabulary.

Item10 100% of the students select B, which demonstrates that dictation can prompt the students to remember the new words in time.

Item11 Students' selections are too scattered, which is caused by all kinds of reasons, for example, forcing themselves to memorize words and hating memorizing words.

Item12 100% of the students select B, which demonstrates that students think that dictation is useful.

Item13 90% of the students select B, which indicated that students would like to have dictation in this semester.

According to the statistics of this questionnaire investigation, the writer finds that most students consider dictation method as an ideal means to check their vocabulary. But the real effect is not so significant and repeated dictation usually leads to students' boredom and less enthusiasm. Moreover, during the process of dictation, students' poor vocabulary can also result in some psychological barriers, such as anxiety, tension, depression, fear and so on. Therefore, the teachers should help the students enhance their enthusiasm and confidence for learning, reduce or eliminate their psychological barriers and take measures to improve their language skills. All in all, the teachers should pay attention to the following points:

(1) The teachers should make use of different dictation methods and pay attention to the diversity of its content, methods and forms. For example, in terms of methods, the teachers can ask the students of three levels (A, B, C) to write down the words on blackboard and the rest on their own desks, and then ask the students to correct spelling mistakes by themselves. Moreover, the teachers can also give some prefixes and suffixes and then require the students to write down some words associated with the prefixes and suffixes. For instance, the teacher can ask the students to

give five words with the suffix *–able*, such as cable, fable, table, disable, enable, liable etc.; in terms of content, the teachers can ask them to write down some words, sentences, and even paragraphs; and in terms of correction, a combination of mutual correction between students and teacher's correction is a better method.

(2) The teacher should show respect to individual differences. The College English Teaching Requirements formulated by the Ministry of Education requires the teachers to lay emphasis on the majority but also show respect to individual differences. It is inevitable that students have different levels of basic knowledge and comprehensive capacity of using language, therefore, the teacher should not use only one pattern of dictation for all students. Instead, the teacher should not only ask the top students to be strict with themselves, but also help the students with poor performance to establish confidence. The teacher can also encourage the students sometimes, so as to activate their enthusiasm for learning. and the writer of this paper gives dictation in a special way that the students mark their own dictation and classify the 40 students of treatment class into A(6 students), B(15 students), C(13students) and D (6 students)groups. Then, the writer sets passing scores for A, B and C groups, for example, 80, 70 and 60 points respectively. As for group D, they can set passing scores (in the range of 10-60 points) by themselves according to their own abilities. And during the following dictations, the teacher should record their real scores, encourage the top students to win full mark and stimulate the students with poor performance to make progress.

D. Supplementing the Dictated Words with Their Context and Word Formation

There is an incomplete mapping between words and their meanings, not to mention a cross-language corresponding relationship between words and meanings. Therefore, the traditional pattern of dictation that requires students to give Chinese meanings to each word lacks rational and scientific evidence. In fact, the meaning of one word varies due to its context. So the teachers can supplement the words with their context, for example the sentences of the texts, so as to let the students understand that the meaning of one word depends on its context and urge the students to review the sentences and content of the texts. English is one of the languages with the largest vocabulary, but there is a law that governs its word formation. From the perspective of word construction, it can be found that there is direct or indirect relationship between English words. Therefore, the teachers can help the students to make use of the law to memorize English words. For example, the Chinese meaning of the affix *lun* is "moon", if some suffixes are added to it, many new words will be coined, such as lunar (of moon), uniform (moon-like), lunate (new moon-like), demilune (half moon), plenilune (full moon) and so on.

VII. Conclusion

Memorizing words is one of the keys to learn English and also the most boring task for many Chinese students. The writer of this paper applies dictation method into vocabulary teaching so as to help the students to effectively memorize English words. And great achievements have been made through our efforts. Meanwhile, the writer realizes that dictation should not be isolated. Instead, the teacher should make use of more methods to increase students' enthusiasm and improve their efficiency of memorizing words. And only in this way can the students properly use English vocabulary and improve their comprehensive capacity.

Of course, the expanding of vocabulary, on one hand, is a process of increasing the amount of words; on the other hand, it is a meaningful store tightly connected with the languages invents in modern science, technology, social and economic to express new things and new changes. So to an English learner, the expanding of English vocabulary is endless.

References

[1] Carter R ,B, McCarthy. (1988). Vocabulary and Language Teaching. London: Longman Press.
[2] Gui Shichun. (1996). New Psycholinguistics. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Teaching Press.
[3] Guo Chengfang. (2006). A investigation on college students' vocabulary and capacity of using vocabulary. *Journal of Anhui Agricultural University (Edition of Social Science)*, 1, 56-59.
[4] Han Ge. (2005). How to teach vocabulary. *Journal of Beijing International Studies University*, 2, 34-36.
[5] Jiao Yan. (2006). How to memorize college English vocabulary: From the perspective of Ebbinghaus' Forgetting Curve. *Journal of Suzhou Institute of Education*, 1, 106-108.
[6] Yuan Bu. (1992).Three factors influencing the memory of English words. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 12, 96-100.
[7] Yu Minghong. (2001). Fast memory of English words with the help of roots and affixes. Beijing: World Affairs Press.

Qu Tang was born in Sichuan, China in 1968. He received his Master's Degree in linguistics from Zhong Shan University, China in 2009.

He is currently an associate professor in College of Foreign Studies, Guilin University of Technology Guilin, China. His research interests include translation theories and teaching strategies.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1477-1484, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1477-1484

Comparative Investigation of Persian's Cognates and False Friends with Some IE Languages

Mohammad R. Talebinejad
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Iran
Email: rtalebinezhad@yahoo.com

Abolhassan Nazari Sarmazeh
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Esfahan, Iran
Email: Abolhassan.nazari@gmail.com

***Abstract*—This study aims at identifying a kind of cognate words which are called false or true cognates in Persian and some IE Languages. False cognates are words which have the same form and pronunciation in two or more languages, but despite their similarity in form, and pronunciation they have dissimilar meanings in the two languages. True cognates are the result of kinship relations across languages, or borrowings. False and true cognates might be found in nearly all languages with any kind of relation to other languages. There are still some "real" cognates found in the lexicon of Persian and some IE languages. By document reviewing much interesting information has been revealed. The conclusions of this study will provide new insights into the linguistic and the communication problems derived from a misuse of these lexical items. The study of false friends and true Cognates has several implications for contrastive analysts, error analysts, translators, foreign language teachers and learners, curriculum designers, as well as lexicographers and lexicologists.**

***Index Terms*—false friends, true cognate, IE languages, dissimilar meaning**

I. Introduction

A. The Place of Persian among the Families of Languages

Persian is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. Indo-European is one of the most widely spoken and diverse families of languages in the world today. It includes, among others, the Romance languages (Spanish, French, Latin, etc.), the Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, etc.), the Germanic languages (English, German, Swedish, etc.), the Celtic languages, Baltic languages, Greek, Armenian, and Albanian. All of these languages, as well as some extinct languages like Tocharian and Illyrian, are thought to originate with a single prehistoric language called Proto-Indo-European, which was spoken between 3000 and 5000 years ago. The branch of Indo-European that Persian belongs to is known as the Indo-Iranian or Indo-Aryan branch. It includes both the Indic languages (Sanskrit, Hindi, Marathi, etc.) spoken in northern India today and the Iranian or (also called Aryan) languages. Persian is the most widely spoken of the Iranian languages today. Other modern-day Iranian languages include Pashto, which is spoken in much of Afghanistan; Tajik, spoken in Tajikistan; and Kurdish, which is spoken in the Kurdish regions of Turkey, Iraq, Iran, and Syria. There are also several Iranian languages spoken by certain tribes in Iran such as Luri, Baluchi, and Tat. In the past, there were other Iranian languages such as Avestan, the language of the Avesta, a sacred text of the Zoroastrian religion, which was the dominant religion in Iran before the Islamic conquest. Persian has undergone many changes in the past two millennia, the most significant of which has most certainly been the influence of Arabic since the Islamic conquest of Persia in the year 650. Over the years, Persian has borrowed up to half of its vocabulary from Arabic as well as certain grammatical elements. This impact of Arabic is profound not only because of its magnitude but because the sounds and syntax of Arabic, a Semitic language, are so different than those of Persian. Since the Middle Ages, Persian has been written in a modified form of the Arabic alphabet, although in pre-Islamic times it was written in an older alphabet known as Pahlavi.

Words are the elements of a language used to identify objects, ideas and express feelings. These words are also the mirrors in that they are a reflection of the cultural history and development of a people. Tracing words to their origins will open a new window to human civizilition and culture and help us understand the roots of some of our present social trends and attitudes. It is likely to consider as vital characteristic for teachers to be aware of the misuse of learners to enhance communication and improve language learning, and find convenient solutions and recognize those misbehaviors to get efficient result. This study investigates that knowing the origin of learners' misbehaviors (as a result of using false friends) eradicate miscommunication in the process of language learning. Its effect should be examined based on learners' reflections. False friends have been widely considered in different language areas: translation studies, language teaching, lexicography or contrastive linguistics. Koessler and Derocquigny (1928) used the term faux amis in their well-known book Les Faux Amis, ou les Trahisons du Vocabulaire Anglais. Here is the source of this metaphor which is extensively used in language teaching all over the world. From an EFL context, a false friend could be defined

as an L2 word that is formally similar to an L1 word in spelling and/or pronunciation but whose meanings are totally or partially different in both languages false friends have become a real problem for language learners. This paper focuses on true friends and on their role in the interlanguage of Persian learners of other IE languages. The present study will optimistically offer teachers with some evidence of the student ś use of these lexical items, which may be useful for their actual teaching in the classroom.

As a teacher it is often worth making a collection of false friends and true cognates you come across; this will help you discover potential problems in the classroom before they arise and also act as a study aid for your students. The same false friends tend to occur again and again and to try and avoid errors, they need to be dealt with individually and specifically with each class as they arise. It is sometimes useful to use the students' MT in the classroom to help explain the difference here; certainly you will need to make the students aware of what a false friend or true cognate word or phrase means in their own language and then in other IE languages. Once the false friend has been pointed out and noted by the students, you can create a set of exercises to check the meaning. For example by multiple-choice exercises, where the students must select the correct meaning of a phrase or they must choose the correct synonym. By looking at what the students do here you can see if they need more work and practice in learning the meaning of specific English words which are false friends to their MT. False cognates are pairs of words in the same or different languages that are similar in form and meaning but have different roots. That is, they appear to be, or are sometimes considered, cognates, when in fact they are not. Even if false cognates lack a common root, there may still be an indirect connection between them.

B. Statement of Problem

Teachers, linguists and psycholinguists have always been interested in errors produced by second language learners, either in their speech or writing or both. In fact learners' errors have been the subject of extensive investigation and heated controversy for quite a long time.

Surveys on the false friendship phenomenon are rather scarce (Chacón, 2006).Studies show that almost all language users of IE languages are bored and confused in comprehending those languages which share common features inversely. Moreover, they are less likely to learn. For increasing learner engagement and deeply understanding of materials it is better to eradicate the sources of miscomprehension. There might be also false friends in two or many IE languages that make the comprehension doubly difficult. The learner may assume that since the source and target language have the same form, they can also have the same meaning or stylistic features.

C. Purpose and Scope of Study

The discussion of false and true cognates has a lot of pedagogical implications for error analyst and foreign and second language learners. Moreover, errors can form good distracters for test constructors, especially in multiple choice items.

The purpose of the study was to recognize and then enumerate the false friends and true cognates of IE language. Specifically, it aims to reveal miscommunication between interlocutors. The key research inquiries are: 1) what are the Persian true cognates with comparison to some IE languages? 2) How these true cognates and false friends effect communication?

D. Significance of Study

1. Significance of false cognates

Keshavarz (2007) refers to this type of errors as inaccurate use of a target language word because of its phonological similarities with a word in the learner's mother language; similarity in appearance and not in meaning. This kind of deceptive cognate has been referred to by some as 'false freind' (Newmark, 1988).

Example:

- My father bought a new machine last week.

The word machine in this sentence is used because of the influence of its cognate /machine/ 'car' in Persian.

Similarly the word'cigar' in the following sentence has been used because of its superficial similarity with the word /sigar/ in Persian.

Persian is the most important of a group of several related languages that linguists classify as Indo-Iranian. Persian speakers regard their language as extremely beautiful, and they take great pleasure in listening to the verses of medieval poets such as Ferdowsi, Hafez, and Sadi. The language is a living link with the past and has been important in binding the nation together. It is the language of government and public instruction and is the mother tongue of half of the population. Persian is spoken as a second language by a large proportion of the rest. As part of the Indo-European family of languages, Persian is distantly related to Latin, Greek, the Slavic and Teutonic languages, and English. This relationship can be seen in such cognates as beradar (brother), pedar (father), and mader (mother). It is a relatively easy language for English-speaking people to learn compared with any other major language of the Middle East. Verbs tend to be regular, nouns lack gender and case distinction, prepositions are much used, noun plural formation tends to be regular, and word order is important. The difficulty of the language lies in the subtlety and variety of word meanings according to context. Persian is written right to left in the Arabic script with several modifications.

Among educated Persians, there have been sporadic efforts as far back as the tenth century to diminish the use of Arabic loanwords in their language. Both Pahlavi shahs supported such efforts in the twentieth century. During the reign of Reza Shah Pahlavi (1925-41), serious consideration was given to the possibility of Romanizing the writing of Persian as had been done with Turkish, but these plans were abandoned. Since the Revolution, a contrary tendency to increase the use of Arabic words in both spoken and written Persian has emerged among government leaders. So as a member of a group of several related languages that linguists classify as Indo-European languages it is important to consider the true cognates and false friends of Persian language in order that other language users become aware of such issues. From the point of view of language teaching, the misuse of false friends has two types of "side effects". On the one hand, it reveals the students´incomplete lexical competence and, on the other hand, it leads to the communication of unintentional meanings. These reasons clearly give good reason for the need for discussing and identifying these problems in order to alleviate them.

E. Definition of Key Terms

1. False cognates as Interlingual errors

Interlingual errors result from the transfer of phonological, morphological, grammatical, lexico – semantic and stylistic elements of the learners' mother tongue to the learning of the target language. As we noticed above false cognates are as a result of Interlanguage as a source of error, hence for the cases of mother tongue interference false cognates occur.

Cognate (Latin: cognatus co+gnatus, ie. nasci "to be born") means: "related by blood, having a common ancestor, or related by an analogous nature, character, or function" (Wikipedia). The clearest cases are those where the parent language is known to exist. For example, on the basis of the various words for *father* in the Romance languages, such as *père* and *padre*, it is possible to work out how they all derived from the Latin word *pater*. If Latin no longer existed, it would be possible to reconstruct a great deal of its form, by comparing large numbers of words in this way. A word that is related in origin to another word, such as English *brother* and German *Bruder*. In linguistics, cognates are words in one or more languages that have a common origin, meaning that they are descendents of a same word, possibly in a common predecessor language. One example is the English word night, whose cognates include words with the same meaning in other languages, like nuit (French), Nacht (German), and nakti- (Sanskrit). In less formal usage, "cognate" may simply mean a synonymous relationship between words.

Cognates need not have the same meaning: dish (English) and Tisch ("table", German), or starve (English) and sterben ("die", German), or head (English) and chef ("chief, head", French), serve as examples as to how cognate terms may diverge in meaning as languages develop separately, eventually becoming false friends. Cognates may also arise through borrowings into languages. So the resemblance between English to pay and French payer originates through English borrowing to pay from Norman which, like French, had derived its word from Gallo-Romance.

Examples of cognates in Indo-European languages are the words night (English), nuit (French), Nacht (German), nacht (Dutch), nicht (Scots), nat (Danish) noc (Czech, Polish), noch (Russian), noć (Serbian), nox (Latin), nakti- (Sanskrit), natë (Albanian), noche (Spanish), nos (Welsh), noite (Portuguese), notte (Italian), nit (Catalan), noapte (Romanian), nótt (Icelandic) and naktis (Lithuanian), all meaning night and all deriving from Proto-Indo-European (PIE) *nekwt-, "night."

Another Indo-European example is star (English), setare (Persian), str (Sanskrit), étoile (French) star (Sinhala), aster (Greek), stella (Latin, Italian), estrella (Spanish), stea (Romanian and Venetian), stairno (Gothic), Stern (German), ster (Dutch and Afrikaans), starn (Scots), stjerne (Norwegian), stjarna (Icelandic), , seren (Welsh), steren (Cornish), estel (Catalan), estrella (Spanish), estrela (Portuguese) and estêre (Kurdish), from PIE *ster-, "star".

The similarity of words between languages is not enough to demonstrate that the words are related to each other, in much the same way that facial resemblance does not determine whether two people are genetically related. Over the course of hundreds and thousands of years, words may change their sound completely. Thus, for example, English five and Sanskrit pañca are cognates, while English over and Hebrew a'var are not, and neither are English dog and Mbabaram dog.

II. METHOD

One of the common difficulties in understanding the linguistic system of language learners is the fact that such systems cannot be directly observed. They must be inferred by means of analyzing production and comprehension data. In general, it is easier to detect productive errors; that is, errors which occur in the speech or writing of second language learners as opposed to errors in the receptive skills: reading and listening comprehension. This is because productive linguistic behavior is easily recordable; whereas, receptive most often has no observable behavioral concomitants.

A. Research Design

Being conducted to compare the cognate's component of Persian and some IE languages, this research has been completed through document reviewing, one of qualitative research methods. Data has been analyzed through descriptive analysis.

Case study was made use of in this study. Different articles comparing special cognates or false friends were scrutinized based on some predetermined factors. Finally, those words which were regarding true or false friends were enumerated that is a qualitative study.

B. Data Collection, Data Analysis

Having adequate data is essential for any error analysis. The choice of appropriate procedures for collecting data is, in fact, one of the crucial steps in the investigation of the learner's language. In some cases, learners' utterances might be ambiguous; that is, more than one plausible interpretation is possible. This obviously presents a problem of interpretation and linguistic description. Corder (1973) suggests that such ambiguous utterances should set aside.

Typical case sampling—one of purposeful sampling techniques—was employed during the recognition of the research sample. Yildirim and Simsek(2005) says typical case sampling is generally used to introduce a new application or to work on new things within a series of cases by determining the most typical ones and analyzing them. Reviewing different scholarly articles in various languages written in English used in this research were found to be comprehensive enough in terms of reflecting the case conceptually.

Data was collected through document reviewing, one of qualitative research methods. Document reviewing includes examining written materials that bear information regarding the issue to be investigated (Yildirim and Simsek, 2005). Providing real, easily accessible and available data, documents are used to figure out solutions to problems by researchers. The word 'document' is used as an umbrella term that covers all written and visual materials. Three types of documents are as follows: public documents, personal documents, and physical materials. Since it is not applicable to observe speakers of different IE languages, public and personal documents were utilized.

Descriptive analyses have been employed during the analysis and interpretation of the data. Descriptive analysis includes decoding of the data, developing a coding key, coding the data onto the key, classifying the data in terms of emerging thematic frames, identifying the findings, and interpreting those findings (Yildrim and Simsek, 2004, p. 171). Direct quotation was used during presentation of the findings.

C. Findings and Interpretation

In accordance with the research questions, findings are presented in two categories as what are the Persian true cognates or false friends with other IE languages and how they affect the process of communication.

1. Findings regarding Persian true cognates with some IE languages

TABLE 1
DISPLAYS THE FINDINGS RELATED TO THE FIRST RESEARCH QUESTION.

== English ==	== Persian ==
bad	bad
band	band (it's present stem of **bastan**: to close)
brother	bar âdar
cow	g âv
daughter	dokhtar
door	dar
father	pedar
God	Khod â
lip	lab
mother	m âdar
name	n âm
new	now
right	r âst
star	set âre
stone	sotun (pillar)
thou	to
jungle	jangal
pyjamas	p ây-j âma
attack	p âtak
balcony	b âl âkh âne
== French ==	**== Persian ==**
dent	dand ân
deux	do
donner	d âdan
genou	z ânu
mourir	**mor**dan
que	ke
qui	ki
tu	to
== German ==	**== Persian ==**
Bruder	bar âdar
Gott	Khod â
Mutter	m âdar
neu	now
nun	aknun (it has been also nun in Middle Persian)
Tochter	dokhtar
Tür	door
Vater	pedar
du	to
== Spanish ==	**== Persian ==**
tú	tu (You)
para	bara (for)
naranja	narenj (orange)
vale	baley (OK!)
papá	baba (dad/father)
pijama	OF PERSIAN ORIGIN
NARANJA	OF PERSIAN ORIGIN

As can be seen in Table 1, Persian shares many cognates with other IE languages. Of course some points should be bear in mind. For instance, some believe the word "bad" is just a coincidence with bad in English language, and their origins are different. Some more amazingly close cognates between Persian and English are:

better=behtar, road/rue=rah, me/moi=man, foreign=farang

"Foreign" and "farang" are not cognates, they're false friends. The Persian word is not related; "farang" or "farangi" is derived from the Persian "far ânk," which refers to the Franks who dominated Western Europe for centuries.

para --> bara (for): regarding to Spanish and Persian comparison ,Persian bar â is actually a compound: ba+r â; just like cher â/chir â (chi+r â) and zir â (az+i+r â). Less people know this. Though, we cannot claim that Persian bar â and Spanish para are exact cognate.

2. More comprehensive review of Persian true cognates with some IE languages

English	Persian	Spanish	French	Italian	German	Hindi	Dutch	Swedish	lithuanian
KISS	boosse	beso	baiser	bacio					bucinys
THUNDER	tondar				donner				
KNEE	zanu		genou			janu			
BREAST	sineh		sein	seno					
CRY	geryeh		cri		schrei			grata	
SHAME	sharm				scham			scam	
TYPHOON	toophan								
THROAT	galoo			gola		gela			
BALD	kal	calvo		calvo	kahl		kaal		
CORPSE	lasheh				leiche	lash			
ON FOOT	piadeh		a pied	a piedi					
ENOUGH	bass	basta		basta					
GOOSE	ghaaz	ganso						gas	
THAT	ke		que	che		ki			
DEAD	mordeh		mort	morto					
JACKAL	shaghal		chacal	sciacallo				schakal	
WHO	ki		qui	che					
WHAT	che or che chizi			che cosa					
MOTHER	madar	madre	mere	madre				mor	
FATHER	pedar			padre	vater		vader		
DAUGHTER	dokhtar				tochter		dochter		
TOOTH	dandan								dantis
TWO	do	dos	deux	duo		do			du
FIVE	panj					panch			
EIGHT	hasht				acht	aat			
NINE	noh		neuf	nove	neun	no		nio	
PONDER	pendar								
INTER	andar				unter		onder		
STAR	setareh			stella	stern		ster		
IS	ast	es	est		ist				
NOT	nist				nicht				
MOUSE	mush			mouse - ze			muis		
CHIN	chaaneh								
DOOR	dar						deur		
STAND	istadan								stendas
NAVEL	naf				nabel				

3. Findings regarding Persian false friends with English language

English	Persian
Man= male person	Man= I(subject pronoun)
Sad= unhappy	Sad= dam; a barrier that is built across a river in order to stop the water from flowing
Come	Cam= palate, mouth, mortise
No	No= new
Be	Be= without
fan	Fan = art , technique, trick
Run	Ran = thigh
Foot = a member of body	Foot = puff, blow; to blow out ,
Cat = an animal	Cat = a part of body. shoulder (- blade)
Rust = a redish–brown substance that is formed on some metals by the action of water and air.	Rast = straight , right
Lot = many	Lot = naked
Tan = yellowish brown in color	Tan = body, person
call	Cal= unripe , green

As it is mentioned above false friends have the same pronunciation and form but different meaning, so in order to eradicate or alleviate misunderstanding and miscommunication between English and Persian interlocutors it is essential to be aware of false friends. The misuse of lexical may lower the mutual communication, and on the other hand by the well use of lexical no misunderstanding occurs.

All of us miscommunicate at times. Reasons for it vary from each person and situation. But a few wrong presumptions that we make about communication hamper our prospects in the long-term. As an interlocutor with another language it is beneficial to be conscious of different facilitating and debilitating words that are fruitful and harmful respectively. By facilitating we mean those words which are true cognate and facilitate the process of

communication, and by debilitating we mean those words which minimize mutual communication and hamper meaning. Hence for knowing true cognates and false friends might pave the way for better understanding. One of the indexes of true understanding is being aware of cognates and especially false friends. So it is vital for a second or foreign language learner to identify, know, and enumerate those impeding false friends and facilitating cognates. This will help you discover possible problems in the classroom before they arise and also act as a study aid for interlocutors.

III. Results, Conclusions, and Implications

In this implementation, major findings of the study were considered as the interlocutors' chances for identifying, learning and eradicating sources of false friends, and miscommunications. Cognates were also considered as facilitating communication. As a whole, a major challenge facing all interlocutors is how to determine why or what causes interlocutors to be unusual or abnormal. The next major challenge is managing, handling, or controlling of two interlocutor's miscommunication problems. We know that when false friends get out of control, communication is negatively impacted, and in the other hand with the familiarity of true cognates, no troublesome occurs in the process of communication among speakers of different root related(that is)IE languages. In other words, being aware of the true cognates or false friends, communication and learning are facilitated. As suggested by the current study, students´ problems with false friends could be greatly reduced if teachers paid more attention to a meaningful teaching of these lexical items. One way of doing this is by teaching false friends in context. The use of audiovisual materials (pictures, videos, cartoons) in the classroom might be valuable and could promote students' reflection on the potential misunderstandings caused by those problematic words in naturally occurring situations. To summarize, this study shows that there is room for teachers' action in relation to false friends. EFL learners have serious problems when using these lexical items and teachers should deal with this issue so that learners´ lexical competence expands and potential misunderstandings can be prohibited. Students' errors in the realm of false and true cognates have always been of interest and significance to teachers, syllabus designers and test developers. It is widely held that insight gained from the study of learners' errors can provide invaluable information for devising appropriate materials and effective teaching techniques, and constructing tests suitable for different groups of learners at various stages of second language development. Accordingly this study offers much fruitful contribution to different field of study. The study of false friends and true Cognates has several pedagogical implications for contrastive analysts, error analysts, translators, foreign language teachers and learners, curriculum designers, as well as lexicographers and lexicologists.

A. Implication for Teachers

Teachers can benefit from the findings of false or true cognates in different ways. They can have an identified and classified category to deal with and to devise suitable materials and teaching techniques. This study will enable the teacher to emphasize more those areas where the error frequency is higher. This study enables teachers to focus on controversial issues and devote more time to the items they have been working on.

B. Implication for Learners

From the study of false or true cognates learners can identify the problematic areas for themselves at different level of instruction. They will be able to infer the nature of native and target language in their learning career and discover what they still have to learn.

C. Implication for Syllabus Designers

These kind of lexical errors are significance to syllabus designers to see what item are crucial to be included in the syllabus and what are redundant and should be excluded. They can provide serve remedial courses and program.

References

[1] Benjamin, W. (2004). Indo-European Language and Culture. Blackwell Publishing.
[2] Corder, S. Pit (1973). Introducing Applied linguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
[3] Chacón Beltrán, R. (2006). Towards a Typological Classification of False Friends (Spanish- English). *Revista Española de Lingüística Aplicada 19* (pp. 29-39).
[4] Keshavarz, M. H. (2007). Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. Tehran: Rahnama Press.
[5] Koessler, M., & Derocquigny, J. (1928). Les Faux Amis ou les Trahisons du Vocabulair Anglais. Paris: Librairie Vuibert.
[6] Newmark, P. (1988). A Textbook of translation. London: prentice Hall international Inc.
[7] Sevan, N. (2007). Etymological Dictionary of Modern Turkish. Adam Y. Istanbul.
[8] Parkes. G. & Cornell. A. (1992), 'NTC's Dictionary of German False Cognates', National Textbook Company, NTC Publishing Group.
[9] Yildrim, A. & simsek, H. (2005). Sosyal bilimlerde nitel aratrma yöntemleri. (5. Bas m). Ankara: Se çkin Yay nc l k.
[10] Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, retrieved February 5, 2012, from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/False_cognate

Mohammad R. Talebinejad is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch. He is also an associate faculty member at Sheikhbahaee University, Iran.

Dr Talebinejad received his BA in English Language and Literature, University of Isfahan in 1975. He then got his MA in TEFL from the University of Texas at Austin, USA in 1977. For his doctoral degree, Dr Talebinejad was admitted to the University of Sheffield, UK, where he did his PhD in Applied Linguistics in 1994.

He has widely published in Iranian as well as International professional journals such as *Metaphor and Symbol*, *English Teaching Forum*, *Language Testing*, *IJAl*, *Language and Translation*, *Journal of Social Sciences*, *The International Journal of Humanities*, and other local and international journals. Dr Talebinejad has presented papers in International conferences such as AILA, 2000; Atiner, 2011; RAAM, 2002, 2001 in Paris and Tunis, EUROSLA, Switzerland, 2006; Multicultural Conference, 2007, China. In addition, Dr Talebinejad has authored/coauthored eight books in related fields and ESP.

Abolhassan Nazari Sarmazeh was born in Sarmazeh, Chaharmahal and Bakhtiari, Iran (March 19, 1979).He wants to defend his MA theses in TEFL from the University of Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Esfahan, Iran. He received his B.A. in English teaching in 2008. He has been teaching English in different schools and language institutes since 2003. At the present time, he is trying to complete and publish the final edition of his book titled, who is a resourceful teacher. Mr Nazari is a member of Iran translator cyber association (ITCA). He is very interested in reading fresh articles related to his expertise in his free time, and eagerly wants to remove those demotivating, and impeding factors during teaching.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1485-1490, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1485-1490

How to Write Polite English for Contemporary International Business Correspondence

Guineng Mei
Foreign Languages College, Zhejiang Gongshang University, China
Email: guinengmei@sina.com

***Abstract*—English for contemporary international business correspondence is an extremely important tool to do business with foreign merchants. It should be noted that the politeness principles should be strictly observed in English for contemporary international business correspondence to make the letter concise and pleasant to the reader to settle any problem. Through a comprehensive and systematic analysis and comparison of examples, this paper argues that we should use certain ways to write polite English for contemporary international business correspondence.**

***Index Terms*—English for international business correspondence, polite, wording, you-viewpoint, unity and coherence, tact**

I. Introduction

With the rapid development of the economy, business communication skills in the economic trade exchanges between countries seem particularly important. The success of foreign trade depends to a great degree on the use of the language. A good business letter should be able to obtain its writer expected results, since during the business communication, both parties have to cooperate as well as compete against each other, and either party would endeavor to win the most possible profit while maintaining cooperation. So it is indispensable for either party to employ proper politeness principles in gaining advantages over the other. When business negotiation escalates into conflict, each party should tactfully use the politeness principles to show the other party his/her friendliness, deference or considerateness, to play down the imposition, to try to avoid the risk of face threatening acts and leave freedom for oneself to act. Undoubtedly, this goal cannot be achieved without a strategic use of language. Business letters are the most traditional and common means to help people exchange information, maintain friendship, negotiate and settle disputes. Since English is the most widely used language in the world, business letters written in English have become an indispensable part of business transactions.

A large part of international business is conducted by means of correspondence; therefore it is of the utmost importance for us to learn to write good business letters—letters that present ideas interestingly and clearly to enable readers to understand with the least possible effort.

II. Approaches to Writing Polite English for Contemporary International Business Correspondence

Early in the 60s of the 20th century, the American philosopher Grice said that to ensure the success of a conversation, both sides of the conversation should comply with some principles. The users of the language in communication should always have the desire to cooperate with each other and observe four maxims of good communicative behavior:

H.P Grice proposes that talking is purposive and rational behavior and this makes it possible through the Cooperative Principle to "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose of direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice,1975, P.45). That is to say, people engaged in conversation will say something suitable at that point in the development of talk. Grice has made CP somewhat more explicit by subdividing it into a set of conversational maxims and sub maxims. These maxims are expressed as follows:(1) The maxim of Quantity. Make your contribution as informative as is required. Do not make your contribution more informative than that is required.(2) The maxim of Quality: Try to make your contribution one that is true. Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say the words for which you lack adequate evidence. (3) The maxim of Relevance: Be relevant. (4) The maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous. Avoid obscurity of expression. Avoid ambiguity. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity). Be orderly.

From above we can see these four maxims appoint what speakers have to do in their utterance communication. They should speak honestly, relevantly and clearly, and provide competent information in their talking. The British linguist Leech thinks that in every communicative conversation, both the speaker and the listener should "maximize the expression of the polite beliefs" and "minimize the expression of impolite beliefs". The politeness principle is very important to English for contemporary international business correspondence for everybody has to maintain each other's face and avoid face-threatening acts. If the speaker wants his face to be given and also the other's face to be cared for, the best way is to adopt proper politeness strategies, using appropriate polite language.

Business letters are conversations between the writer and the reader. Courtesy is the best policy in business correspondence. By abiding by the politeness principles, we can use the following ways to write polite English for contemporary international business correspondence.

1. Sexist language is to be avoided.

Gender bias should not appear in English for contemporary international business correspondence especially when the reader is a woman, either a feminist or not. Otherwise, it may offend or irritate the reader. In the past in business letter, the courtesy title Mrs. was used for a married woman and Miss for an unmarried woman. In recent years it has become customary to use Ms. As the courtesy title for all women, married or unmarried, and many women, particularly career women, strongly object to being addressed as Mrs. or Miss. We use neutral words rather than sexist language such as businesspeople or dealers instead of businessmen, salespeople instead of salesmen, spouses instead of wives. For example:

The workshop is especially useful to businesspeople.

Employees and their spouses are excluded from the contest.

2. Simple English is used

Time is money and a commodity for merchants. Therefore our letters should be written in simple English in order that the readers will understand them in least possible time. Grice's four maxims can be widely applied to English for contemporary international business correspondence. It is of much convenience for the reader to read simple, short but clear and complete business letters.

1) Concise polite formula is to be used

In order to make the reader understand easily and be glad to accept our information, letters are to be written in simple but courteous phrases such as we thank you, we would like you, we are glad/pleased, we have pleasure, we would be grateful/ obliged/appreciated if etc. Obsolete expressions that are hard to understand such as your esteemed favour (your letter), we have for acknowledgement with thanks shall be avoided(we have received your letter). For example:

We thank you for your letter of June 18 and have pleasure to inform you that the catalogue you asked for has been airmailed under separate cover.

We would like you to inquire into the financial and credit status of a firm in Milan on our behalf.

We would be obliged/grateful/appreciated/pleased if you would let us know if the company is reliable in paying debts, and also if they pay promptly

2) Familiar, conversational words and expressions are used.

Familiar, conversational words and expressions instead of complicated words or obsolete commercial jargons are used in order to make them understood more easily. For example:

familiar, conversational words and expressions	complicated or obsolete words and expressions
after	subsequent
large	substantial
issue	promulgate
if	in the event of
before	prior to
can	be in a position to
daily	per diem
during	in the course of
we enclose	enclosed herewith please
end	terminate
use	utilize
soon	in the near future
now/at present	at the present time
decide	come to a decision
you	your goodself
according to	as per

Careful writers should try to improve the quality of their letters by avoiding the difficult obsolete words or expressions.

3) Simple and short sentences and paragraphs are used

Use simple and short sentences and paragraphs, and finish with one point before going on to another to say what has to be said and say it clearly and completely. The crucial point is the aim of the letter must be made clear so that the reader will have no doubt about our intentions. For example:

Letter 1

As requested, we are sending you herewith our Proforma Invoice No.190 in quadruplicate for shirts.

The above-mentioned invoice, however, does not imply unreserved acceptance of your order as both prices and quantities must be further confirmed by us.

As soon as you have obtained the necessary import license, please let us know by e-mail so that we may confirm our offer. In the meantime, if there is any change in price or delivery, we shall contact you.

We look forward to receiving further views from you.

Grice's four maxims are applied very well in this letter. Every word, sentence and paragraph is appropriately used clear, complete, relevant and orderly without any redundancy. It will not be time-consuming for time is money to merchants.

3. Wording is to be noted

If our wording in the letter is inappropriate, the reader will be offended and unpleased and unsatisfied so as to prevent the trade going smoothly. For example:

We sincerely **advise** you to accept our proposal as our stocks are getting lower and lower day and day, and we are afraid we shall be unable to meet your requirements if you fail to let us have your confirmation by return.

Here the wording *advise* is improperly used, which is used in a commanding tone as if the other party, who will be offended, had no choice but to accept our requirements, which will lead to the failure of the transaction. Therefore we should change the word *advise* into *recommend*.

We **reject** your order No.85 for 100,000 yards of Cotton Prints Art.No.1002.

Here the wording *reject* is inappropriate, which is too straightforward, which will make the other party lose face. We should express the sentence in a more euphemistic way by saying: *Unfortunately, we have been unable to accept your order No.85 for 100,000 yards of Cotton Prints Art.No.1002.*

The Agreement in question calls for your working out business to the amount of $.... in going through our records, however, we find that your business done to date amounts to only $..., **your failure** is obviously at variance with your undertakings set forth in the above-mentioned Agreement. Therefore, we hope that you will spare no efforts to strive for more business to carry out the provisions of the Agreement as expected of you.

Here *your failure* should be changed into *the inactivity on your part.*

4. Subjunctive mood is used

Subjunctive mood is used to make the sentence more gracious to leave much room for negotiation to reach the agreement. For example:

If another instance of this discrepancy between the sample and the goods received should occur, it would be very embarrassing.

If the quantity were not so large, we could not give you such high discounts.

Could you also supply samples of the various skins of which the gloves are made, we should find it most hopeful.

5. Vague language is used

Vague language is used to leave room to negotiate with the other party and for both parties to compromise for mutual benefits. For example:

We take the liberty of writing to you with a view to establishing business relations with you and meanwhile asking you to make us a **competitive offer** for 50 metric tons of Bitter Apricon Kernels, September shipment, together with your trade terms and conditions.

We are large dealers in textiles and believe there is a promising market in our area for **moderately priced** goods of the kind mentioned.

If your answer is in the affirmative, please quote us your **best price** CIF…, stating the earliest date of shipment and the discount you will allow. 4. Provided **prices are right**, we should place a first order for 400 raincoats, namely 100 raincoats each of the four qualities. To be candid with you, we like your raincoats, but your price appear to be on the high side as compared with those of other makes.

It **seems** to us that the firm's difficulties were due to bad management and in particular to overtrading.

We have so far not received your L/C though you promised to establish it immediately after the signing of the S/C. **We wonder if there is something in the way that precludes you from establishing the L/C.**

Enclosed is a copy of the draft. Please go over the provisions and **advise us whether they meet with your approval**. We shall do all in our power to assist you in establishing a mutually beneficial trade.

6. You-viewpoint is used

When writing the business letter, we should remember whom we shall write to in order to view the problem in his light, take his circumstances into consideration, understand his difficulties and stand for him to show that we know him and we are considerate to him. For example:

We-viewpoint	You-viewpoint
.You have not opened the L/C for your order, which has been ready for shipment for a long time. We have written to you several times, but much to our regret, we have not had any reply from you up to the moment.	**The goods** you ordered **have been ready**. Please let us know when we can expect to receive the covering L/C, upon receipt of which, we will effect shipment without delay.
We regret to say that we have to cancel your order because of your failure to open the L/C in time.	Please let us know **if there is something in the way** that precludes you from establishing the L/C.
You did not open the L/C according to the contract terms; therefore you are requested to amend the L/C as follows:	There are **some discrepancies** existing between the L/C stipulations and the terms of contract. For smooth effectuation of shipment, we shall appreciate your amending the L/c as follows:

Obviously you –viewpoint presentation sounds better. The above expressions show that the seller has taken into consideration the benefits or difficulties of the buyer and suggests a possible settlement, thus encouraging the buyer to cooperate more closely with the seller. In our letter we should see things from the reader's point of view, visualize him in his surroundings, see his problems and difficulties and express our ideas in terms of his experience.

7. Business letters should be written clearly, completely and dated concretely to avoid ambiguity and vagueness. For example:

We have duly received your order, for which please accept our thanks. We can change this sentence into:

We have duly received your order No. 60 dated 22nd March, for which we thank you very much.

Your letter of recent date to hand and contents noted with thanks. We shall appreciate a line from you at an earliest date. We can change this sentence into:

We thank you for your letter of 14th April; and we shall appreciate your writing us soon.

8. Unity and coherence should be noted in the writing

For unity, a paragraph for each point is a good rule; likewise, one letter for one topic will serve to make our letter clear.

If a letter is coherent, the sentences stick together and each sentence is in some way linked to the preceding sentences. Careful writers use coherence techniques to avoid abrupt change in thought. For example:

Letter 2

Messrs. Brown & Clark of this city inform us that you are exporters of all cotton bed-sheets and pillowcases. We would like you to send us details of your various ranges, including sizes, colors and prices, and also samples of the different qualities of material used.

We are large dealers in textiles and believe there is a promising market in our area for moderately priced goods of the kind mentioned.

When replying, please state your terms of payment and discount you would allow on purchases of quantities of not less than 100 dozen of individual items. Process quoted should include insurance and freight to Liverpool.

This letter is a case in point. The first paragraph shows from whom the writer knows the addressee, and what the addressee requires. The second paragraph is a self-introduction and informs the addressee of the business prospects. The third paragraph is asking for terms of payment and quantity discount. So when writing is coherent, reading is simplified.

If a sentence or a paragraph contains a series, each element in the series can be placed a number before it.

For example: We require your draft to be accompanied by

1) three non-negotiable copies of clean shipped on board Bill of Lading, marked "Freight prepaid";

2) Signed Invoice in triplicate;

3) Certificate of Origin in duplicate;

4) Insurance Policy in duplicate covering WPA& War for full invoice value plus 10%

9. Proper voice should be used

1) Passive voice is used

If the doer of the action is the reader, we'd better use passive voice.

Using passive tense will make the tone more tactful. Ashley thinks: "In business letters, besides choosing some tactful language, we also ought to use passive tense in order to make letters more polite. Because passive tense can make your request much more mildly …" (GuYueguo, 1992, P. 10-17) For example:

You made a very careless mistake .It should change into:

A very careless mistake was made.

You did not enclose the cheque with your order. It's better to change into:

The cheque was not enclosed with your order.

For the past two years, you did not give us any order .It's better to change into:

For the past two years, no order has been given to us 8. Tactful skills are used

2) Active voice is used

If the doer of the action is us, we'd better use active voice. By using active voice it seems that we are close to the reader thus leading to closer relationship between the writer and the reader.

Enclosed is our latest catalogue for your reference.

It is better to write: We enclose our latest catalogue for your reference.

A cable was sent by us to ABC Company yesterday.

It is better to write: We sent a cable to ABC Company yesterday.

Your enquiry of 20th August has been received and your interest in our products is appreciated. It is better to write: We have received your enquiry of 20th August and thank you for your interest in our products.

10. Tactful skills are used

When there exist some defects in our goods and services that should be corrected, special attention should be paid to the fact that our adjustment letters are to express our desire to build goodwill to keep negatives from worsening the situation. Therefore when making a direct claim, we should make clear what is wrong, not let the anger show and at the same time avoid sarcasm in the writing, give the facts calmly, specifically and thoroughly, request the action of a replacement, repair, refund, or compensation, be sure that the letter would not arouse resentment and offence; so the

tone and wording of the letter must be right. When dealing with a claim, we should begin pleasantly with the adjustment and avoid any grudging tone and disappointing aspects, and explain any facts fully and honestly and reassuringly including a goodwill-building sentence saying that we welcome the customer's comments as a way of making improvement. The reason for the mishap is to be stated briefly. We should admit the error frankly if the product or the company's service was at fault and ask for any necessary cooperation from the customer. The letter should be closed with a forward look. Do not repeatedly recall or apologize for the disappointing aspects with a backward look. End the letter with assurance and desire for future development.

As an adjustment communicator, we should avoid as possibly as we can the following words and expressions in the writing because they will ruin good will: your claim, amazed, fault, sorry, defective, surprised, and regret. More often than not, as a token of considerateness when closing a successful adjustment letter, we would say "If you have any more difficulty, please do not hesitate to let us know," or even "We do not think you will have any more difficulty." In fact, these words, to a great extent, create in the mind of the customer an undesirable idea that more difficulty will arise. Therefore, it is advisable to omit them. For example:

Letter 3

We duly received the documents and took delivery of the goods on arrival of the s. s. "Isabella" at Hamburg.

We are much obliged to you for the prompt execution of this order. Everything appears to be correct and in good condition except in case No.71.

Unfortunately, when we opened this case we found it contained completely different articles, and we can only presume that a mistake was made and the contents of this case were for another order.

As we need the articles we ordered to complete deliveries to our new customers, we must ask you to arrange for the dispatch of replacements at once. We attach a list of the contents of case No. 71, and shall be glad if you will check this with our order and the copy of your invoice.

In the meantime we are holding the above-mentioned case at your disposal; please let us know what you wish us to do with it.

Letter 4

Thank you for your letter of February 1o informing us that the consignment was delivered promptly, we appreciate your straightforwardness in pointing out that case No. 71 did not contain the goods you ordered.

On going into the matter we find that a mistake was indeed made in the packing through a confusion of numbers, and we have arranged for the right goods to be dispatched to you at once. Relative documents will be mailed as soon as they are ready.

We have already cabled to inform you of this, and we enclose a copy of the telegram.

Please keep case No. 71 and its contents until called for by our Commercial Counselor's Office, whom we have informed of the matter accordingly.

We were sorry for the trouble caused you by the error and wish to assure you that care will be taken in the execution of your further orders.

Letter 3 and Letter 4 are good examples. The first and the second paragraphs of Letter 3 imply a buffer by praising the seller or exporter for having executed the order promptly. The third paragraph simply gives the fact. The last two paragraphs submit suggestions for a fair settlement of the trouble.

A tactful adjustment letter will often ease the anxiety of the claimant who feels annoyed at the inconvenience caused him by the mishap, thus making settlement easy to reach. The first paragraph of Letter4 expresses appreciation to the customer for pointing out that wrong goods have been delivered. The second paragraph gives the reason for the mistake and informs the customer that actions for settlement have been taken. The fourth paragraph is a suggestion. The last paragraph, besides expressing regret, stresses assurance that care will be taken in the execution of the customer's future orders. In handling cases such as this, arguments will not ease the customers of their anxieties, while fair play proves to be the acceptable solution.

This kind of ways of wording and paragraphing is good to make the letter clear and readable and pleasant to be accepted.

III. Conclusion

Polite English for contemporary international business correspondence creates an atmosphere to respect and cooperate with the reader to make him willing and glade to cooperate with us so as to help us promote our friendship and expand trade. Respecting others is respecting oneself. We should do our utmost to make our business letters polite to make the deal go smoothly. In business letters we should maximize the expression of the polite beliefs and minimize the expression of impolite beliefs. Slight carelessness may ruin our trade for the competition in the foreign trade is increasingly fierce with the rapid globalization of the economy. So the politeness principles should be automatically conformed to and politeness cannot be overemphasized in English for contemporary international business correspondence.

References

[1] Leech, G.N. (1983). Principles of Pragmatics. Harlow: Longman.
[2] Leo Jones and Richard Alexander. (1994). International Business English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[3] Levinson, S.C. Pragmatics. (1983). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[4] Gan Hong. (1997). English for International Business Communication. Shanghai: Shanghai Science and Technology Literature Press.
[5] Andrew Littlejohn. (2000). The Writing Course of Business English. London: Cambridge University Press.
[6] Blum-Kulka, S. (1997). Discourse Pragmatics in Teun A. London: Sage Publications.
[7] Brown P., and S. Levinson. (1987). Politeness: Some universals in language usage. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[8] Stewart M., and K. Zimmer. (1984). Business English and Communication. USA: Mcgraw-Hill Book Company.
[9] Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole and J. Morgan *Studies in Syntax and Semantics III: Speech Acts*, New York: Academic Press, 43-98.
[10] Gu Yueguo. (1992). Polite Expressions and Culture. In Gu Yueguo, *Foreign Language Teaching and Research, 4.* Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 10-17.

Guineng Mei was born in Guidong County, Hunan Province, China in 1963. He received his M.A in linguistics from Hunan University, China in 1996.

He is currently an associate professor in Foreign Languages College, Zhejiang Gongshang University, Zhejiang, China. His interests include English linguistics, Applied linguistics, and translation skills.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1491-1497, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1491-1497

Beloved and Julia Kristeva's The Semiotic and The Symbolic

Camelia Talebian Sadehi
Department of Foreign Languages, University of Amin, Isfahan, Iran
Email: Cml_talebian@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—One of the most important African-American female novelists of the 20th century is Toni Morrison. Her novels consider the blight of the black people in American history. This article intends to focus on Morrison's Beloved in the light of Julia Kristeva's theory of the semiotic and the symbolic. As Morrison has written a poetic-fictional text, Kristeva's the semiotic and the symbolic are applicable in Morrison's Beloved.**

***Index Terms*—*Beloved*, the semiotic, the symbolic, black people, poetic-fictional text**

I. Introduction

Julia Kristeva is concerned with the subject's identity. She believes that the subject can gain his/her identity through language. When s/he expresses her/his intentions, either directly or indirectly, s/he can claim her/his subjectivity. *Beloved* is the good example for Kristeva's theories of subjectivity, as it deals with the questions of slavery and the way the blacks cope with their problems. Toni Morrison wrote *Beloved* in 1987. *Beloved* is a historical novel based on Margaret Garner's true-life story. Margaret Garner was a slave and she did not wish her children to live as slaves as she did; therefore, she decided to murder them rather than to see them as slaves. Garner emphasizes that she "would much rather kill them at once and thus end their suffering, than have them taken back to slavery and be murdered by piecemeal" (Peterson, 2008, p. 17). She had killed her two-year-old daughter and Morrison selects her story, but modifies it based on her purpose. She changes "names, dates, details and narrative outcomes" of Garner's story (ibid. 19).

Morrison selects Garner's story to describe the painful slaves' experience and their life after abolition of slavery. She recognizes that unlike whites, blacks were silent throughout American history and literature; therefore, she intends to give blacks voice to express their pain in her novels. She challenges the dominant white and Eurocentric discourse by referring to the African and Afro-American presence in the U.S. literary history (Jung, 2009, p. 41). In fact, Morrison enlivens the "presence of black people by critiquing their suppressed absence from U.S. literary history" (2004, p. 42).

Beloved conveys the unrecorded, brutalized slaves' experience and the way they cope with their past. Morrison displays the effect of slavery despite the passage of many years after abolishment of slavery(Mousey, 2010, p. 48); one can still conceive blacks' otherness even in the postmodern age. Morrison heals the chronic infectious wound of slavery through writing about slavery and its aftermaths; moreover, she shows the "interior life of people" (Amian, 2008, p. 120). This article intends to apply Julia Kristeva's theory of the semiotic and the symbolic to Beloved and discuss how characters use language to gain self-realization.

II. The Semiotic and The Symbolic

In Kristeva's terms, the semiotic and the symbolic refer to two interdependent aspects of language. The semiotic is defined as the matriarchal aspect of language that shows the speaker's inner drives and impulses. These unconscious drives manifest themselves in character's tone, their rhythmical sentences and the images they use in order to express what they want to convey. The semiotic aspect is repressed not only by society but also by the patriarchal aspect of language that Kristeva calls the symbolic. In other words, one should realize that "in Kristevan schemes, the social is always oppressive" (Jones, 1984, p. 58).

The symbolic is the rule-governed aspect of language, which shows itself in the grammatical structures and syntactic structures. Although the semiotic and the symbolic aspects of language oppose one another in their nature, they complete each other in language. The speaker's speech is meaningful when both the semiotic and the symbolic are together. As Sutcliffe emphasizes, "the semiotic and symbolic as opposites" are "necessary for both each other and the subject in whom they are combined" (2003, p. 337). Besides, "no text, however radical, is purely semiotic" but rather "the semiotic always manifests itself within the symbolic" (Sabo, 2010, p. 59).

As Morrison's style is lyrical, and her prose is poetical, the semiotic aspect of language is manifest in her work. Besides, the grammatical structure of her sentences makes it possible to focus on the semiotic and the symbolic as the two interdependent aspects of language. Morrison's novel is musical, and her language "breathes… as if it has to jump off the page. So we read it as poetry" (Iasevoli, 1998, p. 61). In fact, Afro-American slaves and ex-slaves can reaffirm

their identity just through musical expressions. They survive and heal their wounded subjectivity through music. As Keizer claims:

Morrison invokes the practices of verbal and musical improvisation as a sign and expressions of African-American selfhood and agency. As Morrison herself has said "black Americans were sustained and healed and nurtured by the translation of their experience into art and above all in music." (1999, p. 106)

This part will shed light on the effect of the figures of speeches, rhythm and tone as the semiotic aspects of language and its influence on the meaning and the structure of the text that is related to the symbolic aspect of language.

III. Alliteration, Repetition, Rhythm, and Onomatopoeia

Morrison's novel is very rhythmical as if the words want to escape the page and start to dance. "For Morrison, African-American writing fundamentally relies on the sounds and rhythms of black music as a source of narrative content, but also as an aesthetic 'mirror'" (Eckstein, 2006, p. 272). "The song, laughter and the different words suggest the primordial mother tongue of the preoedipal realm, the maternal semiotic that exists outside of, and in opposion to the symbolic language of the father" (O' Reilly, 2004, p. 89). Moreover, "music expresses the unspeakable and frightening abject, the thing that language leaves out" (Iannetta, 2002, p. 249). From the very beginning, the novel starts with three short sentences "124WAS SPITEFUL. Full of a baby's venom. The women in the house knew it and so did the children" (2004, p. 3). With such an opening, the reader is curious to know more about the house and its venom. These sentences are short and musical and allow the reader to understand something about the setting and the place. Then s/he grasps that a baby ghost that is excorcised by the inhabitants of the house haunts the house. "Come on. Come on. You may as well come on" with such rhythmical invitations, the inhabitants want to catch the ghost (2004, p. 4). The repeated phrase "come on," gives the opportunity to the reader to understand that the inhabitants are not happy with the ghost's presence in their house.

A bit later, Sethe explains that the ghost does not react to their invitation to present itself, as "she wasn't even two years old when she died. Too little to understand. Too little to talk much even" (2004, p. 5). The repeated "too little" not only adds to the musicality of the text, but also shows that the ghost is a baby ghost. Moreover, it shows that Sethe somehow sympathizes with the ghost.

Sethe explains how she escaped Sweet Home, her master's house, and on the way:

The plash of water, the sight of her shoes and stockings awry on the path where she had flung them; or Here Boy lapping in the puddle near her feet, and suddenly there was Sweet Home rolling, rolling, rolling out before her eyes, and although there was not a leaf on that farm that did not make her want to scream, it rolled itself out before her in shameless beauty. (2004, p. 7)

"The plash" is onomatopoeia, and the semiotic, as the child is not able to use words in the semiotic chora, he just imitates its surrounding and "the plash" is the sound of the water. Besides, the repetition of "rolling" in the text makes it poetical and adds to the sound effect of the text.

As Morrison uses the stream of consciousness to render the detailed acount of slavery, the characters live in the present but they talk about their past. The narrator explains that in Sweet Home "all in their twenties, minus women, fucking cows, dreaming of rape, thrashing on pallets, rubbing their thighs and waiting for the new girl" the repetition of "ing," the gerunds, in the text emphasizes slaves' habitual life and the way they did things all their life without even a change (2004, p. 15).

Sethe has given the account of her experience and the way she escaped Sweet Home to Paul D. Then, they go to sleep in the same room. Denver is jealous of Paul D's presence and thinks that her mother's love will vanish with his presence. Therefore, she ate the jelly "slowly, methodically, miserable" (2004, p. 23). The adverbs intensify her manner and her perturbed mind and her loneliness.

With Paul D's presence, everything comes to its order and all the characters remember their past as it is mentioned "drabness looked drab; heat was hot" with such a melodic and short sentences, the author shows the influence of Paul D's presence on people's lives (2004, p. 48).

Little rice, little bean,
No meat in between.
Hard work ain't easy,
Dry bread ain't greasy….
Lay my bead on the railroad line,
Train come along, pacify my mind.
If I had my weight in lime,
I'd whip my captain till he went stone blind.
five-cent nickel,
Ten-cent dime,
Busting rocks is busting time. (2004, p. 48)

These two stanzas are not only symbolic and have their own formal and grammatical structure but also they are semiotic as they have rhythm and melody.

Poetic language works precisely by undermining the structures that usually characterise textual expression-as Anne-Marie Smith puts it, poetic language "is defined by its infringement of the laws of grammar and prose." The function of poetry is to create, to "make it new," and this creating must come from drives outside the prosaic, the structured, the symbolic. (Stokes-king, 2006, p. 43)

Even the repetition of "pounding" in the sentence "the songs he knew from Georgia were flat-headed nails for pounding and pounding and pounding" refers to the repetitious job they had to do each moment of their life (2004, p.48). In Kristevan terms, poetry is assertion of the semiotic within the symbolic, an interaction that determines the type of discourse. "Poetry highlights the thetic stage while advancing the fundamental importance of the semiotic" (Sutcliffe, 2003, p. 346).

As Paul D and Sethe share their memories, they talk about Denver and her behavior, but Sethe believes that nothing can hurt her as "everybody" she knows "dead or gone or dead or gone" but Denver is alive and nothing can hurt her (2004, p. 50). Through the musical sentences, Sethe indicates her assurance and, besides, she expresses her sense of loss. She has lost all the people she loved, but she is sure that Denver will not be hurt. Paul D is worried that Denver is sad and feels lonely; therefore, he decides to take them to the carnival, there "the black people in its audience thrill upon thrill upon thrill" and they enjoy their time (2004, p. 58). The repetition of "thrill" shows their inner satisfaction. They enjoy the carnival as it is held just for the black and they can enjoy it because they are together.

When they return home, they observe a young woman stand in front of their house. They invite her home and ask some questions about the place she has come from and the family she has had. The young woman with the repetitious word "long way" highlights the long distance she has walked to arrive at 124 (2004, p. 77). Paul D thinks that he has seen Beloved, the newly arrived young woman, somewhere and with such an impression, he remembers his past when he should "Move. Walk. Run. Hide. Steal and move on" as quick as the words appear on the page (2004, p. 78). These words are both semiotic and symbolic as they not only have grammatical structures, but also show the restless life Paul D has had as a slave.

As Paul D remembers his past, he explains that one day he saw Halle, Sethe's husband, who had stood still and could not move. Before Paul D remembers this scene, he finds out that two boys have stolen Sethe's milk and he discovers why Halle was so shocked. When Sethe realizes Halle has seen the event, but has not reacted, she walks "up and down, up and down" in the room and these repetitious words reflect her fury and rage (2004, p. 81). She is irritated that her husband acted so foolishly. As Deutrich mentions, "repetition reinforces the horror of the images and is characteristic of oral expression" (2004, p. 32).

One night, in order to talk to Sethe, Paul D goes after Sethe to find her in the restaurant, where she works, "when she saw him, she said Oh, and her smile was both pleasure and surprise" the "oh" sound semiotically expresses Sethe's surprise and happiness (2004, p. 149). He reveals his secret and tells her that he wants her to be pregnant. They sleep with each other and "Paul D's chest rose and fell, rose and fell under her hand" (2004, p. 156). As his sexual impulses arouse, the rhythm of the text reflects his desires. Next day Sethe remembers Sweet Home and Mr. Garner. Mr. Garner believed that the city has all the facilities such as "iron stoves, buttons, ships, shirts, hairbrushes, paint, steam engines, books" the alliteration of [ʃ] sound presents the calm atmosphere they have enjoyed in this city (2004, p. 168). Unlike the facilities for the whites, the city has provided misery for the blacks.

Whole towns wiped clean of Negroes; eighty-seven *lynching* in one year alone in Kentucky; four colored schools burned to the ground; grown men whipped like children; children whipped like adults; black women raped by the crew; property taken, necks broken. He smelled *skin*, *skin* and hot *blood*. The *skin* was one thing, but human *blood* cooked in a *lynch* fire was a whole other thing. (emphasis added, 2004, p. 212)

The repetition of "skin, blood" and "lynch" not only makes it musical but also indicates the disaster; it displays the racist society and emphasizes the whites' misbehavior. In addition, Beloved remembers her past and the way the whites tortured the blacks:

I cannot find my man the one whose teeth I have loved a *hot thing* the little hill of dead people a *hot thing* the men without *skin* push them through with poles the woman is there with the *face* I want the *face* that is mine they fall into the sea which is the color of the bread she has nothing in her ears if I had the teeth of the man who died on my *face* I would bite the circle around her neck bite it away I know she does not like it now there is room to crouch and to watch the crouching others it is the crouching that is now always now inside the woman with my *face* is in the sea a *hot thing.* (emphasis added, 2004, p. 212)

Repetition of the "hot thing," "face" and "skin" indicates the great suffering the blacks should have endured in the white racist society.

The black community wants to free Sethe from Beloved; therefore, they stand in front of 124 and sing a song "yes, yes, yes, oh yes. Hear me. Hear me. Do it, Maker, do it. Yes" (2004, p. 304-305). The repeated "yes" manifests that the women encourage Sethe to leave 124 and join them. Tally says that the sound that the community of women produces "is intimidated to be the pre-verbal sound of human origin before language" (2004, p. 45). As they sing a song, it seems that "In the beginning there were no words. In the beginning was the sound, and they all knew what that sound sounded like" (2004, p. 305). As the child uses semiotic impulses and imitates his/her surrounding then enters the realm of language, the narrator highlights the process in the above sentence. In the narrator's words, in the beginning, the sounds existed and then the words came into existence. At first, the Africans learn to sing and then they understand to express

their suffering through language. Beloved is disappointed that her mother leaves her for the second time and just states: "No no. Nonono" and it shows the deep sadness she feels when she loses her mother for the second time (2004, p. 309). At last, Beloved disappears.

IV. Metaphor, Simile, Metonymy and Color Imagery

Sometimes characters use simile and metaphor or metonymy in order to equivocate. As the truth may displease other persons, they hide it and say it implicitly. The figurative language is part of the semiotic aspect of language, even "structural linguistics, operating on phonological oppositions, or on two axes of metaphor and metonymy, accounts for some of the articulation, operating in what we have called the semiotic" (Kristeva, 1984, p. 41). In some parts of the novel, one can trace these features. As Sethe wants to forget about her past, she likens the picture of the men who came to nurse her to her "lifeless" "nerves" (2004, p. 6). Both of them are without affection and neither of them can understand her emotions. In the conversation between Paul D and Sethe, Sethe relieves Paul D and assures him that Baby Suggs' death was "soft as cream" and not painful at all (2004, p. 8).

Then Sethe likens Mrs. Garner's disease metaphorically to "lump in her neck the size of a sweet potato" to lessen the effect of the horrible disease she had (2004, p. 10). In the same way, the white girl compares Sethe's wounded back to a "choke cherry" tree not to shock Sethe (2004, p. 18). Moreover, Paul D compares it to "a decorative work of an iron smith" (2004, p. 21). He wants to assure Sethe that her back is not as horrible as she thinks. Even the narrator compares Sethe's blood to the roses that "blossomed in the blanket" to visualize the harshness of the matter and at the same time not to horrify Sethe (2004, p. 109).

Sethe remembers her mother and describes her to Beloved figuratively too. Sethe thinks that her mother worked a lot during the week, that on "Sunday she slept like a stick" to indicate her mother's fatigue and drudgery on Sundays (2004, p. 72).

As Stamp Paid informs Paul D that Sethe has killed her daughter, Stamp Paid likens Sethe to a wild animal:

How she flew, snatching up her children like a hawk on the wing; how her face beaked, how her hands worked like claws, how she collected them every which way: one on her shoulder, one under her arm, one by the hand, the other shouted forward into the woodshed filled with just sunlight and shavings now because there wasn't any wood. (2004, p. 185)

He thinks she is as ferocious as animals, and shows great brutality when she killed her daughter. discovering the event, Paul D wants to inform Sethe that he knows what she has committed and Paul D's "marrow" is exhausted. The narrator uses metonymy to show the effect of Paul D's knowledge on Paul D's health and emphasizes that Paul D cannot bear its burden (2004, p. 213).

While Paul D leaves Sethe, she remains alone with Beloved and Beloved tortures her mother. Denver considers her mother as a "ragdoll" because she stands motionless and indifference (2004, p. 286). Denver asks for help and the black neighbors stand in front of 124 and sing a song. As Sethe hears the song she feels "like a baptized in its wash" (2004, p. 308). It seems that she feels innocent again and her guilt melts away.

Besides the metonymy and metaphor, the characters use color imagery and express their feeling through colors. Signification of each color is important in the context that perceiver feels it; therefore, the color and the perceiver's mood have a direct relationship.

Kneeling in the keeping room where she usually went to talk-think it was clear why Baby Suggs was so starved for color. There wasn't any except for two orange squares in a quilt that made the absence shout. The walls of the room were slate-colored, the floor earth-brown, the wooden dresser the color of itself, curtains white, and the dominating feature, the quilt over an iron cot, was made up of scraps of blue serge, black, brown and gray wool--the full range of the dark and the muted that thrift and modesty allowed. In that sober field, two patches of orange looked wild--like life in the raw. (2004, p. 46)

The color imagery and repetition of dark colors show the gloomy and sombre atmosphere of the house. It seems that just death dominates their life.

Paul D hopes that Sethe will not be violent and instead of color "red" "she stuck to blue, yellow, maybe green" as these colors are the colors of caring, kindness, and calmness (2004, p. 213). In addition, "until Beloved story is fully articulated and meaning is made of Sethe's maternal experience, Morrison keeps both contained with in the 'non expressive', non language realm of the chora, manifested through the mysterious pulsing red light that haunts Sethe's house" (Eckard, 2002, p. 70).

As Denver enters the Bodwin's house, she is fascinated with "blue and soft" objects, "peal lamps and emerald house" in general (2004, p. 298). Through the use of colors, one can see how comfortable Denver feels at Bodwins' house.

V. Tone and Verbal Irony

Rhythm and tone are parts of the semiotic aspect of language that are meaningful (Thomas, 2008, p. 78). Denver expresses her loneliness at 124 and Paul D defends her but Sethe shots "Paul D a look of snow" and adds "what you care" (2004, p. 17)? The diction and the use of the word "snow" manifest Sethe's angry tone. She never permits anyone to interfere with her affairs. When Beloved arrives and Denver takes the responsibility to take care of her, her love and

her passion are shown in her words "she's not sick" (2004, p. 63)! She is very sorry that her newly-found friend is sick and she wants to save Beloved's life.

Finding out that Halle has seen her but he has hid himself, Sethe gets angry and the repetition of "he saw? He saw, he saw, he saw" shows how irritated she is that her husband neither killed those who attack his wife, nor defended her (2004, p. 81).

The same as Sethe, Beloved gets angry when she plays with Denver and utters, "Don't tell me what to do. Don't you never never tell me what to do" (2004, p. 89). Her angry tone is reflected in the repetition of the word "never." She wants to manipulate everything and cannot tolerate that someone dominates her.

When Paul D recognizes that Sethe has killed her daughter, he calls her an animal. At the end of the novel, when he returns to help Sethe and to wash her feet, she says "and count my feet" (2004, p. 321)? With such a verbal irony, she takes revenge on Paul D because she believes he cannot understand motherly love.

VI. Transgression

As mentioned before, Julia Kristeva considers the semiotic as the maternal and the symbolic as the paternal aspect of language. Therefore, one can consider the transgression of the father's rules, along with grammatical and punctuation transgression as the semiotic aspects of language.

Baby Suggs gathered people and talked to them. If one considers a priest as the father figure, Baby Suggs transgressed his rules because she "became an unchurched preacher" (2004, p. 102). However, Baby Suggs was not a priest, but people regarded her holy. She took people to the woods in order to redeem them. However, her method was different from the fathers of the church. Instead of preaching, she permitted the people to cry, laugh and dance together and to free their energies. As Habib holds: "religion controls the first aspect in instituting the symbolic order, an institution justifies first by myth and then by science. On the other hand, poetry, music, dance and theater enact trans-symbolic *jouissance* which threatens 'the unity of the social realm and the subject'" (2007, p. 700). In the semiotic chora, the child is able to laugh, and to move. The movement in the *chora* is dance-like. With her methods, Baby Suggs blessed them all, but "she did not tell them they were the blessed of the earth, its inheriting meek or its glorybound pure" (2004, p. 103). She did not act like the fathers of the church but her method was very helpful as people could reveal their inner feelings. There was no need to suppress their desires, unlike those concealing their emotions in the church.

Baby Suggs encourages them to claim their body that was stolen from them under the system of slavery. A part of the reclamation ceremony is the former captive's ability to show affects to laugh, weep, and joyously celebrate unnoosed and straighten necks. (Tait, 2008, p. 56)

Eckstein claims that Baby Suggs represents an "Afro-Christian musical tradition," and Paul D represents "the secular tradition of the blues" (2006, p. 275). As he continues, "the blues is an impulse to keep the painful details and episodes of a brutal experience alive in one's aching consciousness to finger its jagged grains to transcend it, not by the consolation of philosophy but by squeezing from it a near tragic, near comic lyricism" (ibid, 275).

As Sethe's mother was going to die, she wanted to inform her daughter how to identify her mother if an accident happened. "Here. Look here. This is your ma'am. If you can't tell me by my face, look here." "… the fingers, nor their nails, nor even..." (2004, p. 207). The phrase "the fingers, nor their nails, nor even" is not grammatical besides it is not meaningful on its own. It is only complete with the previous sentences, but the author uses it as an independent sentence. The author seems to emphasize that the blacks and the whites are the same, and both are human so she uses a dependent sentence as an independent one. However, the only thing that can separate them is the mark of slavery on the black's bodies.

Besides the grammatical transgression, the punctuation irregularities are traceable too. In Beloved's monologue, there is not any punctuation. It seems that the rush of thoughts come to her mind and she wants to express them without missing even one of them. "I AM BELOVED and she is mine" (2004, p. 248). "Her discourse" is elliptical; "that opening pronouncement is the last structure syntactically marked as sentence" (Holloway, 1990, p. 520). She talks about the black people who suffered from slavery, about her mother, and about all the forgotten and unarticulated events. When Beloved was a two year old child, she was killed by her mother, the reason for not being able to use the punctuation or the correct grammar can be her age. Besides, one should notice that Beloved could be the unconscious recollection of the black people; therefore, she can remember the past very well. "I am not separate from her there is no place where I stop her face is my own and I want to be there in the place where her face is and to be looking at it too a hot thing" (2004, p. 248). The "hot thing" refers to the time of slavery and the way the black people were tortured by the whites.

VII. Sensory Impressions and Dreams

The child is able to have sensory impressions as s/he has a tactile relationship with her/his mother. In the novel, there are some examples of sensory impressions.

"Denver's secrets were sweet," "noisome cologne," "the silence was softer," synesthesia is dominant in the previous sentences (2004, p. 43). As one can perceive some words are related to the auditory and some are related to the

gustatory senses; therefore, both auditory and gustatory sensations are juxtaposed here to explain how Denver has enjoyed her life and now she considers them as the best part of her life.

Involuntary memory is presented early on in the novel via sensorial stimuli, and the fact that in five paragraphs reference is made to all five senses is noteworthy:

1) haptic—"She might be hurrying across a field, running practically, to get to the pump quickly and rinse the chamomile sap from her legs. Nothing else would be in her mind. The picture of the men coming to nurse her was as lifeless as the nerves in her back where the skin buckled like a washboard."

2) olfactory—"Nor was there the faintest scent of ink or the cherry gum and oak bark from which it was made."

(3 & 4) [haptic], visual, and auditory—"The plash of water, the sight of her shoes and stocking awry on the path where she had fl ung them; or Here Boy lapping in the puddle near her feet, and suddenly there was Sweet Home rolling, rolling, rolling out before her eyes [...] (*Beloved:* 6);

5) gustatory—"[Paul D] made a face as though tasting a teaspoon of something bitter." (*Beloved:* 7) (Tally, 2007, p. 43)

In addition to sensory impressions, dreams are important in the novel. Dreams reveal the unconscious desires that cannot be expressed in daily speech and they are related to the semiotic aspect of language.

When Amy looks at Sethe's wounded back, she says, "in her dream walker's voice" (2004, p. 93). As she has never seen such a scene, she is shocked that the whites whipped a pregnant woman so cruelly. Therefore, her voice is dreamy as if in reality this cruel action cannot happen. As Mousey emphasizes, Sethe's scar reminds her pain and abuse that not only she but also all the slaves had to endure (2010, p. 7).

Besides, Sethe has a dream about her children and her husband. As she cannot see them in reality, her mind is preoccupied with their thought and they come to her dreams. She is so worried about her sons' condition that she sees "only their parts in trees" and it shows her anxiety. Moreover, she sees "Halle's face between the butter press and the churn swelled larger and larger" which shows her inner anger. She cannot forgive Halle for letting her suffer from the boys' attack: she sees Halle's deformed face in her dream.

VIII. Conclusion

To sum up, one should notice that the writer does not convey the meaning just through language, but sometimes she expresses the characters' intentions through tone, and all the mentioned methods. As it is hard for the characters to express their thoughts explicitly, they use different techniques such as repetition, metaphor, etc to communicate their thoughts.

Acknowledgment

I would like to thank the following people whose help made the completion of this article possible. I am deeply indebted to Dr. Helen Ouliaei Nia for her enlightening ideas. I would also like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Hossein Pirnajmuddin for his gracious advice. Moreover, I also express my gratitude to Kayvan Tahmasebian for his helpful suggestions. I have really benefited from his knowledge and encouragement. Moreover, I express my thanks to Dr. Pyeaam Abbasi for his unwavering belief in me. And special thanks to the professors of English department of University of Isfahan and University of Amin for providing an academic atmosphere.

My warmest thanks go to my parents. Their encouragement and support give me strength to follow my dreams and achieve my goals.

I am deeply grateful to all those mentioned and many who have gone unmentioned. I admit that I will never be able to repay them for their generous and helpful companionship.

References

[1] Amian, K. (2008). Rethinking Postmodernism(s). New York: Rodopi. Web. http://library.nu/docs/V0HXPRS6MJ/RethinkingPostmodernismsACharlesS.PeirceandthePragmatistNegotiationsofThomasPynchoncToniMorrisonCandJonathanSafranFoer.PostmodernStudies

[2] Eckard, P. G. (2002). Maternal Body and Voice in Toni Morrison, Bobbie Ann Mason, and Lee Smith. Columbia: University of Missouri Press.

[3] Eckstein, L. (2006). "A Love Supreme: Jazzthetic Strategies in Toni Morrison's 'Beloved'." *African American Review* 40.2.: 271-283. Retrieved in 6 April 2010. Web. http://www.jstor.org/stable/40033715

[4] Habib, M. A. R. (2007). A History of Literary Criticism and Theory: From Plato to the Present. United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell. Print.

[5] Holloway, K. F. C. (1990). "Beloved: A Spiritual." *Callaloo* 13.3.: 516-525. Retrieved in 30 October 2010. Web. http://www.jstor.org/stable/2931334

[6] Iannetta, M. E. (2002). Literary melancholia, or the refusal to mourn: Amnesia and anamnesis. Memories of love, loss, and abjection in feminine writing. Diss. University of California, Santa Cruz. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.

[7] Iasevoli, D. (1998). "A Hot Thing: Working on Toni Morrison's Beloved." *English Education* 31.1.: 60-61. Retrieved in November 2010. Web. http://www.jstor.org/stable/40172963

[8] Jones, A. R. (1984). "Julia Kristeva on Femininity: The Limits of a Semiotic Politics." *Feminist Review* 18: 56-73. Retrieved in October 2010. Web. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1394859
[9] Jung, S. (2009). Dialogism and multiculturalism in the work of Morrison, Silko, Anzaldua, and Vizenor. Diss. The University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[10] Keizer, A. R. (1999). "Beloved: Ideologies in conflict, improvised subjects. " *African American Review* 33.1 : 105-123. Academic Research Library, ProQuest. Web. Retrieved in 6 Aug. 2011.
[11] Kristeva, J. (1984). Revolution in Poetic Language. New York: Columbia University Press.
[12] Morrison, T. (2004). Beloved. USA: Vintage Books.
[13] Mounsey, C. (2010). Nathaniel Hawthorne and Toni Morrison: Multiple interpretations in "The Scarlett Letter" and "Beloved". Diss. Long Island University, The Brooklyn Center. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[14] Mounsey, C. (2010). Nathaniel Hawthorne and Toni Morrison: Multiple interpretations in "The Scarlett Letter" and "Beloved". Diss. Long Island University, The Brooklyn Center. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[15] O'Reilly, A. (2004). Toni Morrison and Motherhood, a Politics of the Heart. USA: University of New York Press. Web. http://library.nu/docs/GEZBLKTDYX/ToniMorrisonandMotherhoodAAPoliticsoftheHeart
[16] Peterson, N. J. (2008). Beloved Character Studies. Great Britain: MPG Books.
[17] Sabo, P. (2010). Impossible mourning: Lamentations as a text of melancholia. Diss. University of Alberta (Canada). Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[18] Stokes-King, L. (2006). "Lovely shapes and sounds intelligible": Kristevan semiotic and Coleridge's language of the unconscious. Diss. McGill University (Canada). Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[19] Sutcliffe, B. M. (2003). "Reading the Kristevan Semiotic and Symbolic: Nina Sadur's "Kol'tsa" and Marina Kulakova's "Reka po imeni Master". " *Canadian Slavonic Papers* 45.3/4 : 337. Academic Research Library, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[20] Tait, A. (2008). Redefining women's beauty through Toni Morrison: A black feminist reading. Diss. Morgan State University. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.
[21] Tally, J. (2007). The Cambridge Companion to Toni Morrison. UK: Cambridge University Press.
[22] Thomas, K. (2008). The Lazarus crisis: Subjectivity, language and sacrifice in cultural narratives. Diss. State University of New York at Stony Brook. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text, ProQuest. Web. 6 Aug. 2011.

Camelia Talebian Sadehi was born in Ahwaz, Iran in 1987. She studied English literature and got her B.A. from University of Isfahan, Iran in 2009. Then, she continued the same major in M.A. and got her degree from University of Isfahan in 2011. She published two articles "*The Melancholic Subject and The Bluest Eye*" and "*Beloved and Kristevan Melancholic Subject*". She also attended some national and international conferences and presented her lectures. She is lecturer at University of Amin, Isfahan, Iran, and teaches English literature.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1498-1502, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1498-1502

A Narrative Analysis of Lessing's *The Fifth Child*

Kun Zhao
Shandong University of Finance and Economics, China
Email: sjqj@163.com

***Abstract*—This paper does a narrative study on Doris Lessing's *The Fifth Child* for a better understanding of its narrative structure. It analyzes the narrator in the novel from overt and reliable narrative viewpoint. This paper explores the narrative power of the novel from the analysis of its narrator and narrative structure. Through the narrative skills Lessing successfully enforces the narrative power in the novel.**

***Index Terms*—narrator, person, overt and covert narrator, reliable and unreliable narrator, point of view**

I. Introduction of Doris Lessing and *The Fifth Child*

Doris Lessing was born in to British parents on October 22, 1919, in Kermanshah, Iran, where her father was a captain in the British Army. Her father ended his military service when she was five years old and in 1924 the family moved to a farm in Southern Rhodesia in South Africa, where they stayed for twenty years. Doris's education began at a convent school and later at a government school for girls. Her formal education ended when she was twelve. After two failed marriages, she moved to London. She published her first novel, *The Grass is Singing*, in 1950. The book explores the complacency and shallowness of white colonial society in Southern Africa and established Lessing as a talented young novelist.

She is now widely regarded as one of the most important post-war writers in English. Her novels, short stories and essays have focused on a wide range of twentieth century issues and concerns, from the politics of race that she confronted in her early novels set in Africa, to the politics of gender which lead to her adoption by the feminist movement, to the role of the family and the individual in society. Doris Lessing is very much of writer of her time, deeply involved in the changing patterns of thought and culture in the western world during the last thirty years. There is great continuity between her life and her work. Her keenest interest is in the relationship between the black and white races in Africa, changing ways between generations, and the position of women in society. She stands for social justice and she believes that women should play a bigger part in improving the society by her influence, bringing less competitive aggression and a higher level of culture and understanding.

Out of her numerous works, I want to choose one of her novels, *The Fifth child*, as the basis of this discussion. In the story, Lessing describes the changes in the happy life of a married couple, Harriet and David Lovatt, which occur as consequence of the birth of Ben, their fifth child. The novel tackles a variety of themes encompassing childhood development, the nuclear family, the difficulties of pregnancy, and the treatment of disabled children. With *The Fifth Child* Doris Lessing triumphs in a realm of fiction new to her. She has written an ominously tangible novel, a powerfully simple contemporary horror story that makes compulsive reading to the last word.

Though *The Fifth child* was not as famous as *The Grass Is Singing* and *The Golden Notebook*, her masterpieces, Doris Lessing paid so much attention to it that she wrote its sequel, *Ben, in the World*, after 12 years in 2000. That was unusual in the writer's life. Much analysis focuses on Doris Lessing's feminism, considered her as a feminism icon (Li, 2000), and only a few critics studied her writing style, and still fewer scholars studied her narrative characteristics. In this paper, I will analyze the narrative characteristics of *The Fifth Child* so that we can have a better understanding of the literature tycoon. This paper mainly focuses on the narrative structure of the novel.

II. The Narrator

Any narrative text is related to the reader by at least one narrator who serves as the bridge between the reader and the events through his emphasis on certain characters and events through his manipulation of imagination and language (Tan, 2003). To some degree we can say that without the narrator, a narrative text may not exist, or the narrator is indispensable to a narrative text. In *The Fifth Child*, the narrator's type may be confusing to an inexperienced reader because the past tense and present tense are occasionally used. The narrator is discussed in two aspects: voice and point of view, for the sake of discussion of details in *The Fifth Child*.

A. Voice

Voice in narration is question of "who it is" we "hear" doing the narrating. Here we had better have a brief review of narrators in narratological studies to study the voice in the narrative. Much efforts has been made to separate narrators in narrative fictions into different kinds according to different criteria. Traditionally, narrators are classified into three types according to the "person", that is, first-person narrator, third-person narrator and seldom-used second-person narrator. According to the narrator's position in relation to the story he tells and extent of his participation in the events,

there are heterodiegetic/non-character narrator and homodiegetic/character narrator; according to degree to which the narrator can be sensed, there are overt narrator and covert narrator; according to the relationship between the narrator and the implied author, there are reliable narrator and unreliable narrator.

B. Person

In the beginning, critics divided narrators into three types according to the "person": first-person narrator, third-person narrator and seldom-used second person narrator. When a narrator is a character in the story who uses the first person (*I* or sometimes *we*) to tell the event, he is a first-person narrator, just like the boy in James Joyce's *Araby*. Third-person narrators fall into three categories, namely, objective narrator, limited omniscient narrator and omniscient narrator.

An objective narrator tells a story from an objective point of view while he remains entirely outside of the character's mind. With objective narrator, events unfold the way they would in a play or movie. Objective narrators tell the story only by presenting dialogue and recounting events; they do not reveal the characters' thoughts or attitude. Thus, they allow readers to interpret the actions of the characters without any interference. This kind of narrator usually seems to be distant and emotionless; his perceptive is consistent with the writer's purpose in the fiction.

A limited omniscient narrator focuses only on what a single character experiences. In other words, events are limited to one character's perspective, and nothing is revealed that the character does not see, hear, feel or think. Limited omniscient narrators have certain advantages over first-person narrators. When a writer uses a first-person narrator, the narrator's personality and speech color the story, creating a personal even an idiosyncratic narrative. Also the first-person narrator's character flaws or lack of knowledge may limit his awareness of the importance of the event. Limited omniscient narrators are more flexible: they take readers into the mind of a particular character's mind just as a first-person narrator does, but without he first-person narrator's subjectivity, self-deception or naivet é.

An omniscient narrator moves at will from one character to another. He can present a more inclusive overview of events and characters than a first-person narrators can. Because he is not a character in the story, his perception is not limited to what any one character can observe or comprehend. An omniscient narrator can convey his attitude toward the subjective matter. Occasionally, omniscient narrators move not only in and out of the minds of characters but also in and out of a persona representing the voice of the writer that speaks directly to readers. To a large degree, the narrator in *The Fifth Child* belongs to this type.

The narrator in *The Fifth Child* moves freely among characters, both on their actions and minds. So he is an omniscient narrator. The beginning of the story, "Harriet and David met each other at an office party, neither had particularly wanted to go to, and both knew at once this was what they had been waiting for" (Lessing, 1988, p.1), shows that the narrator is a third person who can tell the readers both the event that the characters met at an office party and the mental activities of the characters that both the woman and the man had the feeling of love at the first sight. He has the capability to make his comment on the characters: conservative, old-fashioned, not to say obsolescent. He presents the suffering of Harriet with the fifth pregnancy as,

When she at last lay down, regulating her breath, she would start up again, with an exclamation, and, knowing he was awake, would go downstairs to the big family room where she could stride up and down groaning, swearing, weeping, without being observed". She imagined pathetic botched creatures, horribly real to her, the products of a Great Dane or a borzoi with little spaniel; a lion and a dog; a great cart horse and a little donkey; a tiger and a goat (Lessing, 1988, p. 39-41).

In these quotations the events and the minds of the character are presented one after another, sometimes even in the same sentence. The narrator knows all before the readers and he leads the readers to explore all events and the characters' minds.

In summary, grammatical person is all important feature of voice in narration, but more important is the kind of character or non-character in the narrative. It is whose voice that colors the story.

C. Overt Narrator and Covert Narrator

The concept of overt narrator and covert narrator were first put forward by Seymour Chatman in 1978 in his *Story and Discourse*. An overt narrator may be a character in the story or a narrator intruding from outside the story. He usually has a strong subject consciousness to address to readers directly or indirectly in the first person *I* or *we*. While a covert narrator appears in concealing narration in which the reader can hear the voice narrating the events, the characters and the scenes but the holder of the voice remains in the shadow. A covert narrator presents the events and with the least intervention by allowing the events to develop its own logic and letting the characters play their roles in their own reasonable ways. He tries not to contact the reader, not to influence the reader's judgment on characters and events, and not to show his own attitude as well. The narrators in Lessing's *Wine* as well as in Hemingway's *Hills Like White Elephants* belong to this type, so much so that, the readers can hardly notice the existence of the narrator.

The narrator in *The Fifth Child* is an overt narrator since he often indirectly addresses the reader while intruding from outside the story. The reader can notice the existence of the narrator in the events he described. For example, "His real father married one of his kind: she was a noisy, kind, competent woman, with the cynical good humor of the rich" (Lessing, 1988, p. 7). When a narrator narrates an event, he not only gives the readers the fact but also his attitude. The narrator's attitude towards David's step-mother (Jessica) is obviously not friendly. He influences the readers with his

strong attitudes from beginning to the end.

D. Reliable Narrator and Unreliable Narrator

The concepts of reliable and unreliable narrators were brought forward by Wayne Booth in his *The Rhetoric of Fiction* (1983). He points out the reliable author is someone "when he speaks for or acts in accordance with the norms of the work (which is to say, the implied author's norm), *unreliable* when he does not" (Booth, 1983, p.159). The implied author refers to the image of the writer constructed by the reader from the text, which may be different from the real author who created the text. As the writer's second self, the implied author would have some connection with the real author. In judging the reliability of the narrator, what is important lies in whether his norms are in accordance with the implied author's norms or not. Unreliability does not mean that the narrator is lying on his description of the characters and events, in the more often seen cases; the narrator is estranged from the implied author due to his "prejudice" against the characters or events for one reason or another. The unreliable author may be distant to different extent from the implied author morally, intellectually, physically. Whereas the reliable narrator serves as a good guide leading the readers through the event and usually represents the implied author's norms. Normally, the readers tend to accept the norms presented by a reliable narrator. The narrator of *The Fifth Child* is presenting the events with the implied author's norms. The implied author explores the idea of perfection in reality if it is achievable. He paints a negative picture of the Lovatts' from the very beginning of the novel and continues to do so throughout its entirety. "Harriet and David met each other at an office party neither had particularly wanted to go to, and both knew at once that this is what they had been waiting for"(Lessing, 1988, p.1). The characters here are not the same as heir peers. They are unrealistic to the society and they want the perfection on everything they involve. Throughout the novel Harriet and David discover the dangers of perfection in the face of an imperfect world. In the beginning of the novel the implied author shows Harriet and David successfully construct the perfect life they both dreamt of ---- an "old-fashioned" life centered on togetherness, family, and contentment. However, the perfect life they attempted to create is in severe contrast to the reality of the world that goes on outside their home. As this external reality becomes a part of their every day life, their dreams of perfection seem futile and unachievable. In the end, the perfect world they attempted to establish is lost completely in the darkness of a flawed world. The implied narrator here is represented by a reliable narrator.

The narrator adds further imperfection to the lives of Harriet and David during an otherwise perfect family Christmas, "a cloud…Sarah and her husband, William were unhappily married, and quarreled and made up, but she was pregnant with her fourth, and a divorce was impossible" (Lessing 1988, p.20-21). The reliable narrator puts a further ominous cloud when Sarah's baby is not a perfect baby but rather is affected by Downs Syndrome. Harriet remarks to David, foreshadowing future events, that "Sarah and William's unhappiness, their quarrelling, had probably attracted the Mongol child" (Lessing 1988, p.22). This statement of Harriet is well placed by the implied author. It causes the reader begin to think of the possible outcomes of the Lovatts' selfish desire for perfection.

Harriet's pregnancy with Ben is insufferable, and her misery dampens the spirit of the house, which cannot handle "tears and misery". "The quietly insistent patient quality that had brought them together…this demand on life, which had been met in the past with respect (grudging or generous), was now showing its reverse side, in Harriet lying pale and unsociable on her bed" (Lessing 1988, p.37). A division in the family begins to show itself because of Harriet's pain, which is so bad that she takes massive amounts of tranquilizers. Harriet feels at times that she is pregnant with something evil, an "enemy" (Lessing 1988, p.40), perhaps even satanic: "Sometimes she believed hooves were cutting her tender inside flesh, sometimes claws" (Lessing 1988, p.51). Her pregnant state is symbolic of imperfection and evil growing deep within the family.

The little town they lived in had changed in the five years they had been. Brutal incidents and crimes, once shocking everyone, were now commonplace…The house next door had been burgled three times; the Lovatts' not yet, but then there were always people about…There was an ugly edge on events: more and more it seemed that two peoples lived in England, no one----enemies, hating each other who could not hear what the other said. The young Lovatts made themselves read the papers, and watch the News on television, though their instinct was to do neither. At least they ought to know what went on outside their fortress, their kingdom, in which three precious children were nurtured, and where so many people came to immerse themselves in safety, comfort, and kindness (Lessing 1988, p.22).

Thus we see that the troubled world is getting closer and closer to penetrating the Lovatts' fortress, as close as the house next door. It is shortly after this that Harriet first refers to herself as "a criminal" (Lessing 1988, p. 25), implying that she is somehow breaking the laws of society. Her crime is attempting to have a perfect life in an imperfect world. The high expectation in the imperfect world is the background put forward by the implied author's attitude, and the narrator presented it clearly with his narration. He became a reliable narrator.

From above discussion we can see the narrator in *The Fifth Child* is all omniscient, heterodiegetic/non-character, overt and reliable narrator. He knows every aspect of the events and moves freely from one character to another and presents the facts and ideas at the same time. He exists before the events, without personal contact with the characters, yet he makes comments from time to time, and his norms are in agreement with those of the implied author.

However, the above discussions mainly focus on the narrative voice, that is, the problem of "who says". We have to explore another problem on "who sees" to have a better understanding on the narrator of *The Fifth Child* in next part.

III. Point of View

Considering the narrative situation in *The Fifth Child*, we can find that the narrative voice comes from the heterodiegetic/non-character narrator who doesn't take part in the events at all, but careful study shows that the narrative perspective comes from the protagonist, Harriet, while the heterodiegetic author still holds his perspective to some extent. The narrator observes the characters and events from Harriet's perspective, so her thoughts, actions and the other characters' behaviors and speeches are all the objects of her focalization.

When the internal perspective is taken, the focalizer may describe the other character's appearance, but it is hard for him to describe his own. In *The Fifth Child*, the other character's appearances were described from Harriet's point of view. Except at the begging, we seldom read the direct description on Harriet's appearance. David's "serious blue eyes taking their time over…to Harriet he did not have someone solidly planted" (Lessing, 1988, p.4). When Ben was born, Harriet studied him carefully. "He was not pretty baby. He did not like a baby at all" (Lessing, 1988, p.48). She focused on the baby's look, hair, hands and especially, his eyes. "He opened his eyes and looked straight up into his mother's face. They were focused greeny-yellow eyes, like lumps of soapstone" (ibid: 49). Harriet "was about to go around to the back when the door abruptly opened to show a slatternly girl wearing jerseys, cardigans, and a thick scarf" (Lessing, 1988, p. 78).

The writer also observes other character's actions in Harriet's eyes. Here are some examples:

1) One day, she ran a mile or more after him (Ben), seeing only that stubby squat little figure going through traffic lights, ignoring cars that hooted and people who screamed warnings at him. (Lessing, 1988, p. 63)

2) Harriet saw the girl turn right and disappear, and without thinking she opened a door at her right hand. She saw the young man's arm raised in imprecation, or warning, while what was behind that door reached her.(Lessing, 1988, p. 81)

From Harriet's point of view, the narrator witnessed the events. In the first example, Harriet chased after Ben in the street. Her observation shows her worry at the child's action. The second example happened at the institution when Harriet came to visit Ben, the unexpected behavior of the nurse and the doctor and the horrible future of Ben irritated Harriet to take her child home in the end. All these description of appearance and actions implied that Harriet, a character of the novel is the focalizer of the story. Meanwhile, the heterodiegetic narrator holds some of his point view, though not frequently.

We only read the direct description on Harriet's appearance at the very beginning when she was at the party. "The focusing eyes then saw curly dark hair, which was unfashionable…blue eyes, soft but thoughtful…lips rather too firmly closed" (Lessing, 1988, p.4). The "focusing eyes" are not those of Harriet, they belong to the heterodiegetic narrator. Besides, the narrator often echoes the thought of Harriet, the focalizer, and therefore to address directly to the readers with his own point of view.

"Well?" said Harriet humorously as they got into his car to return to London. "and how are we going to pay for it all if I am pregnant?"

Quite so: how were they? Harriet indeed became pregnant on that rainy evening in their bedroom. (Lessing, 1988, p.11)

"Quite so: how were they?" is a reaction produced by the heterodiegetic narrator. Though he did not participate in the events, he made comments and questions to focus the readers attention on what he narrates. The narrator's reflections on what he saw lead the readers follow his narration. However, the story contains more than one focalizer, it is necessary to shift from one to another.

The shift of focus

The shift among focalizers is one of the characteristics of multifocalizer narrative. Let's look at an example from *The Fifth Child*.

A scene in the kitchen: family supper. Harriet and David commanded the head and foot of the table. Luke and Helen sat together on one side. Alice held little Paul…Jane sat near Dorothy's place, who was at the stove, ladle in her hand. Harriet looked at her mother, a large healthy woman in her fifties, with her bush of iron-grey curls, and her pink fresh face, and her large blue eyes "like lollipops"----a family joke----and thought I'm as strong as she is. I'II survive… (Lessing, 1988, p.42-43)

In this quotation, the voice comes from the heterodiegetic/non-character narrator, who narrates the event over the shoulders of the character. But the focalization has shifted from the narrator to one character, Harriet, with the expression "Harriet looked at her mother". With the point of view of the narrator, the writer presented the scene of the family dinner to readers, but introduced Dorothy's appearance from Harriet's standpoint so that Harriet's inner world was exposed.

IV. Conclusion

With the above analyses we can see that Lessing was careful in choosing her narrator in *The Fifth Child*. On the one hand, and she turns to an omniscient, heterodiegetie/non-character overt reliable narrator to serve the function of narrating, persuading, intervening and manipulating the narrative speed; On the other hand, she attempts to shift her narrator's perspective from one of the characters, Harriet, to the narrator's own, so that she can penetrate the protagonist's inner world at will and the readers can vividly understand the process how the tragedy of the fifth child is

formed.

The narrative structure was enforced by a perfect arrangement of its narrator. When the narrator is a heterodiegetie/non-character overt reliable one, he has enough freedom in space to jump from the exterior space (environment) to the interior space (the inner world of characters). Narrative itself is a power; the power is enforced by Doris Lessing's narrative rhetorical skills. Though she did not provide a cause and effect analysis on the process of Ben's tragedy, we can learn the causation from psychoanalysis. Because he did not get enough love and attention from his parents, Ben did not complete his psychological developments and got fixed at his anal stage. He was deprived of normal capability to communicate with others, including his family. The tragedy of Ben was caused by the pursuit of perfect happiness of the Lovatt couple.

Today Doris Lessing has been an honorable and respectable woman writer of British literature, who has received considerable critical attention both at home and abroad. Her typical novel in 1980s, *The Fifth Child*, is necessarily received its objective and impartial treatment it deserves. This paper explores the narrative power of the novel from the analysis of its narrator and narrative structure. It is helpful to understand the narrative power of Doris Lessing and the great English artist herself.

REFERENCES

[1] Abbot, H. Porter. (2007). The Cambridge Introduction to Narrative. Beijing: Peking University Press.
[2] Abrams, M. H. (2004). A Glossary of Literary Terms. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[3] Bloom, Harold. (1986). Modern Critical Views: Doris Lessing. New York: Chelsea House Publishers.
[4] Booth, Wayne C. (1983). The Rhetoric of Fiction. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
[5] Currie, Mark. (1998). Postmodern Narrative Theory. New York: St. Martin's Press.
[6] Draine, Betsy. (1983). Substance Under Pressure: Artistic Coherence and Evolving Forms in the Novels of Doris Lessing. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
[7] Lessing, Doris. (1988). The Fifth Child. New York: Vintage International.
[8] Li Fuxiang & Zhong Qinglan. (2000). Doris Lessing's Literary Creation in Eighties and Nineties. *Journal of Sichuan International Studies University, 1*, 58-61.
[9] Martin, Wallace. (2006). Recent Theories of Narrative. Beijing: Peking University Press.
[10] Showalter, Elaine. (2004). A Literature of Their Own. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press & Princeton University Press.
[11] Stanzel, F. K. (1984). A Theory of Narrative. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[12] Tan Junqiang. (2002). Narrative Theory and Aesthetic Culture. Beijing: China Social Sciences Press.

Kun Zhao, a College English teacher for non-English major students in Shandong University of Finance and Economics in Jinan, has been teaching college English for more than ten years. During this decade, she published five papers and wrote two works of American and English literature. Her research field is American and British literature.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1503-1507, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1503-1507

First Language Acquisition: Is It Compatible with Chaos/Complexity Theory?

Mohammad Hashamdar
Department of Translation Studies, Karaj Branch, Islamic Azad University, Karaj, Iran
Email: mohamad.hashamdar@kiau.ac.ir

***Abstract*—This paper intends to use analogy to describe first language acquisition. Larsen-Freeman (1997) asserted that "analogies are only helpful if by knowing something about one member of the pair, we can advance our understanding of the other" (p.157). It is difficult to tell if the analogy between chaos/complexity theory and first language acquisition can be beneficial for the researchers to have better understanding of first language acquisition. This study can be considered as unique in its own place. Few articles have been devoted to this type of analogy. Most researchers have preferred to deal with the issue of second language acquisition and chaos/complexity theory. The researcher hopes to have shed some light on the issue and expects to attract the attention of the other researcher to this analogy. The purpose of science is better understanding of the world and the phenomena inside it. Therefore, it is expected to better understand the most complex phenomenon which is nothing more than first language acquisition.**

***Index Terms*—adaptivity, attractor, chaos/complexity theory, dynamicity, linearity, sensitive initial state**

I. Introduction

The study of first language acquisition has a long back since it has long been the interest of scholars from different disciplines. It was late 19th when many researchers tried to study the development of child language by keeping extensive diaries of their children's language development. At first they were all based on pure observation of this phenomenon, however, they were followed by extensive audio and visual records.

At the very beginning, many of language acquisition studies were undertaken to assess the psychological reality of a linguistic theory. However, there were some problems ahead. First, linguistic theory is a theory about product not process, so it could not predict the process of language acquisition. Second, linguistic theories displaced each other rapidly giving no time to be evaluated. Nevertheless, the need of theories from other disciplines accompanying first language acquisition is a must and cannot be eliminated. Observation should always be supported by theories to be reliable and valid.

On the other hand, Chaos/complexity theory is one of those theories which have influenced the study of second language acquisition throughout the recent years. However, it was rarely considered a theory which can be applied and compared in first language acquisition. The purpose of this paper is to draw attention to the similarities among complex nonlinear systems occurring in nature and of language and language acquisition. It should be reminded that the analogy may only be metaphoric.

The origin of chaos/complexity theory dates back to the 1960s work of meteorologist Edward Lorenz. Lorenz developed a simple meteorological model based on differential equations. When he ran his model on a computer, Lorenz discovered that a very small difference (less than one part in one thousand) in the initial conditions led to large changes in the weather predicted by his model over time. This discovery, sensitivity to initial conditions, is one of the fundamental characteristics of chaos theory. Over the past few decades, chaos theory has been used widely in the natural sciences. More recently, it has also begun to be applied to the social sciences as well as applied linguistics. Kauffman (1995) stated that complex systems are composed of agents that interact with and adapt to one another and the environment, co-evolving and self-organizing without any central control.

Complexity theory has attracted some attention in educational research. Scholars have used it as a framework to investigate teaching and learning (Barab *et al*., 1999; Davis & Sumara, 1997; Davis, Sumara, & Luce-Kapler, 2000), teacher education (Zellermayer, 2005), educational administration (Griffiths, 1997; Sullivan, 1999), curriculum (Doll, 1989, 1993), second language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 1997), and ecological approach to language learning (Van Lier, 2000).

In language learning, Thornbury (2001) argued that language and language learning share some features with other complex systems. It is dynamic and non-linear; adaptive and feedback sensitive; self-organizing; and emergent. He stated “the learner’s grammar restructures itself as it responds to incoming data. There seems to be periods of little change alternating with periods of a great deal of flux and variability, and even some backsliding. In this way, process grammars are not unlike other complex systems which fluctuate between chaotic states and states of relative stability” (p. 48).

II. Chaos/Complexity Theory

Chaos/complexity theory, like many other theories, has been defined differently by different scholars in the field. According to one definition, "Chaos theory is the qualitative study of unstable aperiodic behavior in deterministic nonlinear dynamical systems." This definition provided us with several conclusions about the characteristics of chaos. First, it states that the system is dynamical. It means that it changes over time. Second, that the behavior of the system is aperiodic and unstable means that it does not repeat itself. Third, although chaotic behavior is complex, it can have simple causes. Fourth, because the system is nonlinear, it is, as we have already seen, sensitive to initial conditions. (Nonlinearity means that the output of the system is not proportional to the input and that the system does not conform to the principle of additivity, i.e., it may involve synergistic reactions in which the whole is not equal to the sum of its parts). Fifth, because the system is deterministic, chaotic behavior is not random even though its aperiodicity and unpredictability may make it appear to be so. On the other hand, because of the instability, aperiodicity, and sensitivity to initial conditions, the behavior of chaotic systems is not predictable even though it is deterministic. A final feature of chaos, although not included in the above definition, is that of iteration or feedback, in which the output of the system is used as the input in the next calculation.

The above-mentioned characteristics all belonged to the chaotic system. However, as the title of the theory states, it is both chaotic and complex. A complex system is one in which numerous independent elements continuously interact and spontaneously organize and reorganize themselves into more and more elaborate structures over time. Complexity is characterized by: (a) a large number of similar but independent elements or agents; (b) persistent movement and responses by these elements to other agents; (c) adaptiveness so that the system adjusts to new situations to ensure survival; (d) self-organization, in which order in the system forms spontaneously; (e) local rules that apply to each agent; and (f) progression in complexity so that over time the system becomes larger and more sophisticated. As with chaos, the behavior of self-organizing complex systems cannot be predicted, and they do not observe the principle of additivity, i.e., their components cannot be divided up and studied in isolation. Complex systems can naturally evolve to a state of self-organized criticality, in which behavior lies at the border between order and disorder. As Gleick(1987) claimed “the study of chaos is a science of process rather than state, of becoming rather than being” (p.5).

Larsen-Freeman (1997) characterized a number of features for a chaos complex system. She stated that the system is dynamic, complex, nonlinear, chaotic, unpredictable, sensitive to initial condition, open, self-organizing, feedback sensitive, and adaptive.

Now it is time to search for the compatibility of chaos/complexity theory and the process of first language acquisition. In order to do this, each characteristic of chaos/complexity theory is discussed separately under one heading and then decision is made if it exists in the first language acquisition.

III. Chaos/Complexity Theory and First Language Acquisition

The study of chaotic and complex nonlinear systems and the study of first language acquisition have much in common. In order to manifest this analogy, first and for most, the nature of language can be conceptualized as systematic, however, it is debatable that a view of language as a dynamic system can be easily recognized. Larsen-Freeman (1997) elaborated on this issue and stated “the first common meaning of dynamic as applied to language is that of process—language can be described as an aggregation of static units or products, but their use in actual speech involves an active process, usually referred to as *parole* (Saussure) or performance (Chomsky)” (p. 147). Further, she mentioned the second common way that language is recognized dynamic is when dynamic is equated with growth and change.

Now let’s study the features of chaos/complexity theory in first language acquisition.

A. Dynamicity

The study of dynamic systems is not a new in science. What makes these innovative is that their focus is complex systems. These systems are termed complex for two reasons.

A system is called dynamic when it changes over time. It stands against a stable system in which there is no change over time. Therefore, the study of dynamicity refers to the study of process rather than state, or of becoming rather than being.

Dynamicity of language can best be observed when the first language acquisition is under study. First language acquisition is the process of acquiring the first language over time with ultimate changes. It is believed that this rapid change can mainly be observed in the process of vocabulary learning in infants.

Diller (1995) stated that "the act of using the language meaningfully has a way of changing the grammar system in the user" (p.116). It emphasizes that every time language is used, it changes. As one writes or utters a sentence, she/he changes the language. This type of change is called *emergentism.* This view suggests that language grows and organizes itself from the bottom up in an organic way. While rules can be used to describe such systems, the systems themselves are not the product of rules. Mitchener and Nowak (2004) asserted “languages are not static. Phonological systems tend to change systematically but unpredictably” (p.701).

Dynamicity of first language can best be observed throughout life if one wishes to learn rhetoric. Even if one is highly educated but prefers to ameliorate his ability in speech for the academic purposes, he practices his way of speech and it is hoped to have better performance. This also indicated the property of dynamicity in first language.

Langacker (2001) believed that conceptualization in the mind is inherently *dynamic*. He stated that it locates in mental processing, so every conception requires some span of processing time, however brief, for its occurrence. He also argued that dynamicity is essential to linguistic semantics. How a conceptualization develops and unfolds through processing time is often (if not always) a pivotal factor in the meanings of expressions.

B. Nonlinearity

In chaos/complexity theory, complex systems are nonlinear. A nonlinear system is one in which the effect is disproportionate to the cause. However, in a linear system a cause of a particular strength results in an effect of equal strength. Something which is very important is that nonlinear systems can also sometimes exhibit linearity; however, at other times, they may react in a way that is all out of proportion to the cause. The other vital issue is that complex nonlinear systems behave in a regular, orderly way until a critical point is passed, and then they go chaotic.

Larsen-Freeman (1997) stated "learning linguistic items is not a linear process_ learners do not master one item and then move on to another. In fact the learning curve for a single item is not linear either" (p.151).

First language acquisition is primarily a linear process, but this linearity does not continue. As the infant utters the first word, this linearity vanishes into thin air. After all, learners do not master one item and then move on to another. The best example is when beginners acquire English language and produce the past tense of irregular and regular verbs. It is surmised that these are mastered incrementally at a lexical level. After further exposure to the target language, however, chaos happens. Regular past form *–ed* is over-generalized and this indicates the nonlinearity of first language acquisition.

C. Unpredictability

It is believed that the beginning of the randomness of complex nonlinear systems is unpredictable. There will always be uncertainty and surprise as long as human beings are involved. If you look at this unpredictability from a complex systems viewpoint, it is a positive contributor to the new experiences that can result in learning.

Kirshbaum (2002) explained that the unpredictability that is thus inherent in the natural evolution of complex systems then can yield results that are totally unpredictable based on knowledge of the original conditions. Such unpredictable results are called emergent properties. Emergent properties thus show how complex systems are inherently creative ones.

First language acquisition is unpredictable. The reasons can be due to different issues. First, the outcome of language acquisition is not measurable and predictable. Some may come up with full mastery of their mother tongue. Some might be able to have sweet language with nice, polite, attractive words, some may have bitter language with a limited number of words. Although the role of education cannot be ignored in the quality of one's mother tongue, they are many who have the same level of education but they are better lecturers. Second, the role of exposure to language by caregivers is still unknown. Researcher worked hard to find out caregivers' role in the speech of infants. They are now sure of the importance of exposure; however, they cannot surely prove that the kind of exposure would have benefit for the child's performance in future. Third, the age of language mastery is unpredictable. In linguistics book, the development of language acquisition has been isolated by the age of the infant. For example, it is claimed that when the child is around 12 to 14 months old, they could articulated about 50 words of their mother tongue. However, it has been observed that in many cases, Iranian children at these ages are not capable of producing that number of words.

D. Sensitivity to Initial State

The term *initial conditions* refers to the components of the system and how they relate to each other and the environment. The effects of their relationship will be magnified as interactions take place over time, and large divergences may appear from what were initially very small differences. In terms of first language acquisition, it is useful to think about the fact that no two days ever seem to be in the same way. In this process, the infant acquires the language day after day and the previous stage does not come back.

E. Openness

A complex chaotic system is open. It is open to new matter and energy infusion, entropy is not inevitable. As open systems evolve, they increase in order and complexity by observing energy from the environment.

In first language acquisition, the input contains a variety of forms, structures, vocabulary, and lexical items. This openness to input is not limited to first language; it continues to contain second, third, and more languages. The advantage of this property is that it helps to creativity, innovation, and diversity in language use.

Larsen-Freeman (1999) stated "Language is an open system, one that is evolving and changing. If this is true of language, it must also be true of its learning- it will never be complete if the target is always moving" (p.43). This can best be seen in mother tongues of people in the world. No one can claim she/he knows their mother tongue perfectly well, even those have technically studied their it.

The input data triggers the creation or formation of novel complexities. These complexities might be beyond the complexities of the input. The infusion of input to previous input can produce a type of entropy. This entropy is because of regularity and irregularity of some components of language. The best example again would be the past form of English verbs. First *–ed* form (regular) and then irregular form which cause entropy in the mind of infants acquiring the first language.

F. Adaptivity

A chaotic complex system after passing the turmoil would tend to a self organizing state. The system adjusts to new situations to ensure survival. Kauffman (1991) stated that complex systems in biology have the capacity to naturally select and self-organize and are adaptive. These systems do not simply respond passively to events; they actively try to turn whatever happens to their advantage. They are capable of learning, although learning process- testing a model against reality and then modifying it to match- occurs at different time intervals (Berreby, 1994).

In the process of first language acquisition this adaptive system can be detected and found in different strata. As the infant starts conversing, they often try to change their production to match that of their caregivers. This ability to adjust increases with experience each meaningful instance adding to their repertoire of adjusting capabilities for future partners.

Piaget considers adaptation a basic process in development and defines two aspects of adaptation: assimilation and accommodation. For the child to survive in the world, he must learn to adapt. This involves an interface between assimilation and accommodation. According to Piaget, it is only through adaptation that people interact with their environment.

Describing adaptation, Piaget contends that in every interaction, schemas are not applied without a recognition 0f the varying properties of objects and a subsequent adaptation.

A schema modifies itself according to the particular characteristics of the object; the schema of reaching for and grasping something must accommodate to the distance of the object and to its size and weight. As a result, no two applications of a schema, however simple, are exactly alike. Nevertheless, there is a basic similarity which gives the schema its organization, permitting its repetition and consequent growth.

G. Complexity

In *complexity theory* a system is defined as a set of interwoven components that interact in particular ways to generate some overall form at a particular point in time. As it is mentioned a system has elements that interact to shape a connected whole. However, it can be called a complex one when it is a system with different types of elements, usually in large numbers with changes all the time.

Now first we have to prove that language is complex, and then indicate the process of first language acquisition is a complex matter. Larsen-Freeman (1997) believed that language is complex. She stated "Language satisfies both criteria of complexity: first, it is composed of many different subsystems- phonology, morphology, lexicon, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Second, the subsystems are interdependent. A change in any one of them can result in a change in the others" (p.149). By studying different elements involved in the process of language acquisition, no one can definitely say which part is more complex than the other one. Some believe that syntax is the most complex element of language. The studies based on processing that investigates child language acquisition have shown that certain structures are intrinsically more problematic for children because of the complexity in their syntactic structure. Dom ńguez and Guijarro-Fuentes (2010) provided an example of the so called 'filler-gap' structures such as wh-questions. Since the wh-word (the filler) has to be held in working memory by the child until it can be properly linked to a long-distance gap, it is not unexpected that the acquisition of wh-questions are indeed a source of problems for children.

The first language acquisition is also known to be complex. There are many factors involved in the process of first language acquisition which are interdependent. Some of them are the type and amount of input, the amount and type of interaction, the amount and type of feedback received, and other factors which make first language acquisition a complex web. Consequently, these complex phenomenon causes diversity in the first language acquisition.

Birjandi and Hashamdar (2009) elaborated on the diversity of first language acquisition and studied it under the category of *individual differences* in first language acquisition. They classified these differences under four different dimensions (linguistic, social, cognitive, and cultural dimensions), each of which with some subcategories. The main purpose of their study was to indicate that first language acquisition is a complex phenomenon. That's why diversity and differences are seen in the child's language.

Slobin (1985) distinguished two sources of complexity for learning: conceptual and formal complexity. Conceptual complexity belongs to the complexity of the ideas being expressed in language. Formal complexity refers to the forms different concepts get. For example, the concept of plural may take different forms in different languages. In English, it takes -s ending for plural and in other languages the other forms. Although no one language appears to be easier to learn and master, there are some forms which are easier to learn than in other languages. Children growing up in that language find that aspect of language easier and therefore learn it much sooner than children of other languages the same form.

IV. Conclusion

In this paper, analogy is used to describe first language acquisition. Larsen-Freeman (1997) asserted that "analogies are only helpful if by knowing something about one member of a pair, we can advance our understanding of the other" (p.157). It is difficult or let's say too early to tell if the analogy between chaos/complexity theory and first language acquisition can be beneficial for the researchers to have better understanding of first language acquisition. This study can be considered as unique in its own place. A few articles have been devoted to this type of analogy. Most researchers have preferred to deal with the issue of second language acquisition and chaos/complexity theory. The researcher hopes to have shed some light on the issue and expects to attract the attention of the other researcher to this analogy. The purpose of science is better understanding of the world and the phenomena inside it. Therefore, it is expected to better understand the most complex phenomenon which is nothing more than first language acquisition.

REFERENCES

[1] Barab, S. A. et al. (1999). Principles of self-organization: learning as participation in autocatakinetic systems. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences,8,* 349-390.
[2] Berreby, D. (1994). Murray gell-mann. *The new York Times Magazine*, 24-27.
[3] Birjandi, P., & Hashamdar, M. (2009). Individual differences in first language acquisition. *ELT Weekly, 33,* 1-4.
[4] Davis, B. & Sumara, D. J. (1997). Cognition, complexity, and teacher education. *Harvard Educational Review, 67*, 105-125.
[5] Davis, B. et al. (2000). Engaging minds: learning and teaching in a complex world. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[6] Doll, W. E. (1989). Complexity in the classroom. *Educational leadership, 47*, 65-70.
[7] Doll, W. E. (1993). Curriculum possibilities in a "post"-future. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 8,* 277-292.
[8] Doolittle, P.E. (2000) Complex constructivism: A theoretical model of complexity and cognition. Retrieved June 22, 2010, from http://www.chre.vt.edu/fs/doolittle/research/complex1.html.
[9] Griffiths, D. (1997). The case for theoretical pluralism. *Educational Management and Administration, 25,* 371-380.
[10] Guijarro-Fuentes, P., & Dom ńguez, L. (2010). New directions in language acquisition: romance languages in the generative perspective. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
[11] Kauffman, S. (1995). At home in the universe: the search for the laws of selforganization and complexity. New York: Oxford University Press.
[12] Langacker, R. W. (2001). Dynamicity in grammar. *Axiomathes, 12*, 7-33.
[13] Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 18,* 141-165.
[14] Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). Second language acquisition and applied linguistics. In W. Grabe (ed.), *Applied Linguistics as an Emerging Discipline, Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 20,* 165-181.
[15] Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M.H. (1991). An introduction to second language acquisition research. New York: Longman.
[16] Larsen-Freeman, D. & Cameron, L. (2008). Complex systems and applied linguistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[17] Mallows, D. (2002). Non-linearity and the observed lesson. *ELT Journal, 56* (1), 3-10.
[18] Nelson, C. (2011). The complexity of language learning. *International Journal of Instruction,4* (2), 93-112.
[19] Sullivan, T. J. (1999). Leading people in a chaotic world. *Journal of Educational Administration, 37,* 408-423.
[20] Thornbury, S. (2001). Uncovering grammar. London: Macmillan Heinemann.
[21] Van Lier, L. (2000). From input to affordance: Social-interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning: recent advances*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[22] Van Lier, L. (2004). The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective. New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
[23] Waldrop, M, M. (1992). Complexity: The emerging science at the edge of order and chaos. Simon and Schuster. New York.
[24] Zellermayer, M. & Margolin, I. (2005). Teacher educators' professional learning described through the lens of complexity theory. *Teachers College Record, 107,* 1275-1304.

Mohammad Hashamdar received his MA in TEFL in 2001 and became a faculty member of Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch. He is currently doing his PhD in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch. He has been teaching English at different levels for 19 years and has published two books and some papers in international journals. His research interests are critical thinking, first language acquisition, and second language acquisition.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1508-1513, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1508-1513

The Effects of Affective Factors in SLA and Pedagogical Implications

Hui Ni
Department of Foreign Languages, Heze University, Heze 274000, Shandong, China
Email: melody1014@163.com

***Abstract*—Affective factors are the most important factors in SLA and English teaching. These factors include emotion, feeling, mood, manner, attitude and so on. All these factors, especially, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety, decide the input and output of the second language. Under the guidance of the Affective Filter Hypothesis proposed by Krashen, the present paper makes a survey on advanced English majors. By collecting and analyzing research data, some useful results and implications have been found and can be used in future teaching. The affective factors will surely help the teachers to improve their teaching quality and students to cultivate an all-round development.**

***Index Terms*—affective factors, motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, implication**

I. Introduction

Recent work in applied linguistics has extended the study of psychology beyond the teaching of English itself. The concept of "psychology" itself is certainly not a new one. What is new, however, is the interest in the analysis of the effect of affective factors in English study and its implications in English teaching. With the development of applied linguistics and psychological analysis, linguists are no longer satisfied with surface-level linguistic description, but turn to seek deeper psychological factors, that is, affective factors in English learning.

"Learners' affective factors are obviously of crucial importance in accounting for individual differences in learning outcomes. Whereas learners' beliefs about language learning are likely to be fairly stable, their affective states tend to be volatile, affecting not only overall progress but responses to particular learning activities on a day-by day and even moment-by-moment basis." (Ellis, 1994, p. 483)

The object of this study is to improve the methods of English teaching and figure out a short way for the students to learn English. The affective factors are important parts influencing English learning. And this study is meant to analyze the psychological factors in psycholinguistic field and apply them to English teaching.

II. Research on Affective Factors

A. Affective Filter Hypothesis

Early in 1870's, Dulay and Burt had proposed the Affective Filter Hypothesis and explained its influence on the foreign language learning process. Later, Krashen(1982, P. 31) developed and made the hypothesis perfect. He put the theory into five central hypotheses in second language acquisition (hereafter SLA), namely, the Acquisition-learning distinction; the Natural order hypothesis; the Monitor hypothesis; the Input hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Krashen argued that affective filter is a kind of psychological obstacle that prevents language learners from absorbing available comprehensible input completely. He looked affective factors functioning as a filter that reduces the amount of language input the learner is able to understand. It has a close relationship with the language learner's input and intake. It can be said that affective factors determine the proportion of language learners' input and intake. The affective factors include certain emotions, such as motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, and so on in the process of acquiring a second language. These negative emotions prevent efficient processing of the language input, and on the contrary, the positive emotions promote the efficiency of the process. When language learners with high motivation, self-confidence and a low level of anxiety, they have low filters and so receive and take in plenty of input. On the other hand, learners with low motivation, little self-confidence and a high level of anxiety have high filters and therefore obtain little input. The Affective Filter Hypothesis shows that the emotional factors strongly affect the learners' input and how much input is converted into intake. The Affective Filter Hypothesis has significant implications for foreign language teaching. A low filter should be created and advocated for the effective language teaching. It can be guessed that learners' affective filters will be influenced by teachers' feedback. Attempts should be made to lower the affective filter and let learners feel less stressed and more confident in a comfortable learning atmosphere.

It has a long history about interest in affective factors in education abroad. Since 1970s, the interest in the field of foreign language learning and teaching has been raised. Inferences of affective factors have become the major concern in this research field. Many researchers have stressed the importance of understanding affective factors in second language learning. For example, Arnold (2000, P. 2) gives out two reasons to explain the importance. Firstly, "attention

to affective aspects can lead to more effective language learning". Secondly, attention to affective aspects can contribute to the whole-person development, which is "beyond language teaching and even beyond what has traditionally been considered the academic realm". It can be deduced that affective factors do play a significant role in both foreign language learning and teaching. Three factors: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety have been chosen to state their important functions.

B. Motivation

Motivation is considered to be one of the most important factors, which affect the learner's language input and intake. H. Brown(2001, P. 34) defined it as, " Motivation is the extent to which you make choices about goals to prusue and the effort you will devote to that pursuit." Gardner (1985) explained it as a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitude towards learning the language. Analyzing what he calls "learner factors", Jakobovits (1970) divided into four sets of factors: aptitude, intelligence, perseverance or motivation, and other factors. These factors account for the various degrees of success or failure for a foreign language learner. Leon Jakobovits set up the following Table. 1 of the percentage of these four categories:

Aptitude	33%
Intelligence	20%
Perseverance or motivation	33%
Other factors	14%

From the table above, it is obvious that the third category (perseverance or motivation) comes out with the same high percentage as aptitude and it is higher than intelligence factor.

The concept of motivation has been defined in various ways. Ramage (1990, p. 189)) pointed out that "identifying students' motivations for foreign language learning was a prerequisite to developing interventions that promote interest and continuation in foreign language study". What's more, Williams and Burden (1997) proposed, Motivation involved sustaining interest and investing time and energy into putting in the necessary effort to achieve certain goals. To sum up, motivation is the process by which goal-directed behavior is stimulated in language learning. It drives and directs behavior.

Research shows that motivation directly and profoundly influences how often students use foreign language learning (FLL) strategies; how much input they receive in the language being learned; how high their general proficiency level becomes; and how long they persevere and maintain FLL skills after language study is over (Oxford, 1992).

C. Self-confidence

Self-confidence is considered to be another significant factor, which profoundly influences the learners' language performance. The students who lack of confidence are usually found to be extremely fearful and timid, reluctant to express their opinions and even unable to utter a complete meaningful sentence in class.

H., Brown (2001, p. 23) phrased this factor as "I can do it" or self-esteem principle, i.e., a learner believes in his or her own ability to accomplish the task. "The eventual success that learners attain in a task is at least partially a factor of their belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing the task."

Of all the possible characteristics that can affect language learning, self-confidence is very important for the following reasons. The first reason is that self-confidence will encourage a person to try new learning. One would be willing to take some risks in order to be successful. Another reason is that a confident person rarely gives up. With these abilities, a confident student can succeed in language learning.

Finally, the studies of self-confidence have meaningful implications for language teachers. What should be solved is how to help students to establish and strengthen their self-confidence when they learn the second language. Successful language learning only takes place in an environment where learners' values and positive attitudes are promoted, where learners approach learning with confidence and joy, where learners can use the target language at ease. Therefore, teachers should spare no efforts to create conditions that can be conducive to students' self-confidence.

D. Anxiety

Anxiety is another particular affective factor. It is one of the most prominent and pervasive emotions. According to Arnold (2000, P. 59), language anxiety "ranks high among factors influencing language learning, regardless of whether the setting is informal (learning language 'on the streets') or formal (in the classroom)". Students with anxiety attending the class will feel nervous and afraid to cooperate with teachers and then they cannot concentrate on the learning points and waste their energy or they just want to flee the learning task. According to Krashen(1981, P. 23), "The students who feels at ease in the classroom and likes the teacher may seek out more intake by volunteering ... and may not be more accepting of the teacher as a source of input."

Ellis (1994) divided axiety into three kinds, i.e., trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. The study of situational anxiety has received considerable attention in SLA research. It consists of the anxiety which is aroused by a specific type of situation or eventssuch as public speaking, examinations, or class participation. Reasearch indicates that learners frequently experience 'language anxiety', a type of situation-specific anxiety associated with attempts to learn an L2 and communicate in it. Second lanuage learners' anxiety is due to their competitive natures. They tend to

become anxious when they compare themselves with other learners in the class and found themselves less proficient. The anxiety will decrease whe they perceive themselves becoming more proficient, and therefore better able to compete. Researches also found that teachers' questions and feedbacks to students' answers also threatening.

III. Experimental Research

Any theory should base and depend on certain investigation. Only the facts can prove the theory. This chapter provides the methodology of the study; it is divided into research question, subjects, instruments, questionnaire, data collection and analysis. This chapter is a full presentation of the questionnaire investigation.

A. Research Questions

The study aims to find out several useful tips for English majors in their language learning. Based on it, three questions have been brought up for the research as follows:

How do the English majors evaluate their English on the whole?

What're the effects of the affective factors (motivation, self-confidence and anxiety) on their language learning?

What're the attitudes of students toward their teachers' feedback?

B. Subjects and Instrument

Fifty English majors who enrolled Foreign Language Department, Heze University in 2010 are the subjects in this investigation. All of them are the top ten sophormores chosen from the five paralleled classes respectively according to last final examination held at the end of 2011. Most of them have at least ten years English learning experiences. So far they have had more opportunities to interact with their college teachers and naturally have formed relatively stable perceptions about different affective factors when answering the questionnaire. They all cooperated with the researcher to deal with the questionnaires well and seriously, which were to test their attitudes and affective factors toward their English classes.

The questionnaire is adapted partly from that of Zhou Xing and Zhou Yun's (2002), some of the questions have been deleted and some are added. All in all, it is composed of ten items. The first two questions aim to locate the subjects' English level, which can be a basic reference to the following questions. The next five questions were designed to learn about the learners' performances in classroom. They are devised to investigate the factors that prevent students from full class participation and find out the reason why they gain good or bad marks in English tests. All the former eight questions are multiple-choice questions. The ninth and tenth questions are "ask and answer" questions, which are to collect the data of students' true feelings and attitudes when facing difficulties in class. Questions about attitude and preference towards teacher's feedback and guidance are also involved. It is expected that the students can express their true feelings naturally and their answers can reflect their affective factors toward English learning in class. The questionnaire is written in Chinese in case the students have difficulty in understanding each question or expressing their opinions in English. To ensure that they would answer the question items honestly, the subjects responded the questionnaires anonymously.

C. Data Collection and Result Analysis

All the 50 questionnaire copies are collected, among which 45 are effective. In order to ensure the reliability of the survey, 30 of the subjects were asked to do the same test two weeks later. Their answers were basicly concord to their former ones.

The 45 left questionnaires were used as data for analysis. The answers to the question items were counted and categorized.

According to the questionnaire survey, the results can be divided into three parts, i.e., the results of self-evaluation of their English level; the analysis of affective factors toward English learning and the analysis of students' preferences for teacher's feedback and guidance.

1. The results of self-evaluation about English

The first item in this part is just about students' self-evaluation of their English level. There are four choices: very good; good; just so so and bad. From the left 45 copies, we can see the answers much clearer in the following Fig. 1.

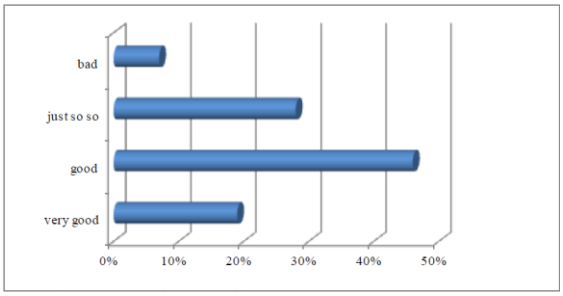


Figure. 1 Students' Self-evaluation about Their English

The distribution of the answers on students' self-evaluation is presented in above chart. As is shown in the chart, the number of students who think their English is "good" has the highest frequency of 46%. Then the number of whose English are "just so so" ranks second with a percentage of 28%. The "very good" evaluation of their English follows next, amounting 19%. The least percentage of students who think their English is "bad" only accounts for 7%. It might suggest that most of the subjects tend to think their English is good. Only few ones think they are bad at it. What's more, it needs to be noted that almost all of the students think they are good at their English. All in all, it sets some basic background information for the next part's analysis. The second item is about "the major factor leading to their current English proficiency". The distribution of answers to the four choices is fairly average. It reveals that the Option A "interest" acounts for 26.7%, which ranks the highest percentage. Option B "self-confidence" amounts 23.5%, which is the lowest percentage. Left choices for C "classroom performance" and D "teacher's role" account for 25.5% and 25.3% respectively. From the answers to item 2, we can deduce that four factors (interest, self-confidence, classroom performance and teacher's role) all play an important part in students' language learning.

2. The results of affective factors in English learning

To make English learning more effective, we should find out the effects of the three major affective factors in the process of English learning. Therefore, it is necessary to examine students' attitudes toward English and get a clearer picture about it. In the questionnaire, subjects were asked several questions about their performances and attitudes in class from classroom performance, interest, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. The study examines the frequency of the four options chosen by the subjects ranging from totally approval to totally disapproval (far from enough). The number of each options and the corresponding ratios are illustrated as follows (Table. 2),

TABLE. 2
FREQUENCY OF AFFECTIVE FACTORS

Item	Totally…	Rather…	Not too much…	Far from enough
No.3	20/44.4%	18/40.0%	5/11.1%	2/4.4%
No.4	16/35.6%	22/48.9%	4/8.9%	3/6.7%
No.5	12/26.7%	23/51.1%	7/15.6%	3/6.7%
No.6	18/40.0%	22/48.9%	4/8.9%	1/2.2%
No.7	2/4.4%	3/6.7%	21/46.7%	19/42.2%

As can be seen from the table, answers of item No. 3 and 4 which test the "classroom performance" and "interest" when learning English suggest that the two factors have important influence on language learning. In item No.5, the option "highly-motivated" which amounts to a percentage of 51.1% is the highest rank. It implies that most of the students have got a good motivation of learning English. And it is well accord with their English level from both fact and theory in item No.1. In item No.6, 48.9% of them have "self-confidence", which suggests that about one in two students have confidence in themselves. The result is also consistent with the previous item, in which 19% of the students think their English is "very good". There is a noticeably low percentage of "anxiety" factor in item No.7 in learning English which ranks 11.1% (4.4%+6.7%). It explains that few of them attend classes with anxiety. Most of them have got a good mood in the classes.

According to the results gathered from the questionnaire, most of the students think that the affective factors are of importance to their language learning. The significance of affective factors mentioned by them can be summarized into three major points below:

To start with, motivation directly and profoundly influences how much knowledge they gained from language learning. With high motivation, students have high enthusiasm and spirit in English learning; they can concentrate themselves on study. On the other hand, students who cannot concentrate themselves on study often have low motivation and they do not know the purposes of learning language.

In addition, self-confidence is another important factor, which influences the learners' language performances. Students with much confidence in language learning believe that they have the ability to learn the language well and consequently they will perform very actively in classes and their grades in English are high, and vice versa. All in all, self-confidence means a lot in language learning.

Finally, Students with a low level of anxiety tend to have a comfortable atmosphere in classes, thus they attend class attentively. While students attending classes with a high level of anxiety often worry about their performances in classes.

On the whole, the students hold a positive attitude toward affective factors in terms of its significant part in language learning. Yet some students still have negative attitude toward English learning. If not properly corrected, it will arouse unfavorable affective reactions of the students, which may adversely affect their involvement in the learning activities and thus their language learning. This alerts our teachers on how and when to give proper guidance to students. Teachers should look into the role of affective factors.

3. The analysis of learners' preferences for teacher's feedbacks

The findings of this part have demonstrated how teacher's feedbacks are actually used, and how the students would like it to be. There seems to be a slight mismatch between the teacher's actual practice and the students' perception of the use of feedback. In order to promote students' affective development, some teacher feedback techniques catering for students' need are proposed.

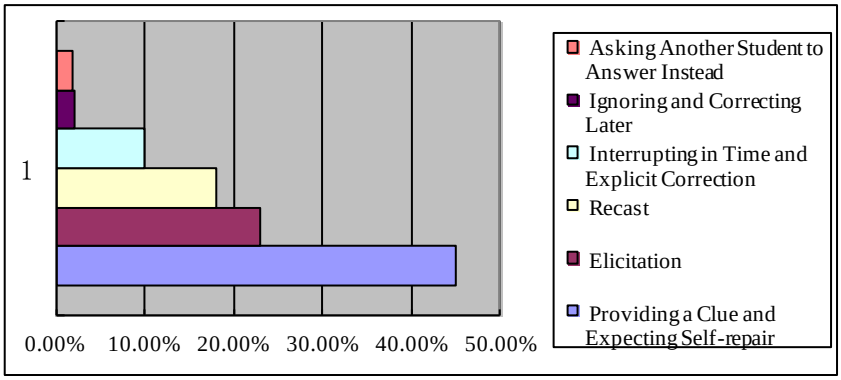


Figure 2. Learners' Preferences for Teacher Feedback

The results of item No. 8 in the questionnaire have shown learners' preferences for certain ways of teacher's feedback. According to statistics above in Fig. 2, the method of "providing a clue and expecting self-repair" is most favored by the students in the sample, with the highest ratio of 44.97%. Besides, the students prefer "elicitation" (23.03%) to other ways of corrective feedback. "Recast" is also desired by 18.07% of the students. As for "interrupting in time and explicit correction", only 9.94% of the students report that they accept it. It is shown that "ignoring and correcting later" and "asking another student to answer instead" are two least preferred ways of error treatment.

There is no better illustration of the students' preferred way of teacher feedback than the findings obtained from the item No. 9 and 10. When asked whether the teacher's feedbacks have any influence on their emotions, the subjects have expressed their sincere hopes. All of them wish that the teachers should point out their weakness and strengths with the method of feedback that they prefer.

As indicated above, the views of the students on their preferences for teacher's feedbacks give us meaningful insight into what the students really need, which can facilitate our language teaching. It implies that teachers need to pay extra attention to affective factors when giving feedback to students. It also suggests that the varying levels of language proficiency of the students cannot be neglected when choosing the method of teacher feedback to promote students' affective development.

IV. Conclusion

Based on the results and discussion presented above, the findings of this study can be summarized as follows:

With regard to the affective factors in SLA in the classroom under investigation, the present study demonstrates that the affective factors decide the proportion of language learners' input and intake. The excellent students usually have high motivation, much self-confidence and a low level of anxiety, and they receive and take in plenty of language input. It is a pity that there are still some students who learn language with low motivation, little self-confidence and a high level of anxiety, to which teachers should give correct guidance on their affective factors.

The results regarding learners' attitudes toward teacher feedback and guidance show that the majority of learners view teacher feedback and guidance with a positive attitude. However, they are really concerned about the specific way of corrective feedback adopted by teachers. The data have illustrated that teacher feedback and guidance contribute greatly to students' emotional states, especially their motivation, self-confidence and anxiety.

The findings in the present study suggest a number of implications for second language teaching and teachers' training.

To begin with, teachers should take learners' affective factors into full consideration. The results obtained from the study do provide convincing evidence that affective components have a considerable impact on the learners. The way in which learners interpret affective factor information is the key to develop positive and valuable concepts of self-efficacy about learning, which in turns leads to further effective learning. Appropriate teacher guidance and advice will encourage stronger willingness to participate and greater effort to learn on the part of learners, and thereby greater success in language performance. Thus, it is advisable for teachers to adopt some practical and effective techniques to promote learners' affective development and hence get them actively involved in class activities.

It is suggested that more practical researches on affective factors should be carried out in SLA. Further research is advised to investigate whether features of affective factors vary with individuals of the same proficiency level of students. The different features hide deserve further exploration. Moreover, personal differences of students should be given special attention in the further study. The differences in their choosing different teacher guidance would be an interesting research topic.

References

[1] Arnold, J. (2000). Affect in Language Learning. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[2] Brown, H. (2001). Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. Beijing: Foreign Language

Teaching and Research Press.
[3] Ellis, R. (1994). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[4] Gardner, R. (1985). Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitude and Motivation. London: Edward Arnold Ltd.
[5] Krashen, S. (1981). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
[6] Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
[7] Jakobovits, L. (1970). Foreign Language Learning: a Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issue. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
[8] Oxford, R. (1992). Who are our students? A synthesis of foreign and second language research on individual differences with implications for instructional practice. *TESL Canada Journal* 9, 30-49.
[9] Ramage, K. (1990). Motivational factors and persistence in foreign language study. *Language Learning* 40, 189-219.
[10] Williams, M. & Robert B. (1997). Psychology for Language Teachers. Town of Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[11] Zhou, Xing & Zhou, Yun. (2002). Investigations and analyses on teacher talk in college English classroom. *Foreign Language Education and Research* 1, 59-68.

Hui Ni was born in Heze, Shandong, China in 1982. She received her M.A. degree in (English) pedagogy from Bohai University, China in 2009.

She is currently an assistant in the School of foreign languages, Heze University, Heze, China. Her research interests include contrastive teaching and literary criticism. She has published many research papers in domestic magazines. E.g. A Contrastive Study on Images of Woman between Chinese and Western Traditional Cultures (Qufu, Shandong: Modern Chinese, 2011).

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1514-1519, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1514-1519

The Role of Form-focused Feedback on Developing Students' Writing Skill

Mohammad Zohrabi
University of Tabriz, Iran
Email: mohammadzohrabi@gmail.com

Parvin Rezaie
Email: p.rezaie@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Current interest in focus on form feedback is motivated in part by the findings of immersion and naturalistic acquisition studies that suggest when classrooms in second language learning is entirely meaning-focused, some linguistic features do not ultimately develop to target-like levels. It seems that attention to form has positive effect in negotiation of meaning. Also attempt to produce the target language – output − encourages learners to notice their linguistic problems precisely. This study tries to find out the role of form-focused feedback on developing writing skill. The result of comparing three writing groups shows that writing skill of those students who received form focused feedback improved considerably.**

***Index Terms*—focus-on form, focus-on forms, writing skill**

I. Introduction

Both teachers and students feel that teacher-written feedback is an important part of the writing process. This is especially true for second language (L2) writing since the goal of (L2) writing is often to teach both the conventions of writing in a particular culture as well as (L2) grammatical forms. Some teachers correct the grammar of their students' written work in the belief that this will help them improve the accuracy of subsequent writing. Other teachers, however, may provide grammatical, lexical, and mechanical correction principally for a different purpose. These teachers believe that giving certain kinds of corrective feedback helps their students to improve the communicative effectiveness of a particular piece of writing. This issue of feedback on learner's language errors has been examined in terms of negative evidence by linguists, as corrective feedback by second language teachers, as repair by discourse analysts, negative feedback by psychologists, and focus on form in second language acquisition (Lightbown & Spada, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Current interest in focus on form feedback is motivated in part by the findings of immersion and naturalistic acquisition studies that suggest when a classroom in second language learning is entirely experiential and meaning-focused, some linguistic features do not ultimately develop to target-like levels. They believe that attention to form has positive effect in negotiation of meaning (Swain, 1993). There are different ideas on feedback in second language acquisition.

Long (1998, as cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998) distinguished between focus on forms and focus on form. Focus on forms, which is a synthetic approach to language, studies language elements, but focus on form overtly draws students attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication.

Lightbown and Spada (1994) found that learners who received the most focus on form were most accurate in their use of the possessive determiners (his and her).

Rivers (1980) believes that individual efforts at writing should be read by the teacher as soon as possible after completion, then corrected and sometimes rewritten by students without delay. A great deal of uncorrected writing is merely a waste of time and it may cause fossilization of errors in students' mind.

The term form-focused instruction (FFI) is defined by Ellis (2001, p. 2) as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form". It serves as a generic term for analytic teaching, focus on form, focus on forms, corrective feedback/error correction, and negotiation of form. The term form-focused instruction is used to describe both approaches to teaching forms based on artificial syllabuses, as well as more communicative approaches, where attention to form arises out of activities that are primarily meaning-focused (cf. Long & Robinson, 1998). FFI comprises two subcategories, namely: focus-on-forms and focus-on-form instruction.

II. Learning and Teaching Grammar

Although grammatical knowledge is necessary, it should not "be learned for its own sake" (Stranks, 2003, p. 338). Sometimes, grammar exercises fail students because they present highly contrived sentences and make the students to

internalize them in out of context forms. Some textbooks usually contain some isolated sentence-level exercises and students are expected to learn the grammar points without linking them to their functions in meaningful situations. However, if instructors contextualize grammar points, the students can also learn the social use of the language and develop their sociolinguistic and discoursal competence besides their linguistic competence. The university students have already studied grammar at school, so that they only need to put their knowledge into use.

As Ellis (2006, p. 86) argues, "there is now convincing indirect and direct evidence to support the teaching of grammar." In fact, explicit presentation of grammar can facilitate and speed up learning, and provide input for noticing patterns and communicative use as well as stylistic variation of language. To this end, Brown (2000, p. 280) emphasizes that "form-focused instruction" can boost students' proficiency and help to strengthen their communicative competence. However, Long (2001, p. 183) stresses "focus on form rather than focus on forms." That is, focus on form is non-interfering and the students' attention is drawn to grammatical forms whenever necessary during the lessons where the emphasis is on use, meaning and communication. But in focus on forms the stress is mainly on language forms to the exclusion of their function in discourse environment. At this juncture, the main issue is which grammatical items should be included in a textbook and how they should be sequenced. The number of grammatical forms is practically large. Ellis (2006, p. 87) also states that "the choice of which grammatical structures to teach is controversial." The general consensus is that the grammar points can be selected and sequenced from simple to complex. Meanwhile Ellis (ibid.) suggests that it is better "to base selection on the known errors produced by learners."

The instructors had better focus on the form of the language when the need arises. It is because the form of the language is as important as its function. If the students acquire the correct grammatical structure of the language, they can be able to produce accurate sentences and utterances. If the form and function of the language are not internalized concurrently, the students will not be able to use language in written or spoken discourse. In fact, there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar will be meaningless. So, it is advisable that the instructors provide the students with clear and elaborate explanations of language rules and enough examples. However, grammar cannot be acquired in out of context sentences and in vacuum.

III. Focus-on-forms Instruction

Focus-on-forms (FonFS) instruction is informed by a strong interface view and occurs when parts of a grammar are taught as discrete units in order of their linguistic complexity. This is the traditional approach to grammar teaching and is based on an artificially reproduced as opposed to an organic syllabus. In this approach, language is treated as an object to be studied and language teaching is viewed to be an activity to be practiced systematically. Furthermore, learners are seen as students rather than users of the language (Ellis, 2001, p. 14).

IV. Focus-on-form Instruction

Focus-on-form (FonF) instruction, which draws on a weak interface view, involves strategies that draw learners' attention to the form or properties of target structure within a meaningful context. This is done primarily with structures that are potentially difficult, that are learnable according to the stages put forward in Pienemann's teachability hypothesis (Lightbown & Spada, 1994, p. 207), and that are likely to be used or needed in future communication.

FFI (form-focused instruction) techniques draw attention to target language features that learners would otherwise not use or even notice in communicatively oriented classroom input. Unlike more traditional language instruction, form-focused instruction entails "a set of psycholinguistically motivated pedagogic options" (Ellis, 2001, p. 12) that are considered most effective when implemented in communicative contexts to ensure that learners will be able to transfer what they learn in the classroom to communicative interaction outside the classroom.

Swain (1993) proposed that modified output is representation of the leading edge of a learner's interlanguage. Swain emphasized the role of output maintaining that the attempt to produce the target language encourages learners to notice their linguistic problems precisely, to test hypotheses, and to promote the reflection that enables them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge.

Swain (1993, as cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997) described gaps in immersion pedagogy in the following way:

1- comprehensible input alone is not sufficient for successful L2 learning; comprehensible output is also required, involving, on one hand, ample opportunities for student's output and, on the other, the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers.

2- subject matter teaching does not on its own provide adequate language teaching; language used to convey subject matter needs to be highlighted in ways that make certain features more salient for learners (p. 41).

Long and Robinson (1998) stated that explicit corrective feedback provides learners with a meta-linguistic explanation or overt error correction; on the other hand, implicit corrective feedback indirectly and incidentally informs learner's non-target like use of certain linguistic features.

Doughty (as cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998) found that without noticing learning is impossible. Focus on form may not be absolutely necessary but it can speed up natural acquisition processes.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) developed an observational scheme which describes different types of feedback that examines student uptake, i.e. how they immediately respond to the feedback.

1- Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of correct form.

2- Recasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.

3- Clarification involves repetition or a reformulation of student's ill-formed utterance.

4- Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.

5- Elicitation refers to teacher's techniques to directly elicit the correct form from students.

6- Repetition refers to the teacher's repetition of the student's erroneous utterance.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) noted that recasts were the most common type of feedback. However, they asserted that other types of feedback, such as clarification, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback are more likely to lead to immediate self-correction.

Johnson (as cited in Saeidi, 2007) suggested that the instructional sequence is best seen as "learn-perform-learn" rather than the traditional sequence of "learn-perform". During and after the "perform" stage, learners must have the opportunity to receive feedback. This feedback should consist of mistake correction, i.e. negative evidence about the misuse of features that the learners already have knowledge of but cannot yet use automatically.

Form-focused instruction refers to "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly" (Lightbown & Spada, 1994, p. 73). Form-focused instruction differs from the traditional grammar translation method because target forms are usually introduced during communicative interaction or embedded in meaning-based tasks and are thus expected to be retrieved more easily in similar communicative contexts. In contrast, the grammar points presented in a traditional decontextualized manner may be remembered in similar contexts, such as a discrete-point grammar test, but difficult to retrieve in a communicative context.

The extent to which knowledge gained from explicit instruction can, over time, become part of a second language (L2) learner's underlying system of implicit knowledge, and thus available for spontaneous language production, is still an open question. Some L2 acquisition theorists clearly downplay the role of explicit instruction in favor of a more implicit and incidental language learning (e.g. Long & Robinson, 1998). However, reviews of empirical studies show that explicit attention to form in communicative contexts is more effective.

V. Study

By defining the meaning of focus on form and regarding different points of view on feedback, it is clear that for developing students' writing skill we need form-focused feedback. The purpose of this study is to develop students' writing skill by providing form-focused feedback. Therefore, the present study intends to show in which groups (experimental or control) students' writing skill will improve.

Research in the area of form-focused instruction is of interest to both researchers and teachers, because it allows researchers to develop and test theories of L2 acquisition and yet has as a primary goal of identifying the effective pedagogical practice (Ellis, 2001). Accordingly, this article aims to present an analysis of five classroom-based studies on form-focused instruction and to identify effective pedagogical options in the light of two well-known theoretical orientations: the interaction hypothesis and cognitive theory.

VI. Method

A. Participants

Sixty English as a foreign language learners (EFL) who took part in the study were students at Tabriz Worker House English Institute, Tabriz, Iran. Based on their scores on the internal language program proficiency test, the learners were assessed as being at pre-intermediate level. The learners were randomly distributed into three intact writing groups of control, the first experimental (E1), and the second experimental (E2) group. Approximately, all of the learners in the study reported taking the TOEFL exam. Their scores ranged from 420 to 500, with a mean score of 489.5. The ages of the learners ranged from 18 to 41, with an average age of 24.2. The majority of the learners were natives of East Azerbaijan, mostly from Tabriz city. All the learners were level four students. The learners came from various first language backgrounds, including Azeri and Persian.

B. Instruments

The main instructional materials which were used in this institute were *Interchange* books, each unit of book consists of different sections: reading, listening, writing, etc. The focus was on writing section of this book. The learners were asked to write composition on topics in the writing section. All classes followed communicative approach in which both accuracy and fluency were considered to be significant. The classes met three times a week. Each lesson lasted about 90 minutes. Each class lasted for about six weeks. The four language skills were taught in an integrated manner.

C. Design

The design of this study was qusai-experimental – intact group design with pre-test, post-test, and control group. The control group was not exposed to any kind of treatment. The experimental (E1) group was exposed to meaning-based feedback (i.e. attention was on meaning not grammatical errors), but the second experimental group (E2) received form-

focused feedback (i.e. attention was on both meaning and form). To find the difference between these three groups, the researchers used one-way ANOVA to compare means. The researchers also used Paired sample t-test to find differences in pre-test and post-test results.

D. Procedure

The researchers in this study used three classes. At the beginning of the program the learners' compositions were collected and Anderson's analytic scoring for scoring the papers without giving any kind of feedback were used (Hughes, 2003). The learners' scores in this stage were considered as pre-test scores. Then, in one class, which was selected as experimental (E2), the learners were asked to write about titles, which were in *Interchange* book's writing section. The learners were given form-focused feedback (i.e. six types of corrected feedback were used as mentioned by Lyster and Ranta, 1997) to their written compositions. At the end of the program, on the final exam, the learners were again asked to write a composition on three titles that they had worked before in the class and they had received form-focused feedback for those compositions. The results of the learners' mean scores are available in Table 2 as post-test and pre-test scores in result section. Here are some samples of the learners' compositions who received form-focused feedback during class writing activities:

Student: I have twenty years old.
Teacher: when you speak about your age, you must use TO BE verbs. Then you must write:
I am twenty years old. → EXPLICIT CORRECTION
Student: my sister can cooks food.
Teacher: my sister can cook food. → RECASTS
Student: I like to reading.
Teacher: to reading? → REPITITION
Student: I am a reseptionist.
Teacher: are you sure about spelling? → METALINGUISTIC
Student: If I were a police officer, I would fine people.
Teacher: you would fine people, if you…? → ELICITATION
Student: I want to talk about our base fifty years ago.
Teacher: About what? → CLARIFICATION

The experimental (E1) class wrote the same topics as the E2, but the focus was only on the ideas and content of compositions. Grammatical errors were not important. The result of the learners' mean scores on the final exam is available in Table 3 in the results section.

The control group worked on the same compositions as the experimental groups, but they did not receive any kind of feedback. Their compositions were scored holistically.

VII. Results

According to the means of error correction in different feedback types, explicit correction had the highest mean (19.79), whereas the other feedback types, though close to each other, were lower on this measure. However, the frequency of recast type of feedback is more than the other types but it leads to less development on writing skill by mean of (12.87). It should be clarified that total number of errors and error types were not counted. It was considered that the total number of errors and error types had little relevance to main objectives of this study.

According to table 1, recasts were used with the highest frequency (38.7%). The second most frequently used feedback was explicit correction (19.4%). The third most frequently used feedback was metalinguistic (16.1%). The fourth most frequently used feedback was elicitation (12.9%), and repetition and clarification had the least frequency (6.5%).

TABLE 1
FEEDBACK

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	recast	12	19.7	38.7
	explicit corection	6	9.8	19.4
	meta linguistic	5	8.2	16.1
	elicitatin	4	6.6	12.9
	repitition	2	3.3	6.5
	clarification	2	3.3	6.5
	Total	31	50.8	100.0
Missing	System	30	49.2	
Total		61	100.0	

According to the findings of table 2 the means of scores in post-test is 15.11. That is more than pre-test scores. The number of students who participated in the study was sixty. The relationship between the two tests with the mean score = - 1.58, (df) = 59, $p < .001$ is valuable.

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test average	13.5333	60	2.59378	.33486
	POST	15.1167	60	2.70650	.34941

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pretest average - POST	-1.5833	3.39137	.43782	-2.4594	-.7072	-3.616	59	.001

According to the results of table 3, gained by ANOVA test, the experimental (E2) group which received form-focused feedback did better on the written exam. The (E2) group's mean is (17.76) and (E1) group has mean of (14.66), and control group, which did not receive any kind of feedback, has the mean of (11.93). The obtained data by (df) = 2 and p < .001 is valuable.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVES

POST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1.00	15	14.6667	1.63299	.42164	13.7623	15.5710	13.00	20.00
2.00	30	17.7667	1.67504	.30582	17.1412	18.3921	14.00	20.00
3.00	15	11.9333	1.90738	.49248	10.8771	12.9896	10.00	15.00
Total	60	15.5333	2.98281	.38508	14.7628	16.3039	10.00	20.00

1 = first experimental (E1), 2 = second experimental (E2), 3 = control

ANOVA

POST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	208.550	2	104.275	26.578	.000
Within Groups	223.633	57	3.923		
Total	432.183	59			

According to the findings of table 4, it appears that explicit correction with a mean of (19.79) provides learners with the highest opportunity for self-correction and developing writing skill. After clarification with the mean of (16.50), it provides learners with the highest opportunity for self-correction and developing writing skill. Repetition with the mean of (15.50) and elicitation with the mean of (14.00) have less effect on developing students' writing skill. At the end, recast with the mean of (12.83) has the least effect on developing students' writing skill.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVES

POST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
recast	12	12.8333	2.40580	.69449	11.3048	14.3619	10.00	17.00
explicit corection	6	19.7917	.40052	.16351	19.3713	20.2120	19.00	20.00
meta linguistic	5	12.4000	2.19089	.97980	9.6797	15.1203	10.00	14.00
elicitatin	4	14.0000	.00000	.00000	14.0000	14.0000	14.00	14.00
repitition	2	15.5000	.70711	.50000	9.1469	21.8531	15.00	16.00
clarification	2	16.5000	.70711	.50000	10.1469	22.8531	16.00	17.00
Total	31	14.6694	3.25665	.58491	13.4748	15.8639	10.00	20.00

ANOVA

POST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	233.505	5	46.701	13.789	.000
Within Groups	84.669	25	3.387		
Total	318.173	30			

This study by $X^2 = 46.70$, (df) = 5, P < . 001 confirms that there is a statistical significant difference between different types of form-focused feedback, suggesting that feedback types have different effect on developing students' writing skill.

VIII. Discussion

As one can see in the result, the researchers found out that there is a direct relationship between Form-focused feedback and improving student writing skill. It seems that in this way students pay more attention to linguistic elements, so accuracy and fluency of the text is observed. As Long and Robinson (1998) believed and noted that focus on form overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication. Writing composition and receiving feedback from teacher and peers also helps students to be aware of linguistic elements. As Swain (1993) notes, comprehensible input alone is not sufficient for successful L2 learning; comprehensible output is also required, involving, on the one hand, ample opportunities for learners' output and, on the other, the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers.

As one can see the result of pre-test and post-test, students who received form-focused feedback (E2) have improved their writing more than the other groups who did not have access to form-focused feedback.

According to the results shown in Table 1, the researchers found that among the six different corrective feedback types employed by the teacher, recasts were the most frequently used feedback type, though recasts elicited the least repair and the most no-uptake from the students. It means that recasts did not help students to improve their writing skill. However, explicit correction was the second most frequently used feedback which led to more uptakes and developed students writing skill. After providing students in the second experimental group (E2) with form-focused feedback their scores in the post-test increased.

This study had some limitations. The researchers did not know that students who participated in the study had any previous experience of form-focused feedback in other English Institutes or not. The researchers also did not take into account the total number of errors and error types. It was considered that the total number of errors and error types had little relevance to the main objectives of this study. At the end, it can be concluded that the form-focused feedback can help students to improve their writing skill.

References

[1] Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching. Fourth ed. New York: Longman.
[2] Doughty, C., & J. Williams. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: CUP, 197–263.
[3] Ellis, R. (2001*).* Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: OUP.
[4] Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective. *TESOL Quarterly* 40.1, 83–107.
[5] Hughes, A. (2003). Testing for language teachers. Cambridge: CUP.
[6] Lightbown, P. M. & N. Spada. (1994). How languages are learned. Oxford: OUP.
[7] Long, M. H. (2001). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In C. N. Candlin & N. Mercer (eds.), *English language teaching in its social context*. London: Routledge, 180–190.
[8] Long, M. H., & P. Robinson (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: CUP, 15–42.
[9] Lyster, R. & L. Ranta. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classroom. *Studies in Second* Language *Acquisition* 19.1, 37–66.
[10] Rivers, W. M. (1980). Teaching foreign language skills. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[11] Saeidi, M. (2007). Multiple intelligence-based focus on form. Tabriz: Islamic Azad University of Tabriz.
[12] Stranks, J. (2003). Materials for the teaching of grammar. In B. Tomlinson (ed.). *Developing materials for language teaching*. London: Continuum, 329–339.
[13] Swain, M. (1993). Focus on form through conscious reflection. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: CUP, 64–83.

Mohammad Zohrabi is an assistant professor. He has got his PhD from UKM, Malaysia. He has taught various courses both at undergraduate and graduate level at the University of Tabriz, Iran. He has published various articles in international journals and produced 4 books: *A Dictionary of Research Terms in Applied Linguistics*, *A Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*, *Reading English in Action*, and *Active Reading Comprehension*. His research interests include: program evaluation, material writing and evaluation, first and second language acquisition, teaching reading and writing skills, English for academic purposes, English for general purposes, and English for specific purposes.

Parvin Rezaie has an MA in TEFL from Azad Islamic University Iran. She is an English teacher in Ministry of Education in Tabriz, teaching at various colleges, faculties, etc. Her research interests are language teaching and assessment.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1520-1525, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1520-1525

Study on Correlation of Foreign Language Anxiety and English Reading Anxiety

Qian Huang
Foreign Language Teaching Department, Dezhou University, Dezhou 253023, China
Email: qqh@dzu.edu.cn

***Abstract*—This paper firstly gives the definition of anxiety and its classification and then states the sources of foreign language anxiety. Research has made on the correlation between foreign language anxiety and reading anxiety, which shows Chinese students are bothered by reading anxiety coming from their lack of background knowledge and psychological factors such as anxiety, fear, bad reading habit and low interest in foreign language, etc. According to the above discussion, the paper gives the four strategies to help the students overcome reading anxiety, promoting students reading efficiency and we English teacher also can get teaching implication on this issue.**

***Index Terms*—foreign language anxiety, English reading anxiety, correlation**

I. Definition of Anxiety and Its Classification

A. Definition of Anxiety

Due to different purposes of different researches, anxiety may have different definitions. From psychological point of view, anxiety is defined as "a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object" by Psychologists like Higard, Atkinson. (Scovel, 1978). From the perspective of the behavior science, B.B. Wolman (1989) denotes anxiety as "a feeling of one's own weakness and inability to cope with real or imaginary threats. In recent years, it is widely recognized and accepted by language researchers that anxiety has close relationship with foreign language learning. Therefore it is frequently and extensively employed to perform foreign language research. Spielberger (1983) defines anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system".

B. Types of Anxiety

From the psychological perspective, anxiety is often classified into three types, that is"trait, state and situation-specific anxiety" (MacIntyre & Gardner,1989). Trait anxiety is a stable predisposition; people with high levels of trait anxiety are generally nervous people in a wide range of circumstances. State anxiety is "an apprehension expected at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation." (Spielberger, 1983). The third type of anxiety is situation-specific anxiety. Situation-specific anxiety "can be seen as trait anxiety limited to a given context" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). It may be stable over time but inconsistent with various situations. That is, this type of anxiety is intrigued by a specific situation or event over time, such as taking a test, public speaking, class participation, talking with a foreigner in a foreign language, solving physical problem. Because of the features of situation-specific anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) suggest that "foreign language anxiety should be studied with situation specific measures". According to Horwitz et al. (1986) foreign language classroom anxiety is a typical situation-specific anxiety.

II. Source of Foreign Language Anxiety

In order to reduce or avoid the negative influence of foreign language anxiety, it is helpful for us to explore the sources of foreign language anxiety, which can help us better explain the effects of anxiety on foreign language learning and also help English teachers find practical and effective teaching programs and strategies. Having reviewed the literature on language anxiety (Bailey, 1983) Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991) many potential sources have been found. Here several main sources of foreign language anxiety from highly personal (such as competitiveness) to procedural (such as language examination).

A. Personal Factors

1. Self-esteem

Self-esteem is a "self-judgment of worth or value, based on feelings of efficacy, a sense of interacting effectively with one's own environment" (Oxford, 1990). Krashen(1983) states that foreign language anxiety is easily evoked by an individual's self-esteem. What other people think may cause the individuals with low self-esteem worried, because they want to please others.

2. Competitiveness

When people learn to use a foreign language to communicate, it is natural for them to compare themselves with others or with their idealized self-image which may be hard to realize. Thus competitiveness arouses, which can also lead to language anxiety (Bailey, 1983). However, competitiveness may not arouse anxiety in all students.

3. Beliefs

Language anxiety can be the result of some unscientific or impractical beliefs of both learners and their teachers (Oxford, 1993). Sometimes when the learners' expectation or beliefs on foreign language learning are unrealistic, frustration and stress are inevitable and accordingly anxiety appears. Some teachers in foreign language class tend to criticize every mistake that learners have made or frequently correct the student's poor pronunciation, which will easily intrigue learners' anxiety. As for a lot of language teachers, the role played by teachers in language class should be dominative, directive and authoritative; otherwise the class will be out of control. So when pair work or group work is conducted, they will have much worry about the order of classroom. Such a teacher-centered language class, in which learners just play a part as passive receivers of knowledge will easily made learners feel anxious in foreign language learning.

B. Procedural Factors

Language anxiety may be rooted in some highly procedural factors, such as classroom procedures, instructor-learner interactions and test anxiety. Not only oral tasks, but also writing, reading or listening can also create fear (Horwitz &Young, 1991; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Anxiety may be a result of some ineffective pedagogical practices. For example, in reading exercises, the teacher only check the answers or simply explain the meaning of each sentence or word, while reading strategies and the structure of the reading material are ignored. (Young, 1999) The instructor-learner interactions are also anxiety-provoking in language class. The nervousness of language learners can be easily stimulated by the teachers' harsh and uncomfortable error correction in front of a class.

C. Culture Background

From a social-cultural point of view, language acquisition will not perform successfully without the introduction of cultural of the target language. In the process of foreign language learning it is natural for the learner to encounter a large amount of culture shock. The culture shock may easily cause them to feel anxious because they are afraid of losing their own language and ethnic identity in cross-cultural circumstances. (Clement1980). Horwitz (2001) warned that it is significant to be aware of cultural differences when teachers are designing classroom practices or preparing lessons. Related culture knowledge is useful and helpful especially to students' reading in target language. Some practices prove to be relaxing and interesting to one group of learners may be difficult and boring for another group of learners from a different cultural because people from different culture background are used to different types of classroom organizations. So cultural differences may also lead to stress and anxiety. The studies on sources of foreign language anxiety are of great significance in that it not only contribute a better explanation of the relationship between foreign language anxiety and language achievement, but also help the foreign language teachers to work out more effective strategies and programs that may ameliorate the negative effects of language anxiety.

III. FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING ANXIETY

A. Reading Is a Cognitive Process

Reading plays a significant role in language learning. Anderson (1999) states reading is an essential skill for students to have a good command of a second or foreign language. For English learners, greater progress and development will be made in all academic areas, supposing their reading skills can be advanced. Wedell's defines reading as "a psycholinguistic process. Readers start with a set of linguistic symbols that have been chosen by writers to represent the thoughts that they wish to express. The reading process ends when the readers have interpreted as much of the writers' intended meaning as is relevant to them. So the writers put their meaning into language and the readers reconvert the language into meanings." (Wedell, 1995) His definition is one of the most frequently cited and widely accepted among numerous definitions of reading. Reading , is a cognitive activity. The three main elements involved in reading process are reader, text and interaction between the reader and the text. Chastain (1988) states that reading process is a cognitive system in which readers actively operate the printed materials to obtain a good comprehension of the text. In another word, during reading process the reader should make use of their background and linguistic knowledge to reconstruct the writer's intended meaning. In a word, the writer's intended meaning is under the printed materials and the reader should read between the lines to get it.

B. Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis

Comfortable reading needs to be unafraid. However, very often when one is studying something difficult or something that is difficult in one's own opinion, and when one is going to be tested, one's reading will not work well. These feelings make one feel difficult to concentrate, to remember the ideas, and to learn anything new. If one is reading for fun, usually one will not have the feeling of worry and nerve and anxiety. Stephen D. Krashen(1992) says that if the language acquirer is anxious or has low self-esteem it will be difficult to easily learn the foreign language. Acquirers with favorable and desirable attitudes are hypothesized to have "low" affective filters, adversely, to have

"high" affective filters.

Affective Filter Hypothesis is first proposed by Dulay and Burt(1977), and latter is incorporated by Krashen as one of his five Hypotheses. According to the Affective Filter Hypothesis, affective factors as anxiety, self-doubt etc. are like a filter which filters language input out learners brains to make the amount of language input increase or decrease. People with high affective filter will decrease their input whereas people with low affective filter will increase their intake. Those negative emotions are regarded as a "mental block" that prevents efficient processing of the language input. The affective filter functions as a blockage to language acquisition, the filter varies to emotions of acquirers, when they lack confidence the filter is up, when they are not anxious the filter is down. The hypothesis states that the barrier can be reduced by encouraging interest, creating relaxed and low anxiety atmosphere, which implies that our pedagogical aims should not only include offering comprehensible input, what is important is to provide an encouraging environment of a low filter.

IV. Investigation and Discussion on Language Anxiety and English Reading Anxiety

Before the investigation of the states of English language anxiety and English reading anxiety experienced by non-English major students in EFL context, it is necessary and important to examine the reliability of FLCAS and FLRAS. These two scales have been extensively tested and widely used to investigate foreign language learning and reading anxiety. To assess the quality of adapted FLRAS and FLCAS, reliability and validity analysis were conducted in the present study. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for adapted FLCAS is.89 (n=160), for adapted FLRAS is .84 (n= 160). Therefore, compared with Saito et al.'s study (1999), Cronbach's coefficient alpha for FLCAS is. 93 and for FLRAS is .86 (n= 383), the Chinese versions of the adapted FLCAS and FLRAS are satisfactorily reliable instruments to measure the levels of students' English language anxiety and English reading anxiety.

A. The Relationship between FLCAS and FLRAS

The relationship between English language anxiety and English reading anxiety was examined by conducting a Pearson production-moment correlation analysis.

Table1
Correlation between FLCAS and FLRAS

		FLRAS	FLCAS
FLRAS	Pearson Correlation Sig.（2-tailed） N	1 160	.652** .000 160
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	.652** .000 160	1 160

**.Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

From the above analysis, necessary measures should be taken to help the students overcome the anxiety in their English reading.

B. Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Categories

After the FLRAS was administered and scored, the 121 students were divided into three groups according to the results. Those whose scores are below 50 are considered as LOW-ANX, accounting for 14% of the total, while those who score higher than 68 (including 68) are classified into the HI-ANX, taking up 18% of the total. The rest who gain scores between 50and 66 are considered as AVE-ANX, covering 68%. Thus there are 17 and 22 students in LOW-ANX group and HI-ANX group respectively and 82 in AVE-ANX group. Figure presents the number and percentage of students in each Table1 FLRA category and the anxiety level and range for each identified group.

FLRA CLASSIFICATION	Number	Percentage	Mean	Range
LOW-ABX	17	14%	44.471	30% to 49
AVE-ANX	82	68%	59.444	50 to 69
HI-ANX	22	18%	73.565	68 TO 99

Note: LOW-ANX =Low Anxiety Group
AVE-ANX= Average Anxiety Group
HI-ANX=High Anxiety Group

C. Anxiety and Reading Comprehension Score

In order to examine the influences of different levels of anxiety on the reading performance, the correlation coefficients between the three levels of anxiety (low-anxiety, average-anxiety and high-anxiety) and the corresponding reading comprehension scores were calculated. The three anxiety groups are classified according to the cumulative percent of anxiety of the 121 subjects. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics for the three anxiety groups and the corresponding reading comprehension scores.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE THREE ANXIETY GROUPS AND THE CORRESPONDING READING COMPREHENSION SCORES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.
FLRA LOW-ANX	17	30.00	49.00	44.4706	5.52401
FLRA AVE-ANX	82	50.00	99.00	59.9268	6.42868
FLRA HI-ANX	22	67.00	89.00	72.4091	5.34219
CETR LOW-ANX	17	186.00	366.00	314.1176	56.43900
CETR AVE_ANX	82	366.00	520.00	437.2439	44.43293
CETR HI-ANX	22	532.00	630.00	577.8636	33.52511
Valid N (listwise)	0				

Table 3 Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Categories
Note: LOW-ANX =Low Anxiety Group
AVE-ANX= Average Anxiety Group
HI-ANX=High Anxiety Group
CETR=Reading Comprehension Score of CET-4

As shown in Figure 4.6, the data computerized in SPSS imply the fact that FLRA and reading comprehension score of CET-4 confirms that students who are of lower anxiety tend to have better achievement, while highly anxious students achieve less.

D. Correlation between the Three Anxiety Levels and the Corresponding Reading Comprehension Scores

Correlation coefficients between the three anxiety levels and the corresponding reading comprehension scores are presented in table 4.7. The results demonstrate that Correlation coefficients between the two variables are significant, a significant negative correlation exist among mid-anxiety group and high-anxiety group. Whereas low-anxiety has a positive but insignificant correlation with reading comprehension score.

TABLE 4.
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN THE THREE ANXIETY LEVELS AND THE CORRESPONDING READING COMPREHENSION SCORES

	Reading comprehension score
LOW-ANX	.025
AVE-ANX	-.191**
HI-ANX	-.235**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Note: LOW-ANX =Low Anxiety Group
AVE-ANX= Average Anxiety Group
HI-ANX=High Anxiety Group

As reported in Table 4. and the group analysis of reading comprehension scores above, it can be concluded that low anxiety has a positive but insignificant correlation with reading comprehension score, while a significant negative correlation exists among mid-anxiety group and high-anxiety group. This result further proves the negative influence of reading anxiety on reading performance, but also suggests that reading anxiety can facilitate reading comprehension at a certain point.

V. STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME THE ANXIETY OF READING

A. To Help Students Strengthen Their Faith in English Reading

Reading plays an important role in learning English, it provides readers with much information and rich language forms, which enriches one's comprehensive knowledge. For example, through reading, learners can enlarge their vocabulary, can learn to use some sentence structures, can acquire some cross-cultural information, can accumulate many useful expressions etc. however, most English learners regard that reading is less important than speaking, listening and writing, to learn English is to learn to speak and write in English, such awareness will seriously prevent them from improving reading ability, once students lose faith in reading, they will bring some negative factors to the process of reading.

According to investigation, majority of students believe that their reading anxiety results from new words and unfamiliar grammar, while vocabulary and grammar are surface levels in Structuring a passage and it is easy for students to overcome this difficulty by remembering and practicing. However, the faith in reading belongs to the problem of attitude. If students can't treat reading with proper attitude, it will lead directly to the sense that they are far away from the target language, that is anxiety of language distance. When they have no faith in reading, students will blindly choose some reading strategies, some students even have the tendency to give up. For those having no faith, they regard reading as a passive process, this concept makes them blindly deal with what they are reading, which further intensifies the distance from target language and the feeling of anxiety. So developing students' faith in reading during teaching is very important, by this way, students will be promoted to expose themselves to English reading materials, much reading will make them accumulate much more vocabulary and grammar, then they will read English with such familiarity that they will not feel nervous any more. In teaching reading, teachers should afford efficient and

immediate instruction to develop students' faith in reading.

B. To Help Students Develop Their Cross-cultural Competence

For second language learners, cross-cultural competence is a must. Unfamiliar foreign history and culture will become a great barrier preventing learners from correctly understanding a text. When reading a text involving in foreign culture, those lacking cross-cultural knowledge will be confused and feel afraid of knowing nothing. It is a misunderstanding that reading is just a thing that you can do some questions of choice correctly, it is really not such a matter. Reading is a complex process, readers obtain information through words and sentences then rearrange what they have got and turn them into their own thoughts. This process is communication between writer and reader, so if reader lacks knowledge in some aspects, he will not understand what the writer wants to transmit by words, then the communication will be stopped. The best way to learn second language is to put learners into the foreign culture. When learners become familiar with foreign culture, they will feel English reading easier. Strange culture can trigger the higher level of reading anxiety, so in order to let students feel relaxed when meeting with foreign culture, we should pay attention to strengthen their cross-cultural awareness, it is strongly suggested that more lectures on foreign culture and diverse topics related to foreign culture be offered to broaden students' horizons. Both teachers and students should improve their sensitivity of cultural awareness.

C. To Encourage Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning helps to mobilize enthusiasm of each student and makes them freely participate in learning activities. In cooperative way of learning, the whole class is divided into several small groups, each member of one group shoulders responsibility for his own and other members, because the reward of individual achievement is obtained by the efforts of group members, so based on this view, cooperative learning can encourage each student to try his best to behave and perform well. Cooperative learning enhances the interaction between student and student and helps to form a supportive atmosphere. Students get more opportunities to freely talk and share their thoughts with group-mates. When they try to finish one reading assignment together, one student will see how their peers develop by immediate communication, he will be not afraid that he may be the only one who meets with difficulty. By discussing in a group, each student is provided with a less anxiety-producing situation in which students have no tension to express. Cooperation makes students be aware that reading is not a matter of oneself but a matter of each group member, only by working together, communicating with each other, new ideas can be tried out, one's reading skills can be improved, tension and anxiety can be reduced.

D. To Help Students Build Self-confidence

To build self-confidence is very important in learning language and reading English. Self-confidence is a kind of active attitude, is a kind of healthy self-concept. It helps to change some negative factors into positive ones. It is easy to find that those having self-confidence are more likely to achieve success than those lacking self-confidence. Self-confidence functions greatly in making students keep the inner self-esteem, also functions when students are affected by all kinds of affective factors. Because reading is regarded as a complex psychological process, when reading, readers will experience different kinds of complex emotions, if one can keep confident, one may overcome those negative affective factors such as anxiety or confusion, if one lose confidence, one may suffer anger or anxiety even other kinds of emotional pains. In reading an article, when meeting with such and that difficult , if a student has no confidence, he will believe that he is the only left-behind, he may get so upset and distressed that he is likely to let himself go and make no efforts to solve the problems. While self-confident students will hold right attitude toward score, pressure and evaluation from others, thus they can turn failure into power, when they get high motivation to read, then reading may become an attraction, reading process will be endowed with happiness and enjoyment; Once reading is regarded as a kind of relaxation, feeling of anxiety will disappear. Teacher, as one of key factors in the learning

VI. Implications to English Teaching

The present research proves that foreign language reading does provoke anxiety among foreign language learners in college. Given the important functions of reading in college English teaching and learning, it is urgent for English teachers to carry out some investigations in order to know about students' anxiety, it is necessary for teachers to take some appropriate measures to alleviate reading anxiety and enhance the English teaching efficiency.

Secondly, the present research indicates that most students have no confidence in reading English because of rather high anxiety, so it is important for teachers to release anxiety because anxiety seriously affected students' reading performance and reading effects. If students are always in anxious situation, they will suffer from failure of learning. Teachers should be able to diagnose learners' reading anxiety precisely and then help students to cope with the anxiety-provoking situations. If students read in comfortable environment and are encouraged frequently by teachers rather than being criticized, students will become more confident.

Thirdly, teachers should make students be aware that foreign language reading anxiety is Thirdly, teachers should make students be aware that foreign language reading anxiety is natural and common due to the fact that foreign language learning is intrinsic and no one can experience null anxiety, both they themselves and their peers endure

FLRA, and it is not humiliating to feel anxious in reading. Using this way of encouragement, teachers may cultivate students' confidence in reading. It is obvious that severe FLRA can lower students' self-esteem, inhibit their thoughts, lessen their interests and decrease the degree of reading proficiency. So we should try to provide students with more chances to experience success in reading English, by which their positive self-concepts about reading can be reinforced.

Fourthly, teachers should try their best to develop students into ideal FL readers who can identify the specific factors resulting in their reading anxiety, who can keep a happy and an active psychological and emotional state, all these help greatly to control anxiety. It is necessary for both teachers and students to pay special attention to such affective factors as anxiety, self-esteem, and pay attention to cultivating students' positive attitude toward FLR, encouraging students to exchange their anxious feelings during reading with their peers through some reading activities.

REFERENCES

[1] Bailey, K.M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H.W. Seliger and M.H. Long(eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
[2] B.B. Wolman. (1989). Dictionary of Behavioral Science. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold co.
[3] Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E.K., & Schallert, D. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning*, 49, 417-446.
[4] Horwitz, E.K. & Young, D.J. (1991). Language learning Anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
[5] Krashen, S.D. (1982). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon.
[6] Krashen, S.D.(1985b). The Input Hypothesis: Issues and implications. New York: Longman.
[7] MacIntyre, P.D. and R.C. Gardner.(1989). Anxiety and second language reading and listening comprehension. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 32-40.
[8] Maximo, R. & Orangel, A.(2003). The stability of general foreign language classroom anxiety across English and French. *Model Language Journal* 87,365-374.
[9] Scovel, T. (1978). The effects of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language learning*, 28,129-142.
[10] Spielberger, C.D. (1983). Manual or the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
[11] Williams, K. (1991). Anxiety and foreign language learning. *RELC Journal*, 22:19-28.
[12] Young, D.J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: what does the language anxiety research suggest. *Modern Language Journal*, 75:426-437.
[13] Young, D. J.(1992). Language anxiety form the foreign language specialist's perspective: Interviews with Krashen, Omaggio Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin. *Foreign Language Annals*, 25,157-172.

Qian Huang was born in hangzhou, China in 1966.She received her M.A. degree in history from Shandong University, China. She is currently an associate professor in foreign language teaching department, Dezhou University, China. Her research interests include linguistics and foreign teacher's education.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1526-1531, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1526-1531

Data-driven Learning: A Student-centered Technique for Language Learning

Touraj Talai
English Department, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran
Email: talai_najafabad@yahoo.com

Zahra Fotovatnia
English Department, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran
Email: z.fotovatnia@ iaun.ac.ir

***Abstract*—The use of student-centered methods in language teaching can be an alternative to be exerted by teachers in language classrooms. Such methods can create an atmosphere of excitement for the students because they themselves are supposed to discover word meanings, grammatical patterns, parts of speech and other aspects of language through receiving small tips from the teacher. In the present paper, data-driven learning (DDL) has been introduced as a student-centered technique in which samples of authentic language are taken from linguistic corpora to be presented to language learners for improving language proficiency and then different aspects of this technique have been elaborated on in order to make language teachers and students aware of its features and usefulness.**

***Index Terms*—data-driven learning, corpus, concordancing**

I. Introduction

DDL which was first coined by Johns in 1991 is a method in which learners read large amounts of authentic language and try to discover linguistic patterns and rules by themselves. DDL is famous because of its potential in language learning. It is a student-centered method; which exhorts rule and pattern discovery and learner autonomy. Johns (1988) expressed that DDL entails a shift in the role of teachers and students. In other words the teacher works as a research director and collaborator instead of transmitting information to the students directly and explicitly. DDL and Task-Based approach to language learning are sometimes taken as similar to each other because of the emphasis which is put on the role of students in both of them. Over the years, different investigators and language teachers have taken advantage of DDL for teaching different components of language such as collocations, grammatical points, affixes, etc. (Ball, 1996; Dyck, 1999; Kettemann, 1995; Tribble, 1997).

Samples of authentic language for preparing DDL exercises are usually taken from linguistic corpora. Corpus refers to a big collection of naturally occurring language produced by native speakers which is gathered from both spoken and written language. One of the advantages of corpus is its capability in familiarizing language learners with different patterns in the target language. With the use of corpus, we have the opportunity of analyzing natural language and finding the differences between formal and informal language. We can also learn about the features of spoken as compared with written language. At the present time corpora are mostly computerized but in the past they were produced in printed versions. The advent of computers has made us able to search for special words and patterns among corpora much faster and easier.

In DDL, a lot of emphasis is put on students' role. Teaching and learning are sometimes imagined as two complementary activities, but in reality, learning can occur without the existence of an instructor. Even in some situations, learning is more effective when there is no teacher. This is the basis of DDL in which the learners are exposed to authentic language whether in spoken or written form and are expected to discover patterns without the direct assistance of the teacher. It is believed that DDL has some advantages. For instance it improves learner independency and autonomy, enhances language awareness, and makes the learners able to cope with authentic language.

II. Different Attitudes towards the Appropriateness of DDL for Advanced Learners and Beginners

There is a controversy over a possible relationship between DDL and learners' language proficiency. The proponents of DDL take it as a synonym for task-based learning in which some activities are given to the learners who are asked to find patterns and rules of linguistic materials presented to them. Therefore, it is claimed that DDL is only useful for the learners at advanced levels and a lot of training is essential for its application. Johns (1986) said that DDL is appropriate for the learners who are adult, have enough motivation and, are sophisticated and intelligent.

A lot of literature on DDL shows that this type of learning has been used for the learners at advanced levels (Boulton, 2008a). The reason why in most of investigations about DDL the participants have been chosen from advanced level learners is that perhaps the researchers themselves have preferred this. In other words the researchers could choose their participants from among the learners at lower proficiency levels of language. Nevertheless there is a tendency towards thinking that DDL is only useful for the learners at advanced levels of language proficiency.

Against the idea that emphasizes the mere appropriateness of DDL for the learners at advanced levels of language proficiency, some investigations present evidence for the efficiency of this type of learning for the students at lower levels. For example Sealy and Thompson (2007) proved that even primary school children can take advantage of corpora in their native language without a high level of sophistication. However, Braun (2007) claimed that when corpus is used for learning a foreign or second language, the situation is different and it can be less efficient in some environments such as the ones outside the university. This is why in most articles about DDL, the participants are from among the learners at high levels of language proficiency.

Regarding the appropriateness of DDL for the learners at very low levels, such as beginners, there are different opinions. As an example, Hadley (2002) said that all the efforts made by his Japanese colleagues to take advantage of DDL led to failure. Some other investigators, such as Boulton (2009) claimed that learners may benefit from being exposed to the complexity of corpus at early stages of learning. However this should be done with caution for lower level students and the learners should be trained about its correct use.

III. The Importance of Training in Dealing with DDL

An important aspect in dealing with DDL is sufficient training which is necessary for the learners. Training is essential not only for the learners but also for the teachers. The learners should gain the skill of working with linguistic materials. Bernardini (2001) expressed that the complexity of the linguistic materials should not be overestimated and the learners should gain the ability to deal with them very quickly. Sinclair (2004) believed that every teacher and student can easily come to the corpus world and learn the language. When a teacher wants to take advantage of DDL in the environment of the classroom, he can give instructions to the students about how to deal with the data presented to them and how to extract rules and patterns without much help from the teacher.

IV. Different Aspects of DDL

DDL can be viewed from different angles. It involves some features such as using linguistic corpus, concordancing, being inductive, providing a continuum from product to process, raising learners' consciousness, using computer programs and linguistic corpus for learning activities. So in the following paragraphs these features are discussed and explained.

V. Linguistic Corpus as a Source of Information for Preparing DDL Exercises

Corpus linguistics has been introduced as a methodology in the field of linguistics. This methodology first appeared in 1964 when the first computerized corpus was produced. Leech (1997) said that the Brown Corpus compiled by Henry Kucera and W. Nelson Francis gathered in 1964 was the first computerized corpus. It was a collection of one million words and was a large corpus at that time. In computerized corpora the texts are stored electronically and are analyzed by means of computer programs which are called concordencers.

A. Computerized Corpora

Collecting large amounts of authentic language was not regarded as something new when corpus linguistics was introduced as a methodology for language teaching. Mayer (2009) expressed that early dictionaries were full of examples taken from naturally occurring language. Even concordance lines were used for a long time before the appearance of corpus linguistics. Tribble (1990) said that concordance lines were used for centuries from the Middle Ages.

Collecting large amounts of authentic language is a time consuming activity which has been simplified with the use of computer programs at the present time. Besides searching for keywords and their surrounding contexts, these programs can also calculate the frequency of vocabulary items. The ability of computer programs in the field of corpus linguistics is not limited to the ones mentioned above. These programs have other abilities such as finding collocations related to special vocabulary items. Since different wide corpora are available for teachers and researchers, there is no need for them to produce a corpus by themselves.

B. The Direct and Indirect Use of Corpora

Corpora can be used both indirectly and directly. If corpora are used indirectly, it means that they help us in making decisions about what materials to teach and when to teach them. Barlow (1996) notes that corpora can influence course design and determine the content of the materials which are going to be taught in language classrooms. On the other side, if they are used directly, it means that they are used directly by learners and teachers for the purpose of getting familiar with the use of language in the real world or as Fligelstone (1993) says they help us in the teaching process.

While the indirect use of corpus focuses on its influence on syllabus design and linguistic materials for the purpose of teaching, the direct use of corpus focuses more on the teachers and learners. In the direct approach instead of relying on researchers as the providers of linguistic materials, language learners and teachers themselves study the corpus in order to discover language patterns, word meanings, etc. (Bernardini, 2002). Tim Johns pioneered the direct use of corpus for learning grammar and vocabulary. Johns (2002) believed that the learners should encounter the linguistic data directly and tried to foster the role of learners as linguistic researchers. Johns (1997) also regarded the learner as "language detective" and called every learner as a Sherlock Holmes. This method, in which there is an interaction between corpora and students, is known as data-driven learning. The activities of DDL are usually taken from corpora.

Some investigations have been done about the efficiency of using corpora directly for language learning. For example Watson (2001) conducted such an investigation. In his research, the students used internet as a source of information. In this study, the students were required to correct two mistakes they made in writing a report as their assignment. The mistakes were indicated by the teacher and the students were supposed to search the internet to find examples of use of the indicated words as a corpus and induce rules in order to self-correct their mistakes. The results showed that students could correct their mistakes in 78% of instances.

C. The Use of Linguistic Corpora in Language Classrooms

Corpora are not used only for the mere analysis of languages. Nowadays they also play the role of linguistic materials for language classes. Woolard (2000) expressed that corpora and the use of concordancing which were used only for the purpose of research about the language in the past, is being used as an important instrument for language teachers in their classes at the present time. Having access to corpora may be thought of as something difficult for language learners, but many authors who have done investigations about the use of corpora have published articles on the fact that corpora are easily accessible to the learners (e.g. Fox 1998; Kettemann, 1995; Stevens, 1995; Tribble, 1997; Wichmann, 1995).

Language teachers can play an important role in motivating the students to use corpora for language learning. This needs the teachers to believe in the usefulness of corpora for this purpose. Many articles have been published about the use of corpus in language classes. The teachers can study them and apply the methods to their classes. We cannot expect the learners to be aware of all ways for improving their language proficiency, so the teachers can assist them by introducing new methods. As corpora are produced by native speakers, the assistance of teacher as a guide in class can simplify the process of learning for the learners.

D. Linguistic Corpora for General and Specific Purposes

Corpora can be built for two different aims. Sometimes they are made for specific purposes and sometimes for general purposes. In order to build specific corpora the materials can be found on the internet. Such a kind of corpus needs not to be very large. It should only contain a reasonable number of examples in the target language. But in order to prepare a corpus for general purposes more problems and difficulties are encountered because the number of examples provided should be larger in number in order to be the representative of the target language (Watson, 2001).

Rizzo (2010) notes that a general corpus is gathered to be used for contrastive analysis or for providing a description of the general language. As a result, gathering linguistic materials involves collecting texts from a wide range of genres and topics to represent the usage of general language. On the contrary, in specialized corpora samples of a particular variety or register of the language are gathered in order to create a dictionary, analyzing the development of children language, studying the language when it is used in a specific topic area, etc. depending on the aims of the investigation.

VI. CONCORDANCING IN DDL

Language teachers can exert concordancing technique for presenting DDL exercises to the learners. This means that several sentence examples in which a special word or grammatical point has been used are gathered. After that the sentences are written under each other and may be cut from the beginnings and ends to be shortened for the purpose of centralizing the intended word or grammatical point in the middle of each line. This results in incomplete sentences, but it helps the teachers to sort the target word which is common in all the sentences exactly under each other. Through using this technique the attention of the learners is attracted to the intended word and its immediate context in different sentences. Then the learners can get familiar with the new word or grammatical point.

The presentation of such incomplete sentences may interrupt complete understanding. Hadley (1997) said that according to the results of the questionnaires given to the participants in this method, many participants believed that the concordance style of presenting part of the sentences was problematic for them. In this way, we cannot be sure about whether or not the learners can get the right meaning after reading such incomplete contexts. There are some tricks that can solve this problem. For example, a complete sentence can also be added to the end. Another solution is to present complete sentences instead of cut ones, however parts of the sentences may fall in the next line.

The learners should get familiar with this type of technique to cope with the sentence examples. When the learners encounter such examples taken from the corpus, they should discover the patterns and rules by themselves. So they should be familiar with inductive learning. Sun (2003) said that the learners who are only familiar with deductive language learning need to receive a lot of guidance to deal with concordancing in linguistic corpus. The use of

concordancing in linguistic corpora can be used as well as using dictionary for improving vocabulary knowledge. Frankenberg-Garcia (2005) came to the conclusion that with a little training about coping with concordances, corpus can be as efficient as dictionary for the purpose of improving language proficiency.

VII. DDL as an Inductive Approach

DDL is an inductive approach as it does not present word meanings and grammatical rules directly. As an example if a teacher wants to teach a point of grammar to the students in an inductive way, he gives a text full of that grammatical point to the learners, and in this way, the students themselves should try to discover the structure of the sentences and the grammatical points of the text. Researchers believe that an inductive approach is more useful for acquiring simple rules and patterns (Reber, 1989; Robinson, 1997). In a study done by Lee & Liou (2003), they came to the conclusion that the students who liked inductive learning were more successful when they were given a DDL lesson. In DDL the data can be taken from linguistic corpora and the learners can learn the word meanings and grammatical rules indirectly and in an inductive way.

VIII. A Continuum from Product to Process in DDL

Bastone (1995) believed that DDL is a method which is a continuum from product to process. It has the features of product approach since specific linguistic aspects are given to the learners in a lot of sentences of the target language. It also has the features of process approach because it improves creativity and self-discovery in language learners. There was a disadvantage for product approaches in the past. The disadvantage was that in earlier product approaches, idealized sentences were extracted for the purpose of language teaching, but in DDL, lots of authentic sentences produced by the native speakers are exerted. The researchers in favor of DDL as a product approach are preparing increasing proofs that show how the non-idealized information taken from corpora and the use of concordances can be exploited in language classes (Tribble 1996, Kettemann 1995, Tribble & Jones 1990).

IX. Consciousness Raising in DDL

The DDL approach in teaching vocabulary and grammar leads to consciousness-raising of the learners. Rutherford and Smith (1998) defined consciousness-raising as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language". In DDL, learners are not regarded as the mere recipients of linguistic data, but as researchers who study the regularity of language. The duty of teachers is only to encourage the learners without directly assisting them in the process of language learning and discovering linguistic rules. After receiving some tips from the teacher, the learners' consciousness regarding an intended language component increases and in the next step the learners will be able to produce language using what they have learned in DDL exercises.

The use of computers and computer programs can be part of DDL. Boulton (2008a) came to the conclusion that from 50 studies about DDL, all but eight involved the use of computer by learners. Besides the use of computers, DDL can be used through printed materials instead of computer programs for the presentation of data to the learners. Some students may be technophobic (Bernardini, 2002). So the use of printed papers can be more effective for them as compared to the use of computers. Using papers has some advantages. For instance it is more economic for the researchers because they don't need laboratories equipped with computers for doing their investigations about DDL. In other words printed materials are more accessible than computer programs. In DDL, linguistic materials which are taken from linguistic corpora can also be presented to the learners with the use of computers. So it can be regarded as a combination of corpus and CALL.

X. Corpus as a Source of Information for DDL Activities

The materials in DDL are usually taken from different types of corpora. In a corpus, the type of language which is used is not simplified as the phrases and sentences of learners' dictionaries. In other words they are full of expressions produced by native speakers of the target language. As a result, there might be more than one difficult word in the sentences taken from corpus. Boulton (2010) believed that DDL seems almost a difficult approach for language learning, because it involves the use of corpora and computer programs combined with a new approach. In DDL, the learners are not taught explicit rules, but read corpora to recognize patterns among a lot of examples which are given to them; consequently it is like natural approach to language learning (Gaskell & Cobb, 2004p. 304; Scott & Tribble, 2006, p. 6; Boulton, 2009).

XI. Inadequate Investigations about DDL

Whenever a lot of investigations are done about the usefulness of a new method in the field of language teaching and learning, it is expected that many language teachers find it useful and efficient to be used in their classes. Unfortunately, because of inadequate investigations about the efficiency of DDL, many language teachers are unaware of its application. DDL has not become a major approach for learning languages in the world and this is why only few DDL

materials are found to be used by teachers in language classes (Boulton, 2008b). More investigations about the efficiency of this approach can lead to its introduction to the world of academic language teaching in the coming years.

XII. Conclusion

DDL is a student-centered method in which natural instances of language produced by the native speakers are gathered and presented to the learners for the purpose of improving language proficiency. DDL exercises can be used to learn new items of vocabulary, grammatical points, collocations, parts of speech, etc. As DDL exercises are extracted from linguistic corpora, some believe that this technique is more useful for the learners at advanced levels, so that they can cope with samples of natural language which have not been simplified. The familiarity of language teachers and learners with DDL can give them the opportunity of exerting this technique to increase learner autonomy. This emphasis on the role of the learners can make language learning more exciting for them since they are active during the process of learning and should discover language rules, word meanings, etc. by themselves.

References

[1] Ball, C. N. (1996). Tutorial notes: Concordances and corpora. Retrieved March 24, 2003 from http://www.georgetown.edu/cball/corpora/tutorial.html.

[2] Barlow, Michael. (1996). Corpora for Theory and Practice. In: *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 1(1), 1-37.

[3] Bastone, R. (1995). Product and process: Grammar in the second language classroom. In M. Bygate, A. Tonkyn, and E. Williams, (Eds.), *Grammar and the language teacher*. (Pp. 224- 236). London: Prentice Hall.

[4] Bernardini, S. (2001). Spoilt for choice: A learner explores general language corpora. In G. Aston (Ed.), *Learning with corpora* (pp. 220-249). Houston: Athelstan.

[5] Bernardini, S. (2002). Exploring new directions for discovery learning. In B. Kettemann &G. Marko (Eds.), *Teaching and learning by doing corpus analysis* (pp.165-182). Amsterdam, NewYork: Rodopi.

[6] Boulton, A (2008a). But Where's the Proof? The Need for Empirical Evidence for Data-Driven Learning. In M. Edwardes (ed.) *Proceedings of the BAAL Annual Conference 2007*. London: Scitsiugnil Press, 13-16.

[7] Boulton, A (2009b). Testing the Limits of Data-Driven Learning: Language Proficiency and Training. *ReCALL*. 21/1, 37-54.

[8] Boulton, A. (2010). Data-driven learning: on paper, in practice. In T. Harris & M. Moreno Jaen (eds.) *Corpus linguistics in language teaching.* Bern: Peter Lang, p. 17-52. [pre-publication version]

[9] Braun, S. (2007). Integrating corpus work into secondary education: from data-driven learning to needs-driven corpora. *ReCALL*, 19(3): 307-328.

[10] Cobb, T. (1997). Is there any measurable learning from hands-on concordancing? *System*, 25(3),301-315.

[11] Dyck, G. N. (1999). Concordancing for English teachers. Paper presented at TESL Manitoba, Canada. Retrieved March 21, 2003 from http://home.cc.umanitoba.ca/~gdyck/conc.html

[12] Fox, G. (1998). Using corpus data in the classroom. In Tomlinson, B. (ed.) (1998) *Materials Development in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 25-43

[13] Frankenberg-Garcia, A. (2005a). A peek into what today's language learners as researchers actually do. *International journal of lexicography, 1*8(3), 335-355.

[14] Fligelstone, S. (1993). Some reflections on the question of teaching, from a corpus linguistics perspective. *ICAME Journal* 17, 97-109.

[15] Gaskell, D., & Cobb, T. (2004). Can learners use concordance feedback for writing errors? *System*, 32(3), 301-319.

[16] Hadley, G. (1997). A survey of cultural influence in Japanese ELT. *Buletin of Keiwa College* 6: 61-87.

[17] Hadley, G. (2002). Sensing the winds of change: An introduction to data-driven learning. *RELC journal*, 33(2), 99-124.

[18] Johns, T (1986). Micro-Concord: A Language Learner's Research Tool. *System*. 14/2, 151-162.

[19] Johns, T. (1988). Whence and Whither Classroom Concordancing? In P. Bongearts/ P. de Hann/ S. Lobbe/ H. Wekker (eds) *Computer applications in language learning*. Dordrecht: Foris, 9-27.

[20] Johns, T (1997), Contexts: The Background, Development and Trialling of a Concordance-based CALL Program. In: Wichmann et al. 1997, 100 115.

[21] Johns, T. (2002). Data-driven learning: The perpetual challenge. In B. Kettemann & G. Marko (Eds.), *Teaching and learning by doing corpus analysis* (pp. 107-117).

[22] Kettemann, B. (1995). On the use of concordancing in ELT. *TELL&CALL* 4: 4-15.

[23] Lee, C. Y., & Liou, H. C. (2003). A study of using web concordancing for English vocabulary learning in a Taiwanese high school context. *English teaching and learning*, 27(3), 35-56.

[24] Leech, G. (1997). Teaching and language corpora: A convergence. In A. Wichmann, S.Fligelstone, T. McEnery, & G. Knowles (Eds.), *Teaching and language corpora* (pp. 1-23). London: Longman.

[25] Meyer, C.F. (2009). In the profession: The "empirical tradition" in linguistics. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 37, 208-213.

[26] Reber, A. S. (1989). Implicit learning and tactic knowledge. *Journal of experimental psychology: General*, 118, 219-35.

[27] Rizzo, C. R. (2010). Getting on with corpus compilation: From theory to practice. *ESP World.* Issue 1 (27), Vol 9. pp. 1-23.

[28] Robinson, P. (1997). Generalizibility and automaticity of second language learning under implicit, incidental, enhanced, and instructed conditions. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 19, 223-47.

[29] Rutherford, W. & Smith, M. (1988). (Eds.) Grammar and Second Language Teacher: A Book of Readings. In Sinclair, John (ed.), 1987, *Looking Up: An account of the COBUILD project* (pp. 107- 116). Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

[30] Scott, M., & Tribble, C. (2006). Textual patterns: Key words and corpus analysis in language education. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

[31] Sinclair, J (2004). How to use corpora in language teaching. Amesterda: John Bejamins.

[32] Sealey, A. & Thompson, P. (2007) Corpus, concordance, classification: young learners in the L1 classroom. *Language awareness*, 16(3): 208-216.
[33] Stevens, V. (1995) Concordancing with language learners: Why? When? What? *CAELL Journal* vol. 6 no. 2 pp. 2-10.
[34] Sun, Y-C. (2003). Learning process, strategies and Web-based concordancers: A case-study. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 34(5), 601-613.
[35] Tribble, C. & Jones, G. (1990). Concordances in the classroom: A resource book for teachers. Essex, U.K.: Longman.
[36] Tribble, C. (1996). Concordances in the classroom. London: Longman.
[37] Tribble, C. (1997). Improvising corpora for ELT: Quick and dirty ways of developing corpora for language teaching. Available at: http://web.bham.ac.uk/johnstf/palc.htm.
[38] Tribble, C. & Jones, G. (1990). Concordances in the classroom: A resource book for teachers. Essex, U.K.: Longman.
[39] Tribble, C. (1997). Improvising corpora for ELT: Quick and dirty ways of developing corpora for language teaching. Available at: http://web.bham.ac.uk/johnstf/palc.htm.
[40] Watson Todd, R. (2001). Building and using your own corpus and concordance. *ThaiTESOL buletin* vol. 14 no. 2 pp.1-9.
[41] Wichmann, A. (1995). Using concordances for the teaching of modern languages in higher education. *Language Learning Journal* no. 11 pp. 61-63.
[42] Woolard, G. (2000). Collocation - encouraging learner independence. In Lewis, M. (ed.) (2000) *Teaching Collocation: Further Developments in the Lexical Approach*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications. pp. 28-46.

Touraj Talai received his M.A. in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch. His areas of interest are Applied Linguistics, Psycholoinguistics and Phonetics.

Zahra Fotovatnia has a PhD. In TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch. She is an assistant professor at the English department of Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch. She has presented and published papers in international conferences and journals.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1532-1535, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1532-1535

On the Depiction of Characters of "Drinking in the Passage" with Adaptation Theory

Xiaohui Wang
Foreign Languages Dept, Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautical Industry Management, Henan, 450015, China
Email: wangafrica@126.com

***Abstract*—"Drinking in the Passage" is a text for sophomore of English – majors. In teaching this text, students should be taught not only the new words and language points, but also how to appreciate the text from a linguistic angle. Verschueren's Adaptation Theory which is praised highly in the field of pragmatics. This paper discusses the psychological process of characters in "Drinking in the Passage" including the application of this theory, which contains adaptation of context and of structure; features of adaptation, which refers to the dynamics and consciousness of adaptation. All this indicates that the language that adapts to the context is appropriate and adequate, and it can reflect the inner world of characters.**

***Index Terms*—adaptation theory, context, dynamics, consciousness**

I. Introduction

Everybody is a social animal who needs to deal with others. The most common form to do this is language, so how to speak out suitable language is quite necessary. Verschueren (2000) points out that language has such features as variability, negotiability and adaptability: "Adaptability is the property of language which enables human beings to make negotiable linguistic choices from a variable range of possibilities in such a way as to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs." (Verschueren, p.61). Adaptation Theory offers us a new viewpoint in language study. In communication, the speaker makes his language choice based on these features, and then speaks out adequately while the listener has to understand the speaker's utterance on the basis of the adaptation so as to make their talk effective. Normally, Adaptation Theory is often used in translation, such as, Ge Lingling (2001/2002), Wang Jianguo (2005), there are also some research on pragmatics as Ran Yongping, Yang Wei (2011), He Ziran, Jiang Xiaohong (2010), but the application of Adaptation Theory in literature appreciation is seldom seen.

"A Drink in the Passage" is a short story by a South Africa writer named Alan Paton. The story appears in "Contemporary College English" (Intensive Reading Book 4) which describes what has happened after a black young man wins a prize in 19th century in South Africa under White Racism. Through the conversation between a white young man Van Rensburg and a black young man Simelane and, we can see that the Adaptation Theory plays an important role in social conversation and it aids us to know more about the characters and their inner world. In analyzing the text, teachers have to make students learn not only the background and language points in the text, but also try to appreciate the text from a linguistic point of view. Normally, both students and teachers have such concept that to learn a text in Intensive Reading is to keep the new words by heart, and make clear language points, being able to sum up the main idea of the text and do the exercises etc. seldom students can be taught how to enjoy the description of psychology of the characters and what psychological process the characters have experienced and why they have such a change. This indicates that the teaching of this course is still something fundamental, not on a higher level.

Students just are aware the basic elements of this course, without any idea how to improve their abilities in learning such texts. In my point of view, they should be made clear that as English majors, they ought to learn more advanced knowledge about a text, otherwise how they can tell themselves apart from non-English-majors, that is, they should be able to combine some linguistic theories with practice, to understand and appreciate the text in a linguistic view, to know better about the characters and their speech and behavior. Next, the application of linguistic theory --- Adaptation Theory in the text "Drinking in the Passage" will be talked about.

II. Application of Adaptation Theory in the Story

In the analysis of the text, we can apply Adaptation Theory to it to show the psychological process of the characters. The white man in the text appears very active and eager to talk to the black while the black man always seems passive and reluctant, certainly this is inseparable from the background of the text. At that time, South Africa was under the rule of the White, there were serious racial discrimination and racial segregation, the Black were of no social status, they were the oppressed and the exploited. They had to endure the inequality and unfairness between the white and the black. They could not get what they deserved. As can be seen from the story, the black man named Simelane could not even admit he was the prizewinner of the contest. All the time, he was reluctant to answer the questions and very cautious when he was invited to have a drink by the white. What's in their mind? What determines their conduct? It is the adaptation to the context in order to meet the communicative needs and satisfaction of both sides that counts. From the

viewpoint of this linguistic theory, all this can be explained.

A. Adaptation of Context

The application of Adaptation Theory lies in actual language use. Only in this case can we know that whether the language adapts to the context and suitable and adequate. Let us take "A Drink in the Passage" for example. A black young man's sculpture "African Mother and Child" won a prize, which attracted the attention of a white young man named Van Rensburg. He invited the black to his home to have a drink without knowing the black was the prizewinner. The black got compliment from the white but the white man didn't invite him to have a drink in his flat, but drink in the passage.

In the text, when the black man Simelane got the first prize, he should have gone to get this award personally, but he did not. He said to others "I wasn't feeling up to it. My parents and my wife's parents, and our priests, decided that I wasn't feeling up to it. And finally I decided so too. Of course Majosi and Sola and the others wanted me to go and get the prize personally, but I said, 'boys, I'm a sculptor, not a demonstrator." This confession indicates that Simelane did not go to get his award is to adapt to the environment. In the social and political atmosphere in South Africa at that time, if he goes personally, he might encounter some unexpected accident. Because there has long been such a tradition that the black are just inferior, they can not get involved in such fine arts as sculpture, and even if they do, it should not be them to get the first prize. Now this happens out of control, the white will not let it go smoothly, most probably they will do something to harm the prizewinner. So Simelane decides that he will not go to get the honour. What he says just demonstrates his thought. He does not want to irritate the white by going to the spot to get his award. So this is so miserable and unfair to the black, but what can they do except this? He does not want to risk his life because of this.

Another example in the story is when Van Rensburg asks Simelane if he knows the prize winner, the black denies. Actually he himself is the prizewinner. Then why he does not admit it ? Anyhow this is something honorable. From the Adaptation Theory, we can see that at that time in South Africa, there was serious racial discrimination and racial segregation, in which the black were looked down upon by the white, they were inferior to the white. The black had to adapt to the situation to hide himself in case this may get him into trouble. He did not even go to the place to get the award for the same reason.

On their way to the white man's home, there is a dialogue between the two, in which it is always the white who asks questions but the black "unwillingly" replies briefly. "Then he (Van Rensburg) said to me: 'Are you educated?', I said unwillingly, 'Yes'. He asked: 'Far?' and again unwillingly: 'Far'. He took a big leap: 'Degree?' 'Yes.' 'Literature?' 'Yes'. From the conversation we can see that Simelane is so cautious and reluctant to answer the questions by the white, he simply replies with one word. Take the context into consideration, the black's action can be comprehended. As the black was inferior, he has to answer the questions by the white in case his silence may offend Van Rensburg, but he was unwilling to do so, from this the depression and reluctance of the black can be felt.

Another example occurs below on their way to the white man's home. This indicates his awkward condition and the oppressed state. In his inner heart he does not want to deal with the white man but in that circumstances, he has to. So he is quite passive in the communication. However, to adapt to the context, he has to respond to the white man's questions. Students should be taught to analyze the text like this. Up to this level, they ought to have a clear idea that to read a story between the lines, not just the literal meaning is vital, its implied meaning is more important, and also students should be taught to understand why the characters are very careful in their choice of words.

There is one more example to illustrate this. Owing to the long-term racial segregation, there is little mutual understanding between them. When Van Rensburg introduced the black to other whites, he simply says "He's BA". Why does he introduce Simelane that way? Because in that context, among the other white people, his BA degree can signify that he is a well-educated black, so other white men will not feel annoyed or disgraced to speak to him. Otherwise if he is an illiterate black, maybe he will ask for trouble. To adapt to the context, Van Rensburg chooses to introduce the black man this way. All this indicates that the characters in the text are aware the adaptation of context, utterances should change according to the change of the context and the speaker has to make the right choice in language in differing cases.

B. Adaptation of Structure

The adaptation of structure means to fit the context, the speaker makes suitable choice in language code, tone, style and intonation etc. in order to make communications go smoothly and effectively. Language choice has to be made in accordance with specific cultural background and language style, but the communicative effect may not be fit. In fact, if we are so critical about language use, the conversation can be interrupted often, hence we have to choose appropriate way to express ourselves. Let's get some examples to illustrate. When the white man meets a black man by chance at the site of the sculpture exhibition, Van Rensburg asks Simelane "What do you think of that, mate?" At that time, the black were not normally called "mate" because of racial discrimination, they were often despised and called mean names. The white man does this just indicates that he does want to speak to the black, he chooses the relatively equal word "mate". When the white man invited the black to have a drink, he said "Mate, would you like a drink?" not only he uses the word "mate", he also takes a very polite form to say "would you…?" He made such choice in the structure to get the satisfaction of the black who may love to accept his invitation. He implies that he truly wants Simelane to accept the invitation. This change in style expresses the speaker's will to make successful communication. We can

imagine, while speaking, the white man must do this in a friendly intonation. It can not be demanding, as in his heart, he wants to exchange opinions with the black about the sculpture, so Such a friendly request is hard to refuse. So Simelane goes with him to his flat to have a drink. Teachers should be required to teach students enjoy such changes in style and understand the charm of the language and the psychological state of the characters. It is not that only the black who have to be polite in their dealing with the white; for the goal of communication, the white man can also have to change their style and intonation according to the context.

Another example is that when Simelane was offered a plate of biscuits by a middle-aged white lady, he was about to show his thanks. But how to express his gratitude ? He experienced such a process "… but not for all the money in the world could I have said to her *dankie*, *my nooi* (Thank you, miss) or that disgusting *dankie*, misses, nor did I want to speak to her in English because her language was Afrikaans, so I took the risk of it and used the word *mevrou(madam)*, …I said, in high Afrikaans, with a smile and a bow too, "*Ek is a dankbaar, Mevrou*.(Thank you very much, madam)". Why did he make such efforts to choose the right expression to express his thanks? Because he wants to make his utterance polite and match his identity, he is a BA, and more importantly his words suits the context. The listener is a middle-aged lady, it will sound ridiculous to greet her as "miss", she speaks Afrikaan, so instead of speaking English, he uses the very formal Afrikaans to show his gratitude, which pitches in with the situation. The style of the language changes in accordance with the context so as to show respect to the listener and appropriately maintain the speaker's status. As can be seen, in the choice of words, and the changing psychological process, the depiction of the character are well achieved, a refined and cultivated black figure stands up in front of the readers.

III. Features of Adaptation

In this part, features of adaptation will be talked about. Adaptation has it own features, including dynamics and consciousness. For dynamics, it means everything is changing, adaptation has to follow suit as well. Why? Because the context changes, so does adaptation. As the conversation goes on, both sides are changing their style and manners constantly, they have to make necessary adaptation to meet the needs of it and also they have to think about how to go on with the conversation successfully. As for consciousness of both sides, it refers to the fact that how much awareness both sides have to adapt to the context. If they have a low degree of consciousness of adaptation, they do not know how to make right choice of words and change their style or intonation or tone etc. to make the other side satisfied, and vice versa.

A. Dynamics of Adaptation

Verschueren (2000) points out that in communication, in order to make the conversation successful, one has to make careful choice of words to suit the context. But the adaptation is not stable, it changes all the time, so the language has to follow suit. The listener has to be taken into consideration in the course of adaptation. As the conversation goes on among people, all the spheres concerning the participants have to be involved in terms of the social relationships, such as the background, social status, work, closeness to the listener etc. the speaker's psychological state also changes, so does the adaptation.

When Simelane was invited to have a drink in the white man's flat, he was arranged to drink in the passage instead of the room. This was beyond his expectation and it was unbearable. He describes his emotions then "Now I certainly had not expected that I would have my drink in the passage. …Anger could have saved me from the whole embarrassing situation, but you know I can't easily be angry. Even if I could have been, I might have found it hard to be angry with this particular man. But I wanted to get away from there, and I couldn't." In that case, he was very cross in his heart, he wants to defend himself for his indignation, but he can't. Why is that? He is black. And the black can not offend the white in any circumstances at that time in South Africa, even if he is a well-educated black. So he hides his anger inside and shows his courtesy outside. This is a case in point to support the dynamics of adaptation.

In the passage, when Van Rensburg goes to fetch brandy, a white woman is talking to Simelane, "She looked back at the room, and then she dropped her voice a little, and said to me, 'Can't you see, it's somehow because it's a black woman and a black child?' Normally at that place at that time, a white does not have to speak in a low voice, they are the ruling class, but she does so, just because she is talking to a black man and she is talking of a sculpture of a black mother and her child, she has to drop her voice a little. She's doing this to fit the context, otherwise it may get her into trouble. This also indicates that language is restricted by context. When in use, the speaker has to revise his words constantly and convert the style of his speech to attain the goal of successful communication.

When he meets Simelane in front of the sculpture, Van Rensburg says "I come and look at it nearly every night. It's beautiful. Look at that mother's head. She's loving that child, but she's somehow watching, too … mate, would you like a drink?" When they are talking about the sculpture, he suddenly changes the topic and this seems strange due to racial segregation. The white may never invite a black to do something together. This illustrates the dynamic of adaptation: Simelane is a black, and the sculpture is done by a black, so Van Rensburg wants to share his feelings with Simelane about the sculpture, as we can see that he truly shows his sympathy for the black and appreciation of the sculpture. Therefore, he switches the topic from sculpture to a drink. In a word, we can tell students that in conversation people can always change the subject from time to time just indicates the dynamics of adaptation works.

B. Consciousness Degree of Adaptation

Verschueren (2000) admits that in speech there always exists subject consciousness. "Consciousness always plays a role" (Verschueren, p.173). The development of human cognition goes from primitive to higher level gradually. From the viewpoint of human cognition, nothing is absolute, everything is changing. Language is a complicated system and human society is a more complex one, both sides of a conversation are people with ideas and wills and emotions. The production of a meaning is the mutual process of utterance and context. To make a choice of words is to adapt to the context. Choice is the means, and adaptation is the goal.

Take the dialogue in the text for example. When he was invited to have a drink by Van Rensburg, Simelane makes such description: "By this time he had started off, and I was following, but not willingly. We didn't exactly walk abreast, but he didn't exactly walk in front of me. He didn't look constrained. He wasn't looking round to see if anyone might be watching." As can be seen, the black was not willing to accept the arrangement of the white man. Because of the long-term racial discrimination and racial segregation in South Africa, the indifference and unfriendliness makes the black on guard against the white, the black are always in the inferior position, which let them speak or do things cautiously, and they are esp. worried when they deal with the white. On the contrary, the white are so different from them as they are the ruling class, and they can do whatever they like. Hence, they do things more freely than the black, which is understandable.

As a matter of fact, take the novel as a whole, we can feel that the white are always the dominant. As it can be imagined that usually in South Africa at that time, the white enjoy the privilege, they treat the black with superiority. The white man, Van Rensburg treats Simelane kindly, mostly it is that he has the strong will to share his ideas with Simelane, which is to adapt to the environment. However, the black is the party that is often despised, so Simelane has a strong sense to protect himself. Most of the time, he keeps silent or gives a brief answer when asked. This inequality in conversation demonstrate that Simelane is very clear about his case, so he even doesn't tell Van Rensburg his true name. He knows how to adjust to the situation he is in. This can account for his caution and passivity. At the end of the story, when the white man drove the black to the railway station, Van Rensburg is frustrated "He sat slumped in his seat, like a man with a burden of incomprehensible and insoluble grief." Even if he is not satisfied with the black man, but he is not mad at the black man. He is aware that it is not Simelane's fault. It is the system that makes them separated. When he was on the train back to his home, Simelane reflects that "… he was like a man trying to run a race in iron shoes, and not understanding why he cannot move." From the analysis, the characters in the novel are aware of the adaptation, they know in certain circumstance, how to adjust their own language, gesture and tone etc. to fit the context. Students can learn about the positive white man and the passive oppressed black man and their characters.

To appreciate the novel from the viewpoint of Adaptation Theory is a new angle diffing from others and it also helps students to get an idea of some linguistic theories. Actually these theories are practical and easy. Normally, students think linguistic theories are hard to understand and useless, they always take a repellent attitude towards it.

From the novel, we can teach students that the accurate choice of words and the right manner and help students to understand the characters better. Because the context is changing, so is the language. Both sides of a conversation should learn to adjust the strategies of speaking in order to make oneself choose the correct form of language to adapt to the context to be understood better. In this way can both sides have a smooth and enjoyable conversation.

Note: all the examples are taken from the textbook "Contemporary College English (Book 4)"

REFERENCES

[1] Corder, S. P. (1973). Introducing Applied Linguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
[2] Mey, J. (1993). Pragmatics: An Introduction. Oxford: Blackwell.
[3] Verschueren J. (2000). Understanding Pragmatics. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[4] Ge Lingling. (2001). Restrictions on the choice of words by Adaptation Theory. *China Translation of Science and Technology, 4*, 28-30.
[5] Ge Lingling. (2002). The Inspiration of Adaptation Theory to Translation. *Journal of Foreign Languages,3*, 8-12.
[6] He Ziran, Jiang Xiaohong. (2010). Context restrictions on the recognition of metonymy words. *Journal of Foreign Languages Teaching and Research,6*,13-19.
[7] Hu Wenzhong, Gao Yihong. (1997). Foreign Language Teaching and Culture. Changsha: Hunan Education Press.
[8] Hu Wenzhong. (1998). On Cross-Cultural Communications. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[9] Ran Yongping, Yang Wei. (2011). Pragmatic Analysis on Intentionally offending utterances in interpersonal conflict. *Journal of Foreign Languages, 3*, 51-57.
[10] Wang Jianguo.(2005). Translation Strategies and Methods in the viewpoint of Linguistic Adaptation. *Journal of Foreign Languages Studies, 4*, 57-61.
[11] Wang Yin. (2001). Semantic Theory and Language Teaching. Shanghai: Foreign Language Education Press.
[12] Yang Limin. (2003). Contemporary College English (Book 4). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Xiaohui Wang was born in Zhumadian city, Henan province, China in 1963. She received her BA degree in English Language and Literature from Henan University, China in 1985.

She is currently a professor in Foreign Languages Department, Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautical Industry Management, China. Her research interests include pragmatics and cross-cultural communications.

Prof. Wang is a member of China Pragmatics Association and China Association for Comparative Studies of English and Chinese.

ISSN 1799-2591
Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 7, pp. 1536-1543, July 2012

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.7.1536-1543

On Type: The So-called Causativization in Persian

Arsalan Golfam
Dept. of Language and Linguistics, University of Tarbiat Modares, Tehran, Iran
Email: golfamar@modares.ac.ir

Masoud Dehghan
Dept. of Language and Linguistics, University of Tarbiat Modares, Tehran, Iran
Email: masoud.dehghan@modares.ac.ir

***Abstract*—The present study mainly aims to indicate a general classification of causative construction in modern Persian. In this context, transitive and inchoative structures are also analyzed in modern Persian. In this paper, three causative Persian constructions are identified based on Comrie's classification on causative construction. And also different morphological and syntactic strategies of causativizing in passive construction are analyzed. In general, the term causative (henceforth CAUS) describes that which yields a consequence or an effect. On the other hand, the term causation refers to the relationship between a cause and an effect; logically, a cause must exist in order for an effect to take place. In the description of a natural language, causative normally selects a verb or verbal affix that describes causation.**

***Index Terms*—causative, transitive, inchoative, Persian**

I. Introduction

In language typology, a causative (henceforth CAUS) is a form indicating that a subject causes someone or something else to do or be something, or causes a change in state of a non-volitional event. All languages have ways to express causation, but differ in the means. Some languages have morphological devices; such as inflection, for instance in Persian; xordan "to eat" → xorândan "to cause / make to eat" that change verbs into their causative forms, or adjectives into verbs of *becoming*. Other languages employ periphrasis, with idiomatic expressions or auxiliary verbs. All languages also have lexical causative forms (such as Persian *oftâdan "to fall"* → *andâxtan "to cause / make to fall")*.

An inchoative/causative verb pair is defined semantically: It is a pair of verbs which express the same basic situation (generally a change of state) and differ only in that the causative verb meaning includes an agent participants who causes the situation, where as the inchoative verb meaning excludes a causing agent and presents the situation as occurring spontaneously (Haspelmath, 1993, p. 90).

Shibatani (2001) lists three criteria for entities and relations that must be encoded in linguistic expressions of causation:

1. An agent causing or forcing another participant to perform an action, or to be in a certain condition.
2. The relation between the two events [the causing event, and the caused performing/being event] is such that the speaker believes that the occurrence of one event, the "caused event," has been realized at t2, which is after t1, the time of the "causing event"
3. The relation between causing event and caused event is such that the speaker believes the occurrence of the caused event depends wholly on the occurrence of the causing event- the dependency of the two events here must be to the extent that it allows the speaker a counterfactual inference that the caused event would not have taken place at a particular time if the causing event had not taken place, provided that all else had remained the same. (1976a, pp. 1-2)

This set of definitional prerequisites allows for a broad set of types of relationships based, at least, on the lexical verb, the semantics of the causer, the semantics of the causee and the semantics of the construction explicitly encoding the causal relationship. Many analysts Comrie (1981), Dixon (2000) and others have worked to tease apart what fagents semantic or otherwise account for the distribution of causative constructions, as well as to document what patterns actually occur cross-linguistically.

II. Significance of the Study

The present study attempts to provide a comprehensive theoretical background to the study of causative constructions. The aim of this paper is to describe the causative structure (henceforth CAUS) with the survey of data in Persian language**.** Thus, based on the Persian Causative Structure, the main purposes of this study are to indicate a general classification of causative constructions in modern Persian**.** And Causative construction can be classified into three groups; the first one is *Morphological* causatives which are made by adding the suffix *'ân(i)dan*' to the present stem; for

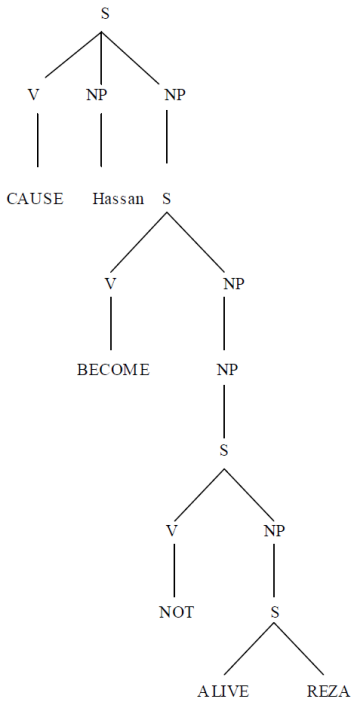
example, the causative form of 'šekastan' "to break" becomes 'šek ândan' / 'šek ânidan'. The second one is *Lexical* causatives, and the third one is *analytic* causatives. In § V below, this paper provides an analytic framework for analyzing this issue.

III. Theoretical Considerations

In the context of causativization, we present a general classification of causative construction in modern Persian, based on Comrie's classification on causative construction. The types of causative structures are different from each other from semantic valency perspective. Of course, this difference is shown in their syntactic structure. In general, the term causativization refers to the contrast among causative, non-causative, and inchoative verbs.

The paper made by Lakoff (1965) and MacCawley (1968) which a causative verb like "kill" is derived from a complex semantic structure that contains an abstract verb "cause" has put out many disputes. For instance, MacCawley Madeleine a structure like (b) for deriving sentence (a) below:

a. Reza mord.
   Reza_{NOM} die - PAST.
b. Hassan Reza râ košt.
   $\text{Hassan}_{\text{NOM}}$ Reza_{ACC} Kill – PAST
   Hassan killed Reza.



The capitalized CAUSE, BECOME, NOT, and ALIVE represent abstract semantic material underlying the lexical items like 'cause', 'become', 'not', and 'alive' (Patterson, 1974).

A. Fillmore

Fillmore (1971) defined causativization as a consequence relation between two events; the occurrence one event is a causing event if it has the occurrence of another event as its consequence. So the following sentence is analyzed as two events:

a. Hassan wrote a letter to his old friend who was living abroad.

In the analysis of the above sentence, there are two following events:

1a. CAUSING EVENT: his writing a letter.

2a. RESULTING EVENT: a letter sending to his friend.

The events (clauses) are embedded in a higher predicate that has a meaning suggested by the word 'cause', predicating the event – causative relation between the two clauses (Fillmore, 1971, p. 46). A sentence like "John killed the rat" is analyzed by Fillmore as "John's action caused the rat to die"; with John's doing something as one event and the rat's dying as another (p.50). This view is shared McCawley (1972, p. 140) who stated that a notion of causativization ' is a relation between an action or event or event and event but not between a person and an event.

B. Comrie

Comrie (1981, pp. 158-177) focuses on the typology of the syntax and semantics of causative constructions proper. Crucially, Comrie (and others to be discussed here) distinguish between the linguistic encoding of causal relations and other, extra-linguistic concerns, such as the nature of causation itself, and questions of how humans perceive of causal relations. While certainly not irrelevant, these extra-linguistic questions will, for now, be left aside. Comrie usefully characterizes causative events in terms of two (or more) micro events perceived of composing a macro event, and encoded in a single expression (of varying size and form). Formally, he categorizes causatives into three types, depending on the contiguity of the material encoding the causing event and that encoding the caused event. They are:

1) Lexical causatives, in which the two events are expressed in a single lexical item, as in the well-discussed case of English kill.

2) Morphological causatives, in which the causing event and the caused event are encoded in a single verbal complex via causative morphology, and, prototypically, morphological marking showing the status of affected arguments.

3) Finally, Comrie discusses analytic causatives, in which the causing event and the caused event are encoded in separate clauses.

Comrie's work is also noteworthy for having brought the notion of syntactic hierarchy to bear on the typology of causative constructions. A hierarchy of grammatical relations had already been formulated to help explain possibilities for relative clause formation (first presented as Keenan and Comrie's (1972) NP accessibility hierarchy; see Croft 1990, p. 147), and Comrie (1989) argued that a similar hierarchy was in play, at least in some constructions, in the marking of the original A argument when a base transitive clause is causativized. The hierarchy is as follows:

- subject > direct object > indirect object > oblique > genitive

Comrie's argument was, in short, that some causativized-transitive constructions mark the new A as belonging to the leftmost available slot in the above hierarchy. Dixon (2000) fleshes out a version this analysis in more detail.

C. Dixon

Dixon (2000), in his authoritative typology of causatives, discusses the syntax and semantics of all types of causative constructions, in much more detail than can be recounted here. One research question he begins to tackle is the following: Many languages, as he and many others have documented and attempted to categorize, have at least two causative constructions. Leaving aside for now the issue of lexical causatives (except where zero-derivation has been demonstrated to be a productive morphological process), these are often broadly divided into "more compact" and "less compact", with labels, differing by analyst, indicative of relative length of the forms in question (e.g., Comrie's straightforward "morphological"/"syntactic", or Song's (1996) "COMPACT"/"AND"). Earlier works had attempted to summarize the semantic differences under the vague (though preliminarily useful) rubric of the "Iconicity Principle", which basically posits a correlation between the degree of formal compactness of the linguistic material encoding the causative macroevent and the perceived directness of the relationship between causing event ([Vcause]) and caused event ([V-effect]): i.e., shorter forms, on the whole, were posited to encode more direct causation than longer forms, as in the classic English *I killed him*. [direct causation] vs. *I caused him to die*. [less direct causation] examples.

The Iconicity Principle is a good first step, but does not really explain any fine-grained semantic distinctions that may be in play. The first attempt to take the analysis further, to my knowledge, was Comrie's (1981, pp.164-7) discussion of directness and control, which began looking at the semantics of the causer and causee as possible semantic fagents influencing the distribution of different causative constructions.

D. Talmy

Talmy (2003 v.2, pp. 67-101) contains an in-depth investigation of different types of causal relations. Talmy refers to these as "lexicalization patterns," a term which remains unclear to me, given that few of the examples given in his discussion are lexical items, and most interpretations of "different types of causation incorporated in the verb root" are in fact wholly dependent on other morphosyntactic material in the clause. Let us first examine his list of possible (semantic) causative types (Talmy, 2003, pp. 69-70), with examples:

- autonomous events (non-causative): šiše šekast *"The window broke"*.
- resulting-event causation: šiše az barxord-e toop b â ân šekast. "*The window broke from a ball's rolling into it"*.
- causing-event causation: barxord-e toop b â šiše ân r â šekast. "*A ball's rolling into it broke the window"*.
- instrument causation: toop šiše r â šekast. "*A ball broke the window"*.
- author causation (unintended): man âz barxord-e toop be šiše ân r â šekastam. *I broke the window in rolling a ball into it"*.
- agent causation (intended): man b â zadan-e toop be šiše ân r â šekastam. "*I broke the window by rolling a ball into it"*.
- undergoer situation (non-causative): zam âni ke oft âdam dastam šekast. "*My arm broke when I fell"*.
- self-agentive causation: man t â p ârk pej âde raftam. "*I walked to the park"*.
- caused agency (inductive causation): man ?u: r â be d ânešg âh ferst âdam. "*I sent him to University"*.

IV. Causativization and Passivization in Persian

In Persian we can make passive verbs by adding the suffix /-e/ as a participle marker to the verb stem after the auxiliary verb 'šodan' "to become" (Windfuhr 1979, p. 105). The agent can be expressed with a by-phrase *be-vasile-je* in the passive clause. However, in Persian, the agent usually remains unexpressed, as illustrated in the examples below.

(1)

a. *Hassan nâme -râ neveš -t.*
Hassan$_{NOM}$ letter -ACC write –PAST -3SG.
Hassan wrote the letter.

b. nâme (be- vasil-je Hassan) neveš -t -e šo -d
letter$_{NOM}$ by Hassan write -PAST PRT become –Past-3SG
The letter was written (by Hassan).

However, in these sentences, the agent can be expressed by the compound preposition *be-vâsile-ye* 'by'.

Causativizing the Passive Construction

When expreesing about causativizing the passive construction, we can express the different morphological and syntactic strategies in modern Persian language as you consider in the examples below.

(2)

a. Hassan matlab -râ fahmi -d
Hassan$_{NOM}$ topic -ACC understand -PAST- 3SG
Hassan understood the topic.

b. man bâ?es šodam ke Hassan matlab -râ be- fahm -ad
1SG$_{NOM}$ cause COMP Hassan$_{NOM}$ topic -ACC INFL- understand -PAST -3SG
I caused Hassan to understand the topic.

(3)

a. matlab fahm -id -e šo -d
topic$_{NOM}$ understand -PAST -PRT become -PAST-3SG
The topic was understood.

b. man bâ?es šodam ke matlab fahm -id -e be- šav -ad
1SG$_{NOM}$ cause COMP topic$_{NOM}$ understand -PAST -PRT INFL- become -3SG
I caused the topic to be understood.

Another way is that the embedded passive clause in a syntactically causative construction in Persian language like the example below that can be causativized morphologically.

(4)

man bâ?es šodam ke matlab be- Hassan fahm -ân -d -e be- šav -ad
1SG$_{NOM}$ cause COMP topic$_{NOM}$ DAT- Hassan understand -CAUS -PAST -PRT INFL- become -3SG.
I caused someone to make the topic be understood by Hassan.

In modern Persian language, there is a morphological strategy of causativization where the causative suffix/- **ân/** is added to the verb stem to make a passivized form; i.e, the sentence is first causativized and then passivized, as illustrated in the example below.

(5)

a. Hassan matlab -râ fahm -id
Hassan$_{NOM}$ topic -ACC understand -PAST- 3SG
Hassan understood the topic.

b. man matlab -ra be- Hassan fahm -an -d -am
1SG$_{NOM}$ topic -ACC DAT- Hassan understand -CAUS -PAST -1SG
I made Hassan understand the topic.

c. matlab be Hassan fahm -an -d -e šo -d
topic$_{NOM}$ DAT- Hassan understand -CAUS -PAST -PRT become -PAST-3SG
Hassan was made to understand the topic.
(Lit. The topic was made to be understood by Hassan)

d. * matlab Hassan -ra fahm -an -d -e šo -d
topic$_{NOM}$ Hassan -ACC understand -CAUS -PAST -PRT become -PAST-3SG

At the above example (5), the declarative sentence in 5a is causativized in 5b, and then passivized, in 5c. In 5c, the agent remains in the DAT case after passivization, and cannot take place in the ACC case as shown by the ungrammaticality of 5d.

V. Data Analysis

In Persian, the causative member is marked and derived from the inchoative member. In the causative alternation, the inchoative verb is basic and the causative verb is derived (Haspelmath, 1993). The aim of this paper is to describe the causative construction (henceforth CAUS) with the survey of data in Persian language Causative construction can be classified into three groups; *morphological causatives, lexical causatives, and analytic causatives*.

Causative Constructions

1. Morphological Causatives

In Persian, causative form of the verb is made by adding â*n(i)dan* to the present stem. All V+ â*n(i)dan* combinations exhibit similar morphophonological properties, indicating the indivisible nature of the single phonological word constructed by – â*n(i)dan* affixation. Here the inchoative verb is base and the causative verb is derived like the examples below:

(6)

Galtidan *"roll"* (inchoative) → Galtândan *"to cause/make to roll"* (causative)
jošidan *"bubble"* (inchoative) → jošândan *"to cause/make to bubble"* (causative)
šekastan *"break"* (inchoative) → šekândan *"to cause/ make to break"* (causative)
tarsidan *"fear"* (inchoative) → tarsândan *"to cause/ make to fear"* (causative)
xoškidan *"dry"* (inchoative) → xoškândan *"to cause/ make to dry"* (causative)
daridan *"lacerate"* (inchoative) → drândan *"to cause/make to lacerate"* (causative)
terekidan *"burst"* (inchoative) → terekândan *"to cause/make to burst"* (causative)
xordan *"to eat"* (inchoative) → xorândan *"to cause/make to eat"* (causative)
xandidan *"to laugh"* (inchoative) → xandândan *"to cause/make to laugh"* (causative)
xâbidan "to sleep" (inchoative) → xâbândan " to cause/make to sleep" (causative)

In this case, consider the following sentences:

(7)

šiše šekas -t
window$_{NOM}$ break -PAST-3SG
The window broke [Inchoative]

Causative:

Hassan šiše -râ šek -ân -d
Hassan$_{NOM}$ window -ACC break -CAUS -PAST-3SG
Hassan broke the window [transitive]

man bâ?es šodam ke Hassan šiše -râ be- šek -ân -ad
1SG$_{NOM}$ cause COMP Hassan$_{NOM}$ window -ACC INFL- break -CAUS -PAST-3SG
I caused Hassan to break the window.

2. Lexical Causatives

Persian language is rich in semantically, like many languages, related to inchoative/causative pairs of verbs, with overt causativizing or inchoativizing morphology attached to a common root. On the other hand, some verbs have a lexical causative counterpart; they cannot be causativised by the causative suffix. This group of causatives can be classified into three groups; such as:

a) *Equative simple lexical causatives* like the examples below:

(8)

šekastan *"to break"* (inchoative) → šekastan *"to break"* (causative)
boridan *"to cut"* (inchoative) → boridan *"to cut"* (causative)
poxtan *"to cook"* (inchoative) → poxtan *"to cook"* (causative)
rixtan "to pour" (inchoative) → rixtan "to pour" (causative)
šekâftan "to " (inchoative) → šekâftan " " (causative)

In the following sentence, we can consider this case:

(9)

tanâb bor -id [inchoative]
The rope$_{NOM}$ cut -Past-3SG
The rope cut [inchoative]

Causative:

Hassan tanâb -râ bor -id
Ali$_{NOM}$ rope -ACC cut - Past-3SG
Ali cut the rope [causative]

b) *Non-equative simple lexical causatives* like the examples below:

(10)

?âmadan *"to come"* (inchoative) → ?âvardan *"to bring"* (causative)
raftan *"to go"* (inchoative) → bordan *"to take"* (causative)
?oftâdan *"to fall"* (inchoative) → ?andâxtan *" to make sb/sth to fall "* (causative)

barxâstan *"stood up"* (inchoative) → boland kardan *"stand"* (causative)

c) *Non-equative compound lexical causatives*. In modern Persian Language, there are a number of compound verbs formed from a noun or an adjective followed by an auxiliary verb, such as *'šodan'* "become", and *'kardan'* "do". Compound verbs with the auxiliary verb *'šodan'* are in the non-causative or inchoative form, and those with the auxiliary *'kardan'* are their corresponding causatives. Consider the given examples below.

(11)

sav âr šodan "to get on " (inchoative) → sav âr kardan "to make sb to get on"
garm šodan "to heat sth" (inchoative) → garm kardan "to make sb to heat something"
bid âr šodan "to wake up" (inchoative) → bid âr kardan "to make sb to wake up"
j âd gereftan "to learn" (inchoative) → j âd d âdan "to make sb to learn"
didan "to see sb/sth" (inchoative) → nešân d âdan "to make sb to see sb/sth"
ʔ âtaš gereftan "to fire" (inchoative) → ʔ âtaš zadan "to make sth to fire"
zamin xordan " to fall" (inchoative) → zamin zadan "to make sb to fall"
gul xordan " to cheat" (inchoative) → gul zadan "to make sb to cheat"

3. Analytic Causatives

In modern Persian, some verbs can be causativised syntactically, where the verb to be causativised takes place in a complement clause preceded by the compound verb *b âʔes šodan* "to cause". A causative form or phrase can be thought of as a valency-increasing voice operation, which adds one argument. If the original verb is intransitive, then the causative construction as a whole is transitive: *to fall → to make sb/sth fall, to topple sb/sth*. If the original verb is transitive, the causative is ditransitive: *to eat (sth.) → to make sb eat sth, to feed sth to sb*. Consider the examples below.

(12)

Hassan mive -r â xor -d
Hassan$_{NOM}$ fruit -ACC eat -PAST-3SG
Hassan ate the fruit.

Causative:

man b âʔes šodam ke Hassan mive - r â be- xor -ad
1SG$_{NOM}$ cause COMP Hassan$_{NOM}$ fruit - ACC INFI - eat -PAST-3SG
I caused Hassan to eat the fruit.

(13)

Hassan x âb - id
Hassn$_{NOM}$ sleep -PAST-3SG
Hassan slept.

Causative:

man b âʔes šodam ke Hassan be- x âb -ad
1SG$_{NOM}$ cause COMP Hassan$_{NOM}$ INFI- sleep -PAST-3SG
I caused Hassan to sleep

4. Causative Voice

The causative voice is a grammatical voice promoting the oblique argument of a transitive verb to an agent argument. When the causative voice is applied to a verb, its valency increases by one. If, after the application of the grammatical voice, there are two agent arguments, one of them is obligatorily demoted to an oblique argument. The Persian language is an example of languages with the causative voice as illustrated in the following examples:

(14)

Hassan ket âb h â - r â jam ʔ kar -d.
Hassan$_{NOM}$ book - ACC collect -PAST-3SG.
Hassan collected the books.

Causative:

be- Hassan ʔej âze d âde šod ke ket âb h â -r â jam ʔ Kond
DAT- Hassan let COMP book -ACC collect$_{CAUS.}$
Let's get Hassan to collect the books.

The Causer (here, *Hassan*) is the nominative-marked subject of the whole sentence. The logical subject of the root verb, referred to below as the causee, is marked with accusative or dative case (here, *'ket âb' "book"*, using the accusative variant).

(15)

bat ʃeh â ket âb h â - r â x ân -d -and
Children$_{NOM}$ book -ACC read -PAST-3PL
Children read the books.

Causative:

man b âʔes šodam ke bat ʃeh â ket âb h â - r â be- x ân -and

$1SG_{NOM}$ cause COMP children book -ACC INFL- read. –PAST-3PL
They cause children read the books.

VI. Conclusion

This paper looks at the different ways in Persian to express inchoative / causative verb alternations. The main aims of this paper are to show a general classification of causative constructions in modern Persian**.** In Persian language as we expressed, the different morphological and syntactic ways of causativization are surveyed where the morphological causatives occur as embedded clauses in the syntactic causative sentences. Also, there is an agent in causative verbs added to inchoative or non causative constructions. And also, non causative verbs have an agent which they have it in their meaning valency and it isn't the result of causativization. Finnaly this study shows that causative constructions can be classified into three groups; the first one is *Morphological* causatives which are made by adding the suffix *'ân(i)dan*' to the present stem; for example, the causative form of 'šekastan' "to break" becomes 'šek ândan' / 'šek ânidan'. The second one is *Lexical* causatives, and the third one is *analytic* causatives.

Appendix

The following abbreviations are used in the data presented in this paper:
ACC = accusative
PASS = passive
PAST = past tense
CAUS = causative
1SG = first person singular
3SG = third person singular
DAT = dative
NOM = nominative
INFI = infinitive
COMP = complementiser

References

[1] Comrie, B. (1981). "Language Universals and Linguistic Typology: Syntax and Morphology". p. 158-177. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[2] Croft, W. (2003). "Typology and Universals", 2nd ed. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[3] Dixon, R.M.W. and Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald. (2000). "Introduction". In *Changing Valency: Case Studies in Transitivity*", Dixon, R.M.W. and Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald, eds: 1-28. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[4] Dixon, R.M.W. (2000b). "A typology of causatives: form, syntax and meaning". In Changing Valency: *Case Studies in Transitivity*, Dixon, R.M.W. and Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald, eds.: 30-83. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[5] Fillmore, C.J. (1971). "Types of Lexical information". Working papers in Linguistics, Ohio State University.
[6] Haspelmath, M. (1993). "More on the typology of inchoative/causative verb alternations, In: *Causatives and Transitivity*", Bernard Comrie and Maria Polinsky (eds.), 87-120.Amstrdam: John Benjamins.
[7] Lakoff, G. (1965). "On the nature of syntactic irregularity". Mathematical Linguistics and Automatic Translation. Harvard Computational laboratory, Report No. NFS – 16.
[8] MacCawley (1968). "Lexical insertions in a transformational grammar without deep structures". Chicago Linguistic Society.
[9] MacCawley (1972). "Kac and Shibatani on the grammar of killing". Syntax and semantics by John P. Kimball, New York: Seminar Press.
[10] Shibatani, M. (ed.) (2001). "The grammar of causation and interpersonal manipulation". Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins
[11] Talmy, L. (2000). "Toward a Cognitive Semantics". Volume 1: Concept Structuring Systems. Cambridge: MIT Press.
[12] Talmy, L. (2000). "Toward a Cognitive Semantics: Typology and Process in Concept Structuring". Volume 2: Cambridge: MIT Press.
[13] Windfuhr, O. L. (1979). "Persian grammar". The Hague: Mouton.

Arsalan Golfam Ph.D. Associate professor at Univ. of Tarbiat Modares, Dept. of Language and Linguistics, Tehran, Iran. He is from Iran and she was born there. He has Ph.D. degree in Linguistics from the department of language and linguistics at Tehran University in Iran.

He's taught language and linguistics to students at Tarbiat Modares University in Tehran, Iran since 1998. Also, he has many researches

Masoud Dehghan Ph.D. Candidate at the Univ. of Tarbiat Modares, Dept. of Language and Linguistics, Tehran, Iran. He is an English teacher at the Department of English Language and Linguistics at Razi University in Kermanshah, Iran.

He's teaching English Language at the department of English language and literature at Razi University in Kermanshah, Iran. Also, he's teaching English Language at university of Applied, Science and Technology in Kermanshah, Iran. His previous researches are: 1- “Discourse and Otherness: A critical Study of the other in the Recent Discourse on Democracy”. Int. Conference on CDA. University of Tasmania. February in 2005. 2- “Stylistics and linguistic variations in Forough Farokhzad’s Poems”. JLTR academy publisher. volume3, Issue 5. September. 2012. 3- "A short analysis of Insertion in Persian". Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 14-23, January 2012

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - Submission of extended version
  - Notification of acceptance
  - Final submission due
  - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal’s style, together with all authors’ contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublisher.com/tpls/.

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)