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Contents

Matching and Stretching Learners' Learning Styles

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Abstract—**Creating and sustaining learners' active involvement in learning requires an understanding of their learning style preferences. Through a questionnaire survey and participant observations, this study sought to explore the extent to which teachers understand their students' language learning styles as well as teacher-student style mismatches in Vietnamese EFL classrooms, which have brought about students' dissatisfaction and low performance. The study found Vietnamese EFL learners more intuitive than sensing, more visual than verbal, more active than reflective, and more sequential than global. After matching the distribution of learning styles, this action research applied the multi-style teaching strategies suggested by Kolb (1984) and Felder (1993) to stretch students' learning style patterns. While guiding students into certain learning styles, teachers had to guid themselves into the teaching styles they are not accustomed to. The benefits of style matching and stretching were confirmed beside the failures in the class where adult learners failed to respond to style stretching strategies and in the class where the teacher failed to respond to students' learning styles. These failures remind teachers that other learner factors, teacher factors, and learning environment factors always exist beside learning and teaching styles as promoters or hinderers to style matching and stretching strategies.**

Index Terms—**learning style, teaching style, style matching strategies, style stretching strategies**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vietnam's open-door policy since 1989 has exposed Vietnamese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers in Vietnam to the current English language teaching trends. Teachers excitedly brought back from seminars and workshops communicative, learner-centered teaching methods to apply in their classrooms, but soon they received resistance from their students. Nonetheless, students' resistance was passively demonstrated by increased dropout rates. The passive resistance can be explicated by the fact that Confucianism's influence remains to discourage students from challenging their authorities or seniors (O'Sullivan, 1997, p. 51). But how did teachers of new teaching methods interpret their students' resistance? One of the interpretations most teachers share was that students felt too secure in old-fashioned grammar-translation methods to risk changes. Certain teachers alleged that students were looking for something rather than knowledge of English in EFL classrooms. Some of these teachers also felt more secure by returning to a lecturer-fronted approach. A few years later, it was found that students' passive resistance became voiced. Schools started to receive complaints from students against teachers of both traditional and modern methods. Schools' common action is to ask 'problem teachers' to adjust their methods. Teachers reluctantly resorted to a communicative, learner-centered approach again for help. However, did teachers correctly understand the communicative, learner-centered approach, which takes into account learners' needs, goals, interests, learning styles and strategies? Renandya, Lim, Leong, and Jacobs (2001), as lecturers at SEAMEO Regional Language Centre (SEAMEO RELC) and in their other teaching experiences, have worked with language teachers from around Southeast and Northeast Asia and found their understandings of communicative approaches differ widely (Renandya *et al.*, 2001). Long and Sato (1983) reported the same phenomenon in a study with ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers in the U.S., and this finding was confirmed by Rollman (1994) who did a study with foreign language teachers of German in Canada. Even though most Vietnamese EFL teachers understand the approach correctly, a number of them 'ignore' the learner element of the approach.

The word 'ignore' is highlighted since numerous teachers understand the position of the learner element in their teaching strategies. Nevertheless, they do not want to explore it due to such factors as time constraints, energy insufficiency (due to teaching several hours a day), brief and unrepeated teaching of a particular class, and pride in their degrees or ranks. It is their 'pride' that a number of teachers even take students' resistance as an offence, but teaching students without understanding them is a greater offence like doctors treating patients without investigating their medical histories.

Certain teachers contend that complaints usually hail from students of a low language proficiency level, who prefer easy-to-understand grammar-translation methods in the classroom. Tobias (1990) gives learners an understanding look: "They're not dumb, they're different". Irvine and York (1995) echo that sentiment: "[A]ll students are capable of learning, provided the learning environment attends to a variety of learning styles" (p. 494). According to Keefe (1987),

educators must learn to base programs on the differences that exist among students rather than on the assumption that everyone learns the same way. Numerous teachers think of students as a featureless mass, but it is growing belief that the teacher, in making decisions regarding the type of activities to conduct in a language classroom, should take into account such learner diversities. In this respect, Corder (1977) writes:

In the end successful language "teaching-learning" is going to be dependent upon the willing co-operation of the participants in the interaction and an agreement between them as to the goals of their interaction. Co-operation cannot be imposed but must be negotiated (p. 13).

If we truly believe that considering subjective preferences felt by the learner is crucial for effective language learning, then some kind of negotiation is needed between the participants, in our case, teachers and students. Information has to be exchanged about roles and expectations, both teachers' and learners' awareness of each other's needs and resources has to be raised and compromises have to be reached between what learners expect and want and what the teacher feels he/she can and ought to provide (Brindley, 1989, p. 73). Even when compromise can not be reached, we must teach students the way they learn (Dunn and Dunn, 1978).

Teachers 'ignore' learners' 'ways' (merely 33.9% of EFL teachers in Asia were keen on finding out students' learning styles according to Renandya, Lim, Leong, and Jacobs, 2001), and so do their schools. By using placement tests to look into students' language proficiency level, schools just do the academic part, not the sociological part of their job. Information about learning styles can help schools become more sensitive to the differences students bring to the classroom. Language schools in Vietnam have not systematically diagnosed students' learning styles to provide teachers with the class's learning style profile before they enter the classroom or even select teachers with the teaching styles suited for a particular class. Thus, they do not understand their students until problems happen to compel them to substitute teachers.

Lack of co-operation resulting from lack of understanding learners' learning styles makes teaching in the EFL classrooms in Vietnam a heavy, strenuous job. This study is done on behalf of other EFL teachers in Vietnam who desire to surmount this professional problem to be lifelong teachers. The study is also intended to benefit my own interest for professional self-improvement by exploring areas of my academic concern, as Hyman and Rosoff (1987, p. 185) suggest teachers should also become students of teaching.

The study was guided by the three ensuing research questions:

1. How much do teachers understand their students' language learning styles?
2. What teaching strategies can be applied to match the distribution of learning styles in EFL classrooms in Vietnam?
3. To what extent do these strategies work in the classrooms?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Why do we Need to Understand Learners' Learning Styles?

The education literature suggests that learners who are actively immersed in the learning process will be more likely to achieve success (Dewar, 1999). Once learners are actively involved in their own learning process they commence to feel empowered and their personal achievement and self-direction levels rise.

A key to getting and keeping learners actively involved in learning lies in understanding learning style preferences, which can impact a learner's performance (Dewar, 1999). Gregorc and Ward's (1977) research demonstrated this:

The instructional materials and techniques used by teachers have a direct effect on many students . . . If the approach fits the preferred learning mode, the learner usually reacted favorably. If, on the other hand, the methods were mismatched, the student "worked hard to learn", "learned some and missed some material", or "tuned out." (p. 5)

A learner's style of learning, if accommodated, can result in enhanced attitudes toward learning and an increase in thinking skills, academic achievement, and creativity (Irvine & York, 1995).

Carbo and Hodges (1988) contend that "matching students' learning styles with appropriate instructional strategies improves their ability to concentrate and learn" (p. 48). If mismatches transpire, learners tend to be bored and inattentive in class, do poorly on tests, get discouraged about the course, and may conclude that they are no good at the subject of the course and give up (Felder & Silverman, 1988). Teachers, confronted by low test grades, unresponsive or hostile classes, poor attendance, and dropouts, may become overly critical of their learners (making things even worse) or begin to question their own competence as teachers.

Talmadge and Shearer (1969) have determined that learning styles do exist. Their study shows that the characteristics of the content of a learning experience are a critical factor affecting relationships that exist between learner characteristics and instructional methods. Reiff (1992) alleges that styles influence how learners learn, how teachers teach, and how they interact. Each person is born with certain preferences toward particular styles, but these preferences are influenced by culture, experience, and development. Keefe (1987) asserts that perceptual style is a matter of learner choice, but that preference develops from infancy almost subconsciously. A teacher alert to these preferences can arrange for flexibility in the learning environment.

Thus Keefe (1991) portrays learning style as both a learner characteristic and an instructional strategy. As a learner characteristic, learning style is an indicator of how a learner learns and likes to learn. As an instructional strategy, it informs the cognition, context and content of learning.

a. What is learning style?

Learning style is

1. "the complex manner in which, and conditions under which, learners most efficiently and most effectively perceive, process, store, and recall what they are attempting to learn" (James and Gardner, 1995, p. 20).

2. "an individual's characteristic way of processing information, feeling, and behaving in learning situations" (Smith as cited in Merriam and Caffarella, 1991, p. 176).

b. Dimensions of Learning Styles

According to Felder and Silverman (1988), the learning style dimensions may be defined in terms of the answers to the following four questions:

1. What type of information does the learner preferentially perceive: *sensory*–sights, sounds, physical sensations, or *intuitive* – memories, ideas, insights?

2. Through which modality is sensory information most effectively perceived: *visual* – pictures, diagrams, graphs, demonstrations, or *verbal* – written and spoken words and formulas?

3. How does the learner prefer to process information: *actively*–through engagement in physical activity or discussion, or *reflectively* – through introspection?

4. How does the learner progress toward understanding: *sequentially*–in a logical progression of small incremental steps, or *globally*–in large jumps, holistically?

Dimensions of learning styles are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DIMENSIONS OF LEARNING STYLES

Perception	Input	Processing	Understanding
Sensing prefer facts, data, and experimentation	Visual prefer pictures, diagrams, charts	Active learn best by doing something physical with the information	Sequential easily make linear connections between individual steps
Intuitive prefer principles, concepts, and theories	Verbal prefer spoken or written explanations	Reflective do the processing in their heads	Global must get "big picture" before individual pieces fall into place

c. Dynamic nature of learning styles: implications for teachers' actions

Every language learner has a particular learning style, and even within one learner, style is not a static phenomenon that operates in a certain direction all the time (Ehrman, 1996). The literature of educational psychology suggests that learning styles should be viewed as learners' actions rather than abilities, therefore even if a teacher can assess a learner' learning style today, next week it might become different (Hyman & Rosoff, 1987, pp. 178-190). Given their dynamic nature, styles need to be handled in more selected ways so as to help identify merely the variables which best serve our need to understand the learners' participation problems and resolve them. For this purpose, one way of describing learning styles, which the literature sometimes uses, is to view them as learners' preferences or 'comfort zones', implying the educational conditions under which learners learn best (Gibson & Chandler, 1988, p. 258).

Information about learning style can serve as a guide in designing teaching strategies that match or mismatch learners' styles, depending on the teacher's purpose. Matching is particularly appropriate in working with poorly prepared learners and with new learners, as the most attrition occurs in those situations. In other instances, some mismatching may be appropriate so that learners' experiences help them learn in new ways and to bring into play ways of thinking and aspects of the self not previously developed. Any mismatching, however, should be done with sensitivity and consideration for learners, because the experience of discontinuity can be very threatening, particularly when learners are weak in these areas. Knowledge of learning style can thus help teachers design teaching strategies appropriate for learners in terms of matching or mismatching.

B. From this Understanding, why do we Focus on Teaching Strategies rather than Learning Strategies?

1. What are teaching strategies?

In Gagne's (1985) view, teaching strategies are conditions required for the acquisition of knowledge and skill. From a framework by Ellis (1994), teaching strategies are looked upon as any problem-oriented actions taken by the teacher during the classroom process to surmount specific obstacles to learner performance. Such actions must be conscious and deliberate, deployed by the teacher with cautious attention, which can result in both linguistic and non-linguistic behavior.

2. Why do we focus on teaching strategies rather than learning strategies?

Compared to learning, teaching represents a dimension of facility that is easier for teachers to keep in check. As Hyman and Rosoff (1987, p. 185) suggest, the maximum level of control the teacher could have in the classroom is the control over his or her own actions – no matter what the learners' learning styles and no matter what the subject matter. Moreover, before we teachers could blame learners for not co-operating with us, we have to demonstrate a realistic example of good will by having the courage to reflect on the way we teach. We can always learn from the behavior modification approach that to change learners' behavior we must first change the way in which we have tended to respond to this behavior (Fontana 1994: 63-64).

C. Benefits of Classroom Interaction

Gibson and Chandler (1988, p. 160) have raised the awareness of the value, purpose and rationale of a more interactive classroom process. They encourage conscious and purposeful use of classroom contributions as a way of constructing and developing the lesson. Scarella and Oxford (1992) point out that "innate mechanisms do not work alone. If they did, students could learn English by themselves, without interacting with others. But students do not learn English alone" (p. 29). Learners' contributions also can serve as a foundation for the teacher to obtain information regarding their knowledge, understanding, and degree of agreement. A lack of such information in many cases might cause the teacher to develop the lesson in an undesirable direction that fails to meet learners' interests, preferences, concerns, and needs.

Understanding learners → Applying appropriate teaching strategies → Increasing interaction → Further understanding learners → Fixing mismatched expectations

For this reason, learners should give the teacher opportunities to decide how to adjust and develop the lesson to best benefit them. As suggested by Harker (1988, p. 223), it is through the teacher-learner communication process that expectations are created for how the lesson needs to be organised. The absence of this process can explicate several of the reasons why the expectations of teacher and learners often clash. Good and Brophy (1987, pp. 296-303) refer to such mismatched expectations as 'self-fulfilling effects,' which are destructive attitudes resulting from a lack of negotiation. For a resolution, Harker (1988, p. 223) points out that understanding classroom events requires interpreting events within the frames developed by learners and teachers through interaction in the lesson and through their history of interaction in similar lessons.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

168 students of eight intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL classes and twelve teachers who taught these classes at the Center for Foreign Languages of the University of Social Sciences and Humanities in Ho Chi Minh City (USSH-HCMC) were invited to participate in the study.

1. Student sample

Although the Center for Foreign Languages offer classes of three proficiency levels ranging from elementary (Level A) to upper-intermediate (Level C) as described in Table 2, the selection of student sample focused on courses of intermediate (B) and low upper-intermediate proficiency levels (C1, C2) where conditions for a comprehensive investigation were found.

TABLE 2.
COURSES BY PROFICIENCY LEVELS

Proficiency level	Course length	Estimated outcome level		
		IELTS	TOEFL PBT	TOEFL iBT
Elementary (Level A)	270 hours in six 10-week classes (A1-A6)	3.5-4.0	400	30
Intermediate (Level B)	270 hours in four 10-week classes (B1-B6)	4.5-5.0	450	45
Upper-intermediate (Level C)	180 hours in four 10-week classes (C1-C4)	5.5-6.0	500	60

Students of intermediate and low upper-intermediate proficiency levels have the extensive history of learning styles which may differ from their present learning styles. Willing (1988) and other researchers have found that learners will often adapt their style to the learning situation and so learners of one style may display characteristics of another style at certain times. The exploration of factors that cause the transition from past to present learning styles, to some extent, helps realize the effectiveness of the teaching strategies students have received. Beginners with too brief history of classroom experience will probably limit in-depth exploration.

Interaction reluctance may result from linguistic incompetence as learners struggle in dealing with English sounds and understanding of grammar patterns (Burns & Joyce, 1997, pp. 134-135). Thus, beginners' interaction shyness more likely due to minimal proficiency level can be misconstrued as a mismatch between learning and teaching styles.

Since the study is the repeated intervention in a sample, the consistency of the participants is required. Administrative policy at our Center is that the whole class move to next level when they pass a proficiency level, which helps sustain the consistency of the sample. Due to substantial change of students from a level to another in elementary proficiency levels resulting from high dropout rates of beginners with low intrinsic motivation, and due to substantial class shrinkage of top proficiency levels caused by challenge of language, students of intermediate and low upper-intermediate level are preferred for sampling.

2. Teacher sample

The teacher sample comprised eight Vietnamese EFL teachers, five females and three males, who had been teaching at the Center for Foreign Languages of USSH-HCMC. The average age was 39.08 years ranging from 29 to 51 years old. They were teaching full-time at the tertiary levels of education, of whom six were teaching at public universities and two at private universities. Four teachers held BA degrees in language education as their highest degree, with the rest earning MA degrees in TESOL, two from Vietnamese universities and two from Australian universities. The

participants varied greatly in terms of the length of their teaching experience. The mean years of teaching experience was 9.88 with a standard deviation 5.27 from the mean.

The primary reason for this selection was the teachers' frequent working with students of intermediate and upper-intermediate proficiency levels, at the Center as well as at their universities. Their understanding of their students' learning styles was explored in the survey, and their intuitive understanding of this proficiency group's background and behavior was shared for data collection at the first phase of the study and classroom remedy at its later phase.

The first participants were sought through my close colleagues. These participants, in turn connected me with other participants, and this process continued until my relationship with twelve teachers of twelve classes of intermediate and low upper-intermediate levels was well-established. This snowball sampling method (Robson, 1993) helped obtain voluntary co-operation from participants.

B. Procedure

The study consisted of three phases

   Phase 1: Collecting data from learning styles questionnaires

A questionnaire survey was intended to explore the distribution of learning styles among the students of twelve intermediate and low upper-intermediate EFL classes. The questionnaire comprising 44 closed-ended questions suggested by Solomon and Felder (1999) was reproduced in Vietnamese and delivered to the students. Class observation recorded through field-notes was conducted in these eight classes to measure the level of teacher-student style matching.

   Phase 2: Working out teaching strategies

Discussions with teachers of these involved classes on the mismatch between their teaching styles and their students' learning styles found in the questionnaire surveys and class observations. A set of revised teaching strategies which cater to students' learning styles were collaboratively worked out predicated on the distribution of learning styles of each class.

   Phase 3: Experimenting with the teaching strategies and collecting feedback from both teachers and students.

Collaboration work with the involved teachers was conducted to incorporate revised teaching strategies into their lesson plans and experiment with them in these eight classrooms. Such elements as teachers, students, and teaching material were preserved in the classroom setting to focus on the only variable, revised teaching strategies.

Repetition of classroom observation on the same classes, under the revised teaching strategies, to measure the enhancement of student interaction, was recorded by an observation instrument suggested by Wajnryb (1993). Discussions with teachers and students were held to collect their feedback on the efficiency of revised teaching strategies.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Phase 1: Collecting data from learning styles questionnaires

Of 168 questionnaires delivered to the students to survey their learning styles, 154 were returned in completed form (92% response rate). The distribution of learning styles among these students is displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
LEARNING STYLE DISTRIBUTION (N = 154)

Dimensions of learning styles		n	%
Perception	Sensing	65	42
	Intuitive	89	58
Input	Visual	102	66
	Verbal	52	34
Processing	Active	87	56
	Reflective	67	44
Understanding	Sequential	114	74
	Global	40	26

Some mismatches between learning styles and teaching styles were found when class observations showed that six teachers (75%) are using traditional lecture methods with intuitive, verbal, reflective and sequential characteristics, and two teachers (25%) are applying visual and global instructional strategies of modern approaches (Table 4).

TABLE 4:
MISMATCHES BETWEEN LEARNING STYLES AND TEACHING STYLES

Learning styles	Lecture approaches (six teachers)	Modern approaches (two teachers)
Intuitive (58%)	Intuitive	Intuitive
Visual (66%)	Verbal	Visual
Active (56%)	Reflective	1 Reflective, 1 Active
Sequential (74%)	Sequential	Global

   Phase 2: Working out teaching strategies

Prior to the collaborative work with these teachers on teaching strategies to create teacher-student style matching and nurture style stretching, the extended discussions with them were made to explore how these learning styles have been shaped as well as determine which styles are more dynamic and flexible, and which are more static and identity forming.

Intuitive learning style found in 58% of the students, more than the 40% found for a sample of 18,592 general college students (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) was, according to the involved teachers of this study, inherited from their language teachers, most of whom are intuitors. As Moody (1988) notes, language is by its nature symbolic, which would tend to make it more attractive to intuitors than to the more concrete and literal-minded sensors.

The majority of the students chose 'visual' as their preferred perceptual input modality (66%). The similar result was found by Reid (1987) in his survey of sensory learning preferences of Korean, Chinese and Japanese students. The involved teachers believe that it is book-centered and blackboard-centered method that has formed this learning style for decades. The classroom practice, in which students' speaking the target language is primarily choral reading (visual-verbal) (Song, 1995), and their listening to the target language is accompanied by scanning the printed text (visual-auditory), makes students' perceptual channels strongly visual (text and blackboard), with most auditory input closely tied to the written text. Moreover, the involved teachers brought the interesting feedback from their experimental classes that college-age students, the 'video game' generation, have grown up with televisions, movies, videos, and video games, and developed skills in interpreting visually displayed data. Thus, despite their intuitive learning style, the students have been carrying a latent sensing learning style waiting to manifest itself under encouraging conditions.

Although more active learners than reflective learners were found in the student sample, surprisingly, processing styles proved to be dependent on age groups (Table 5).

TABLE 5:
CORRELATION BETWEEN PROCESSING STYLES AND AGE GROUPS

Age groups	Under 15		15 − 25		26 − 35		36 − 45		Over 45	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Active	15	88	56	60	10	45	5	38	1	11
Reflective	2	12	37	40	12	55	8	62	8	89

As displayed in Table 5, younger learners tend to be active, and older learners tend to be reflective. This result can be interpreted in terms of teaching method, teaching material, and impact of multimedia. Older learners bring to the language classes the 'ways' they used to be taught at high school years back, in which they show much reflection in preparation for production, as Condon (1984) observed in Japanese students. Like most Asian adults, they are concerned for precision (Oxford et al., 1992), and reluctant to 'stand out' by expressing their views, particularly if this might be perceived as expressing public disagreement (Song, 1995). Older students are also found to be accustomed to the traditional approach tasks in their high school language textbooks which largely require learners to reflect thoroughly. Contrarily, younger learners have been exposed to both traditional (in their high schools) and modern (in language centers) teaching methods since they started to learn English. More fortunately, they are exposed to communicative tasks of both high school language textbooks and language center materials. The most important factor that makes younger learners 'active' is that they have grown up in the world of multimedia full of interactive activities, which allow them little time to reflect.

The emphasis on rote memory in both oral and written tests in primary schools in Vietnam shapes sequential learning style in primary students, with which they go through years of high school and university. Their phobia to miss details makes them detail- and precision-oriented. Grammar-translation method in high schools also contributes to the development of sequential learning style. Many EFL teachers explain the entire text by breaking it down into sentences, and analysing new words and grammar structures of these sentences. Some EFL teachers even employ word-by-word translation to explain a written text. However, the discussions with some teachers of natural sciences such as mathematics and information technology (IT) showed that they employ a top-down approach to guide students from the overall itinerary of the solution to each section or module in a logical order. Therefore, students are not completely encased in sequential learning style. Nevertheless, the belief that learners should learn language in a different way from how they learn other sciences still preoccupies some students and should be cleared before the strategies on style-stretching are introduced to the experimental classes.

From understanding the causes and the distribution of learning styles of the experimental classes, some teaching strategies were proposed to create teacher-student style matching and nurture style stretching, which seeks to meet the goal of a balanced teaching style. Matching teaching styles to learning styles can significantly enhance student behavior in foreign language instruction (Oxford et al., 1991); however, the teaching styles with which students feel most comfortable may not correspond to the style that enables them to learn most effectively. A student should not be placed into one or another style category and taught exclusively according to his or her preferred style. What must be done to achieve effective foreign language learning is to balance instructional methods, somehow structuring the class so that all learning styles are simultaneously or at least sequentially accommodated (Oxford, 1990).

Teaching strategies to create teacher-student style matching

Teaching strategies involve choice of tasks, forms of answer, forms of interaction, and references appealing to the range of learning styles of the experimental classes (Table 6). Task choice involves the choice of pre-task activities, the task itself and the post-task sharing, all areas during lesson planning in which teachers can provide different forms of

input and model strategies. Central to considering the range of tasks given is the question of the form in which teachers want the answer and the accountability of the responses learners give (Hall, 1994). Given that academic tasks drive the student, the form of an answer will be important to matching a range of learning styles (Doyle, 1983).

TABLE 6:
TEACHING STRATEGIES TO MATCH DIFFERENT LEARNING STYLES

Learning styles	Teaching strategies	Tasks	Forms of answer	Forms of interaction	References
Sensing	images, sounds, video, demos, simulations	creations of demos, images, case studies	quizzes with accompanying images, audio	pair work, group work	video or audio clips from a media collection
Intuitive	case studies, settling and prediction	problem solving	essays that ask for outcome projections	group work	readings from various view points
Visual	use of a video clip, diagram, image or map	mind mapping of concepts (webbing), diagramming, readings	identification on maps, diagrams, required drawings or sketches, read and response	pair work, group work	reference maps, diagrams, pictures, articles
Verbal	summaries, outlines, debates	journaling, minute writing, peer critiquing	summaries, outlines	group work	observation, reading
Active	class participation	model building, role playing, presentations, surveys/ opinion polls	projects, reports	group work	questionnaires
Reflective	class time for reflection or critical thinking	problem sets, journaling	problem solving	group work	observation, reading
Sequential	outlines, lists, examples	creation of steps, processes, scanning	creation or reenactment of steps, processes	small discussion groups	reference materials of a procedural nature, scholarly journals
Global	discussion of concepts	journaling, discussion, relationship construction, mapping, skimming	essay questions	large discussion groups	broad based reference materials, newspaper articles, magazines and books

Teaching strategies to nurture style stretching

Learning style is a consistent way of functioning which reflects cultural behavior patterns and, like other behaviors influenced by cultural experiences, may be transformed as a result of training in learning experiences. Learning styles are thus "moderately strong habits rather than intractable biological attributes" (Reid, 1987, p. 100). With a moderate training or guidance by teachers, sub or unconscious styles can become conscious learning strategies. However, while teachers are guiding students into some learning styles, they have to guide themselves into the teaching styles they are not accustomed to. The way they normally teach addresses the needs of at least four of the specified learning style categories: regular use of some of the teaching strategies below suggested by Kolb (1984) and Felder (1993) should suffice to cover the remaining four.

● *Motivate learning*. As much as possible, teach new material (vocabulary, rules of grammar) in the context of situations to which the students can relate in terms of their personal and career experiences, past and anticipated, rather than simply as more material to memorize *(intuitive, global)*.

● *Balance concrete information* (word definitions, rules for verb conjugation and adjective-noun agreement) *(sensing)* and *conceptual information* (syntactical and semantic patterns, comparisons and contrasts with the students' native language) *(intuition)*.

● *Balance structured teaching approaches* that emphasize formal training *(sequential)* with *more open-ended unstructured activities* that emphasis conversation and cultural contexts of the target language *(global)*.

● *Make extensive use of visuals*. Use photographs, drawings, sketches, and cartoons to illustrate and reinforce the meanings of vocabulary words. Show films, videotapes, and live dramatizations to illustrate lessons in texts *(visual, global)*.

● *Assign some repetitive drill exercises* to provide practice in basic vocabulary and grammar *(sensing)* but do not overdo it *(intuitive)*.

● *Do not fill every minute of class time lecturing and writing on the board*. Provide intervals – however brief – for students to think about what they have been told; assign brief writing exercises *(reflective)*. Raise questions and problems to be worked on by students in small groups; enact dialogues and mini-dramas; hold team competitions *(active)*.

● *Give students the option of cooperating on at least some homework assignments (active)*. Active learners generally learn best when they interact with others; if they are denied the opportunity to do so they are being deprived of their most effective learning tool.

● *The lesson is designed as a 'flow'* from getting involved (concrete experience) to listening/observing (reflective observation) to creating an idea (abstract conceptualization) to making decisions (active experimentation) as a result of combining two dimensions of perception (sensing/intuitive) with two dimensions of processing (active/reflective)

● *Alternate style-like groupings* and *style-varied groupings* for generating the greatest flexibility of styles.

Teaching strategies to encourage changes in students' learning styles

One important aspect of action research is the *acceptance* of people as they are in the first place, and with this understanding, *support* them as they perform tasks and activities (Stringer, 1999, pp. 122-123). Since Vietnamese students tend to be afraid of taking risk (Ellis, 1995, p. 200), teachers 'need to create environments where students feel safe enough to try out new behaviors' (Scarcella, 1990, p. 7).

● Teachers should show their respect for students' own learning styles, help them see the benefits of style range expansion, and keep them well informed of the experimental process. As action researchers, teachers should arrange to advise students about what is happening in ways that they can understand (Stringer, 1999, p. 122). Wu (1983) concludes that Chinese students usually respond well to activities when they realize what the purposes behind them are.

● Even though students fully understand the benefits of style stretching, they may give up halfway through the experimental process, since they do not find lesson content meaningful and interesting to them. Matching the difficulty level of the material to learner ability, bringing learning topics closer to students' local sensitivity, and keeping activities related to students' culture make the pathway to unfamiliar learning styles appear smoother and shorter to students.

Phase 3: Experimenting with the teaching strategies and collecting feedback from both students and teachers.

The experimental process consists of two subphases, creating teacher-student style matching and nurturing style stretching. The first subphase was conducted in May and June 2010, and the second subphase in July and August 2010. In the first subphase, teaching activities were designed to match the distribution of each experimental class, and style-like groupings were chosen for group activities.

TABLE 7:
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER-STUDENT STYLE MATCHING AND CLASS INTERACTION INCREASE

Interaction increase	over 50%	20-50%	0-<20%
Teacher-student matching	2 classes	1 class	
Teacher-student mismatching	2 classes	2 classes	1 class
Total	4 classes	3 classes	1 class

As displayed in Table 7, there are three classes in which the teachers managed to accommodate their teaching styles to their students' learning styles, and there are five classes in which the teachers, in different degrees, failed to reach out to the distribution of learning styles. Especially one teacher of this study tried to apply revised teaching strategies in her class in 2 weeks alone, and then gave up and returned to her usual teaching way in which she felt completely comfortable for the rest of the study length (<20% interaction increase). Interestingly, substantial class interaction increase (>50%) was observed not only in the style matching classes (two classes) but also in the style mismatching classes (two classes). On the contrary, one class, even though teacher-student style matching occurred, displayed a subtle improvement in class verbal interaction (20-50% increased). Class observations and discussions with the students of these two style mismatching classes without their teachers' presence showed that it was the teachers' inherent qualities that made up for their style mismatching and contributed to their success. Class observations found a cooperative, encouraging, and relaxed atmosphere in these classes the teachers created by incorporating fun activities, avoiding grammatical correction, and enhancing students' self-esteem. Gibson and Chandler (1988, p. 394) observe that students often learn most from teachers who do their best to increase their self-esteem. Most of the students of these classes said they loved their teachers since their teachers welcomed their contribution with warmth and respect, listened to them attentively, praised their attempt or content whenever possible, and occasionally used their ideas for further discussion to make them feel significant. They welcomed their teachers as their self-esteem was enhanced by their teachers. In contrast, in the style matching class with a slight interaction increase (20-50%), the teacher seemed to keep his distance from his students, which probably led to his failure in the experiment. In the language classroom, like in other social settings, there is the need to establish and maintain friendly relationship (Malamah-Thomas, 1996); and personal and cooperative relationship is viewed by Stringer (1999, p. 122) as an important aspect of action research.

In the second subphase of the experimental process, style-stretching strategies and style-varied groupings were introduced into the classrooms to expand students' learning styles. Table 8 shows the outcomes of both experimental subphases.

TABLE 8:
INCORPORATING STYLE-STRETCHING STRATEGIES

	Interaction increase	over 50%	20-50%	0-<20%
Subphase 1	Number of classes	4 classes	3 classes	1 class
Subphase 2	Further interaction increase	1 class : >50% 3 classes: 20-50%	1 class: >50% 1 class: 20-50% 1 class: NO	NO

Class observations showed that the teacher, who had given up adapting her style to learners' styles in the first subphase, again failed to enhance classroom interaction. In six out of the remaining experimental classes, the teachers felt more comfortable to vary teaching styles in the classrooms as they had chance to exert teaching styles of their strength, so verbal interaction in these classes was further enhanced. However, in the style matching class which had not been very successful in the first subphase (20-50% interaction increase), mismatching strategies failed. The students,

81% of whom were adults, were unreceptive to these strategies, and some even doubted their effectiveness. They showed a deep dissatisfaction through dropouts. Cooper and Miller (1991) found a significant positive relationship between teacher-student style congruency and student satisfaction. Lorge (1947), writing about effective methods in adult education, suggested that to reach the adult learner, you have to teach what adults *want*. In his theory of andragogy, an attempt to differentiate the way adults learn from the way children learn, Knowles (1973) assumed that adult learners are self-directing, and thus prefer to determine what, how, and when they learn. In this study, the element 'age' was considered a constant, which led to the failure in one experimental class; so the role of this element in learning styles deserves further research.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Teaching is an interesting profession with new approaches expanding teachers' roles and giving teachers more insights into how to help their learners (Larsen-Freeman, 1988). A key to getting and keeping students actively immersed in learning lies in understanding their learning style preferences. The findings of this study can help Vietnamese EFL teachers understand the pattern of learning styles in Vietnamese EFL classrooms as well as find out teacher-learner style mismatches in their own classrooms, which have caused learners' dissatisfaction and low performance. In this research, the multi-style teaching strategies were applied to meet the learners where they stood and help them widen their horizon in learning. The results substantiated the benefits of style matching and stretching; nonetheless, the failures found in the class where adult learners failed to respond to style stretching strategies and in the class where the teacher failed to respond to learners' learning styles remind teachers that there subsist other learner factors, teacher factors, and learning environment factors beside learning and teaching styles, and we teachers ever remain learners, seeking further understanding their impact on style matching and stretching strategies.

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Gender Differences in L2 Comprehension and Vocabulary Learning in the Video-based CALL Program

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Abstract—This study examined whether there were significant differences between males and females in comprehension, vocabulary acquisition and vocabulary retention in the video-based computer assisted language learning (CALL) program. In total, 74 male and 43 female university students taking Freshman English course in Taiwan joined this study. A quantitative analysis of video comprehension tests, vocabulary immediate tests, and vocabulary retention tests was conducted. Two types of videotexts ranked as easy and difficult materials were used. The statistic results showed that first, regardless of videotext difficulty, females achieved higher percentage scores than males in comprehension, vocabulary immediate, and vocabulary retention tests. Second, with an easy videotext, females achieved significantly higher scores of comprehension and vocabulary retention tests than males. Third, a within-group comparison showed that females achieved significantly higher scores of both vocabulary immediate and retention tests of the easy segment than their scores of the difficult segment. Fourth, males themselves acquired vocabulary significantly better while viewing the easy segment; however, males' comprehension of the difficult videotext was significantly better than their score of the easy one. Finally, instructional recommendations were presented to enhance L2 instruction through the video-based CALL program.

Index Terms—comprehension, computer assisted language learning, gender, video, vocabulary learning

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Gender and Computer Education

With the advance of technology, computers integrate with other media have been widely utilized in language educational settings. Some learners may receive significant improvements in language skills under such hypermedia environments whereas some learners may confront difficulties and fail to make much progress. There can be various factors influencing language learning performances in hypermedia contexts. Among the learner's factors such as age, academic background, technological knowledge, and gender, gender can be an influential factor. For example, many studies examined male and female students' attitudes toward using computers as an assistant tool to learn languages (Aydin, 2007; Charupan, Soranastaporn, & Suwattananand, 2001; Hong, Ridzuan, & Kuek, 2003; Wilson, 2004). The general results concluded from these studies showed learners' attitudes affect toward using computers their learning outcomes positively. Furthermore, males and females' attitudes varied extremely in many aspects. For example, males had more favorable and comfortable attitudes toward computer use and the Internet than female students (Selwyn, 1999; Slate & Manuel, 2002; Usun, 2003). As to affection aspect, females exhibited more anxiety in technology use than males did (Selwyn, 1999). These findings suggest that males, in general, accept and use technology more comfortably than females. Furthermore, Slate and Manuel, (2002) indicated that significant differences were found between males and females in educational benefits. For example, college freshmen males reported that the information on the Internet is less useful than were reported by females; on the other hand, females preferred using the Internet for educational purposes than their gender counterparts (Slate & Manuel, 2002). In general, these studies yielded significant gender differences in their attitudes toward using computers and the Internet to learn languages. It can be assumed that both genders perform different language learning outcomes due to their different attitudes.

There is an unbalanced number of males and females joining the fields of computer science (CS) and computer engineering (CE). Recently, large-scale studies demonstrated that there was a gradual decline for women in taking degrees or pursuing careers in CS and CE in Greek (Papastergiou, 2008) and in America (National Center for Women & Information Technology, 2009). Whether women can successfully involve themselves in computer-based contexts may rely on their individual perceptions (Papastergiou, 2008), gendered identity in the target society (Norton, 2000), and their family and fellowship support (Lynch, 2002). As Markley (1998) pointed out, women could not interact freely due to power differentials in society when they participated in a computer-based course. Moreover, the literature on computers in language education also abounded with research indicating inequities in access to technology for girls (Hess-Biber & Gilbert, 1994; Norton & Pavlenko, 2000). With inferior position for women, the present study intended to understand whether women could learn a second language successfully through computerized class-based activities.

B. Gender and Second Language Learning

Another path of gender difference research was also conducted in the field of second language (L2) learning. The results of L2 studies reveal that gender has been shown to be a significant variable in using strategies to learn a second language (Oxford, 2002). For example, women used strategies more frequently than men according to Oxford's (1990) 50 strategies on the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, including memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Lan & Oxford, 2003). Goh and Foong (1997) found that there were significant differences between males and females in the categories of compensation and affective strategies. Moreover, in a video-based computer assisted language learning context, male and female L2 learners used significantly different categories of strategies to comprehend video-based language lessons (Lin, 2009). Since the earlier research in the above mentioned fields has demonstrated gender can be a significant variable. However, few studies compared male and female learners' language performance in a L2 video-based CALL context. The current study was further administered to examine whether there were significant differences between males and females in L2 text comprehension and vocabulary learning when learning materials interpreted with video and displayed on the computer.

C. Gender and Cognitive Tasks

Psychologists have found there are significant differences in cognitive performance of males and females. Having an investigation on gender and student-teacher interaction in the language classroom, Batters (1986) concluded several features significantly differing female students from male students. For example, Batters (1986) found that first, females spent more time on "attentive activities" than males. Attentive activities included "listening to the teacher, to the tape, to other classmates, observing and reading" (p. 78). Second, males were more dominant in "oral and participatory activities", such as "speaking to the teacher and to other pupils in the foreign or native language, taking part in groupwork or demonstration and showing spontaneity (Batters, 1986, p. 78)". Furthermore, some studies found both genders performed significantly different language learning outcomes (Cattell, 2000; McGlone, 1980; Springer & Deutsch, 1989; Kimura, 1993). These studies indicated that females performed better than males in listing words that all began with the same letter, or that were all related semantically. Cattell (2000) indicated that males performed better than females in certain tasks of visual perception (such as finding a shape which forms part of a larger pattern of shapes), spatial tasks (such as mentally rotating objects), and solving problems where required learners' mathematical reasoning ability.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The study recruited 117 participants (74 males and 43 females) who took Freshman English course in a public university in Taiwan. Their mother language was Mandarin and English was learned as a foreign language. The average age of the participants ranged from 18 to 23, with an average of 19 years and one month.

B. Instrumentation and Procedures

Video segments. In this study, two video segments were used and ranked as respectively easy and difficult materials. The segment difficulty was determined by two criteria, students' familiarity with the video topic, and the speaker's speech rate. Two video segments were selected from CNN news 2006 video archives, which are part of an on-line program issued by a local language learning publishing company in Taiwan (Live ABC, 2007). The first segment related to museum visiting introduced Japan's emerging science museum focusing on on-hand learning. It was 506 words in length and was delivered at the approximate rate of 2.02 per second over four minutes, ten seconds. The second segment dealing with the topic of medicine introduced a sleep aid primer for the weary traveler. It was 455 words in length and was delivered at the approximate rate of 2.53 per second over three minutes. The speech rate of the second segment was faster than that of the first one.

Prior to formal data collection, a pilot study was conducted with another 15 freshmen. According to the pilot students' response, the students favored the museum-visiting segment the most. The students expressed that they felt less familiar with the topic of the second segment. The information in that video was of a medical nature, such that a student who was not well versed in medicine knowledge, such as medical terms, would more likely lack proper prior knowledge and unable to comprehend the content successfully. Following the two criteria, the medicine video segment was coded as Difficult, and the museum visiting passage as Easy.

Procedure and data collection. In English class, I assigned thirty minutes for students freely getting on the on-line CALL program to study the selected video clips. This study applied two follow-up tests and a delayed test pertaining to measuring the participants' video immediate comprehension, vocabulary immediate acquisition, and vocabulary retention. Students viewed one segment in one class meeting. The participants took follow-up tests immediately after viewing one assigned segment and took vocabulary retention tests one week after viewing each video segment.

Two video comprehension (VC) tests respectively contained ten multiple-choice questions; the total score of each test was ten points, with one correct response worth of one point. Vocabulary immediate (VI) and vocabulary retention (VR) tests were in cloze format containing the same target words. The twelve gap-filling questions were designed according to the content of the assigned video segment. The total score of each test was 12 points, with one correct response worth

of one point.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study examined whether there were significant differences in language performances of males and females in terms of comprehension, and vocabulary learning. Vocabulary learning was further investigated through tasks of immediate acquisition and retention. The data collected from two VC tests, two VI tests, and two VR tests were analyzed with Independent Samples Tests to determine whether there existed gender differences in comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and vocabulary retention. In the situation right after video viewing, whether both genders' video comprehension respectively was related to their vocabulary immediate acquisition was further examined by conducting Pearson correlations tests.

A. *Effects of Gender on Video Comprehension and Vocabulary Learning*

Table 1 summarized means and standard deviations of the three tests for males and females. Mean scores referred to correct response percentage of each test. Regarding the easy videotext, females received higher mean percentage scores on the three tests than males. When viewing the difficult videotext, females also achieved higher mean scores throughout the three tests. The finding suggests that regardless of videotext difficulty, females performed better than males in the tasks of comprehending the content, acquiring vocabulary immediately after video viewing, and retaining vocabulary after one week. The results provided further evidence for previous research by McGlone (1980), Springer and Deutsch (1989) and Kimura (1993) that females may be better at language tasks than males. The results can be explained by Batters' (1986) research outcomes that females focused on more attentive activities than males. When viewing video-based lessons, females can pay more attention to linguistic details and read the content more extensively than males. Furthermore, females' positive attitudes toward using the Internet for educational purposes (Slate & Manuel, 2002) may interpret why females outperformed males in the three tests.

TABLE 1.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CORRECT RESPONSES ON THE THREE TESTS FOR MALES AND FEMALES IN TERMS OF EASY AND DIFFICULT VIDEOTEXTS

	Easy Video		Difficult Video	
	Males ($n = 74$)	Females ($n = 43$)	Males ($n = 74$)	Females ($n = 43$)
Tests	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
VC	55.1 (21.9)	67.6 (20.5)	61.1 (22.5)	66.7 (20.8)
VI	75.7 (23.3)	83.3 (23.8)	63.5 (28.0)	71.9 (24.2)
VR	57.3 (30,5)	69.2 (30.5)	52.4 (31.8)	59.3 (28.4)

*Note. * p <.05*
VC = video comprehension, VI = Immediate vocabulary, VR = Vocabulary retention

To understand vocabulary retention of males and females, mean differences between mean scores of VI and VR by males and females were calculated respectively. In general, both males and females' VR scores are lower than their VI scores. The results demonstrate the effect of memory decay on vocabulary acquiring after one-week. Regarding male participants, vocabulary declined rate is 18.4% for easy videotext, 11.1% for difficult videotext; on the other hand, female's vocabulary declined rate is 14.1% for easy videotext, 12.6% for difficult videotext. The results show that among the four conditions, males performed the most conflict outcome, that is, males retained vocabulary in the difficult videotext the best (the lowest decay rate, 11.1%) and vocabulary in the easy video the worst remembered males (the highest decay rate, 18.4%). This is probably because males are better at using reasoning to solve problems (Cattell, 2000). During the process of viewing a difficult text, males likely applied their reasoning skill to analyze the meanings of words and consequently memorized the words deeply, with the least memory decay on vocabulary.

As shown in Figures 1 and 2, both males and females performed in a consistent pattern. Both genders achieved the highest percentage scores on VI tests of an easy and a difficult videotext respectively. This might be attributed to most learners' preference to vocabulary learning when they learn a second language. It can be noted that females scored 83% of correct responses on an easy videotext. Compared to males and females' three tests on an easy videotext respectively, only males' score (61.1) on VC test of a difficult videotext increased, and the other scores achieved by males and females on VI and VR tests of a difficult videotext decreased. The two descriptive results were further elaborated through difference comparisons.
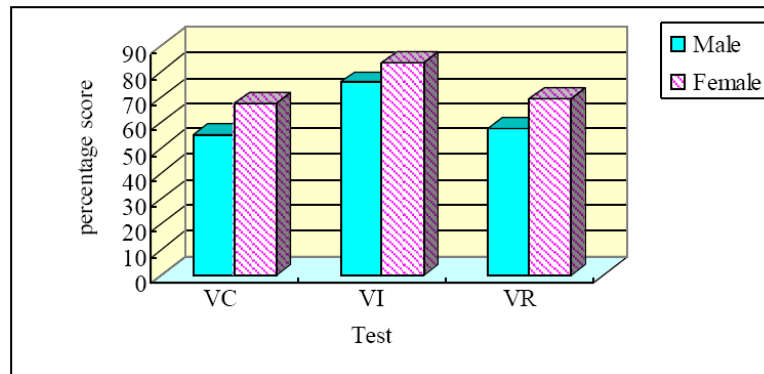
Figure 1. Correct percentage scores on the three tests of an easy videotext
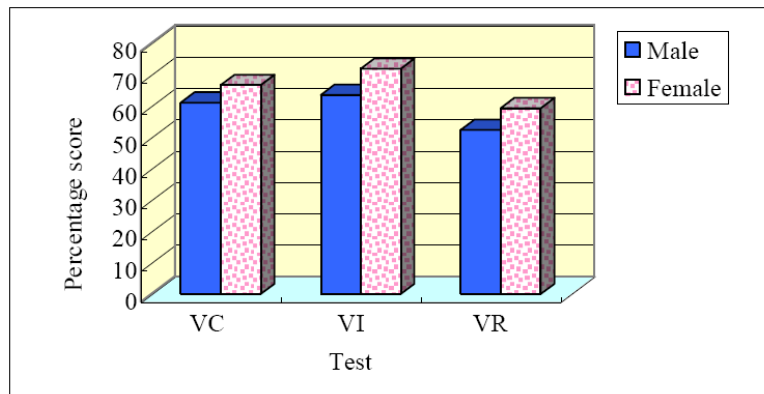
Figure 2. Correct percentage scores on the three tests of a difficult videotext

   Independent sample tests were conducted to compare the mean differences between males and females. The statistic results revealed two significant differences between the gender groups. Table 2 showed that the participants' performance on the tests over time (comprehension, immediate vocabulary learning, and vocabulary retention) depended on difficulty of videotexts (easy vs. difficult). With an easy videotext, females achieved significantly higher scores of comprehension test ($t = 3.05$, $p = .00$), and vocabulary retention test ($t = 2.03$, $p = .04$) than males. Although mean scores between males and females on VI test did not reach a significantly different level, females also scored higher than males. With a difficult videotext, there was not any significant difference between males and females in VC, VI, and VR tests. The findings suggest that when viewing an easy videotext, female participants comprehend the content and learn vocabulary better than male participants. When viewing a difficult videotext, the performances of both genders are almost even. This also contributed to females' preference of attentive activities in language learning (Batters,1986). With easy texts, females tended to remember details whereas with difficult texts, the attentive skill did not assist females to comprehend the text successfully and achieved significantly higher than males.

   In order to determine whether there were, in fact, significant differences between the means of the three tests for males and females respectively, within-group comparisons were further conducted. As shown in Table 3, the analyses for females showed that there was a significant difference between the means of correct responses of easy and difficulty videotexts in VI test ($t = 2.92$, $p = .01$). The data in Table 3 revealed that there was a marginally significant difference between the means of correct responses of easy and difficulty videotexts in VR test ($t = 2.06$, $p = .04$). An inspection of the means indicates that females achieved significantly higher scores of both immediate and delayed vocabulary tests on the easy videotext than their scores on the difficult videotext.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST SUMMARY FOR GENDER AND TESTS

Tests	Female ($n = 43$)		Male ($n = 74$)		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
VC (Easy)	67.6	20.5	55.1	21.9	3.05	115	.00*
VI (Easy)	83.3	23.8	75.7	23.3	1.70	115	.09
VR (Easy)	69.2	30.5	57.3	30.5	2.03	115	.04*
VC (Difficult)	66.7	20.8	61.1	22.5	1.35	115	.18
VI (Difficult)	71.9	24.2	63.5	28.0	1.64	115	.10
VR (Difficult)	59.3	28.4	52.4	31.8	1.18	115	.24

Note. * $p < .05$
VC = video comprehension, VI = Immediate vocabulary, VR = Vocabulary retention

TABLE 3.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST SUMMARY FOR FEMALE WITHIN GROUP COMPARISONS

Tests	Easy Videotext		Difficult Videotext		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
VC	67.6	20.5	66.7	20.8	0.28	42	.78
VI	83.3	23.8	71.9	24.2	2.92	42	.01*
VR	69.2	30.5	59.3	28.4	2.06	42	.04*

Note. * $p < .05$
VC = video comprehension, VI = Immediate vocabulary, VR = Vocabulary retention

The analyses revealed the different pattern for males. The results in Table 4 showed that for males, gender variable did not consistently favor the easy videotext. Males themselves acquired significantly better score in VI test while viewing the easy videotext ($t = 3.6$, $p = .00$). In contrast, significant difference was found between the means of easy videotext (55.1%) and difficult videotext (61.1%) in males' comprehension tests ($t = -2.27$, $p = .03$). An inspection of the means indicates that males had a higher comprehension test score when viewing a difficult videotext.

TABLE 4.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST SUMMARY FOR MALE WITHIN GROUP COMPARISONS

Tests	Easy Videotext		Difficult Videotext		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
VC	55.1	21.9	61.1	22.5	-2.27	73	.03*
VI	75.7	23.3	63.5	28.0	3.60	73	.00*
VR	57.3	30.5	52.4	31.8	1.23	73	.22

Note. * $p < .05$
VC = video comprehension, VI = Immediate vocabulary, VR = Vocabulary retention

This result can be explained from the author's findings gathered in earlier studies (Lin, 2009). Among three types of video comprehension strategies investigated in the two studies, compensation, memory, and cognitive, the most frequently used memory strategy is that males prefer to use knowledge and experience gained from life; furthermore, the most frequently used cognitive strategy by males is to grasp main idea (Lin, 2009). When viewing a videotext at a difficult level, males likely utilized their prior knowledge to catch main ideas of the video segment and as a result males performed better comprehension.

B.   Relationships between Video Comprehension and Vocabulary Acquisition

Pearson correlation tests were conducted to compare mean scores of males and females' comprehension tests and vocabulary immediate tests respectively. Regarding to both genders, video comprehension and vocabulary acquisition are positively correlated with each other (see Table 5). As shown in Table 5, significant relationships were also found between video comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. As to an easy videotext, the relationship between females' comprehension and vocabulary acquisition ($r = .53$, $p < .01$, moderate) is stronger than males' ($r = .40$, $p < .01$, moderate). The results suggest that compared to females, males may not completely rely on vocabulary to comprehend the content; they likely utilized other resources. As to the condition of viewing a difficult videotext, the correlations between the two scores for both genders are the same ($r = .49$, $p < .01$, moderate). These results suggest a relationship, but do not imply causality. At present, the results of correlation tests confirm a supportive relationship between comprehension and vocabulary for both genders when viewing easy and difficult videotexts.

TABLE 5.
PEARSON CORRELATIONS TEST SUMMARY FOR FEMALE AND MALE PARTICIPANTS' VIDEO COMPREHENSION AND VOCABULARY IMMEDIATE TESTS

Gender	Text	Correlations (VC-VR)	Sig. (2-tailed)
Female	Easy	.53**	.000
(n=34)	Difficult	.49**	.000
Male	Easy	.40**	.000
(n=74)	Difficult	.49**	.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

IV.   CONCLUSION

It is common for the instructor to teach learners with videotexts. No instructor would want to set a curriculum that would unduly disadvantage one particular gender group of students. Therefore, it is important to determine whether or not video comprehension is truly representative of a gender's group underlying ability. At present, the study was set out to determine whether there were gender differences in comprehension, vocabulary immediate acquisition, and vocabulary retention of videotexts varying levels of videotext difficulty. Results of the present study provide potentially useful data for better understanding both genders' second language learning in a video-based CALL context. I described what the data suggested about the development of second language comprehension ability and vocabulary acquisition in terms of different levels of text difficulty. In general, gender differences emerged in tasks of comprehending videotexts

and learning vocabulary. Armed with the statistically significant results, instructional recommendations were presented to elaborate video segment selection for students and further enhance the instruction of video comprehension.

First, applying easy videotexts to foster students' comprehension and vocabulary learning. From two within group comparisons, another general finding suggests that using easy videotexts, both males and females significantly acquire vocabulary as soon as they complete viewing the assigned video segment. This finding was consistent with the result found in earlier reading comprehension research that the text type (the level of text difficulty) has an impact on reading comprehension (B ügel & Buunk, 1996).

Second, encouraging students to apply their prior world knowledge to make sense of the content of videotexts. This is because the significantly greater comprehension of difficult videotexts observed in the male group in this study. Kintsch (1998) conceptualized comprehension as a paradigm for cognition and stated that all cognitive processes required knowledge. As the case of videotext comprehension in this study, male participants' prior knowledge probably foster their comprehension. The teacher may choose videotexts with topics familiar to the students. When viewing such kind of videotext, students may rely on their prior knowledge rather than word-by-word translation.

Third, instructing students the strategy of grasping main ideas in the videotext. Most reading comprehension educators agree that catching main ideas is a key to effective comprehension. In this study, no significant result was found in males and females' video comprehension test scores on a difficult videotext. Moreover, earlier research revealed that reasoning and catching main idea were males' favorite cognitive behavior. The teacher may train the students the strategy of grasping key concepts in the text. In addition, the teacher may conduct some activities themed at key concepts, such as listing out key concepts or write a brief summary after viewing the video.

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Lexical Inferencing Strategies for Dealing with Unknown Words in Reading—A Contrastive Study between Filipino Graduate Students and Chinese Graduate Students

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Abstract—**This study examined the lexical strategies used by EFL learners and ESL learners when they encountered unknown words while reading. It aimed to explore the following research questions: 1. Do Chinese the graduate students and the Filipino graduate students employ lexical inferencing to deal with unknown words in reading? 2. What lexical inferring strategies do the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students use to deal with unknown words in reading? 3. Is there any difference in the employment of inferring strategies between the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students? If yes, what is the difference? 4. Do lexical inferring strategies lead to incidental vocabulary learning? The results of this study provided positive answers to all the questions except for no further evidence for gaining new vocabulary incidentally by lexical inferencing strategies. This research produces a new insight into the impact of lexical inferencing strategies on vocabulary learning and offers some suggestions to pedagogic vocabulary practice.**

Index Terms—**lexical inferencing strategies, unknown words, incidental vocabulary learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension is regarded as both a process and a product of communication with a writer. To achieve successful reading comprehension, a reader needs "a variety of highly flexible process called comprehension strategies" (May, 2001, p. 119). Vocabulary development is considered as one of the important strategies in reading comprehension (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nation & Coady, 1988; Stoller & Grabe, 1993). It is commonly agreed by teachers and researchers that vocabulary knowledge and reading have a close relationship. A reader who has much vocabulary knowledge can comprehend a text better. Limited lexical knowledge discourages reading and, simultaneously, a lack of reading restricts vocabulary growth (Coady, 1997). "The higher the academic level, the greater the vocabulary mastery needed" (Paribarht, & Wesche, 1999, p. 196). To become a successful, advanced reader, a learner will need to learn to use different strategies to deal with unknown words encountered in reading. Generally, a good reader has appropriate strategies to deal with unknown words in reading such as guessing or inferring the meaning of unknown words in a text. Therefore lexical inferencing strategy plays an important role in dealing with unknown words encountered in reading. Since more and more teachers and researchers have come to understand the role of the lexicon in language learning and communication, a great number of researches have been conducted on lexical inferrencing and vocabulary development. Such researches contain studies on the positive effect of the lexical inference strategies on reading comprehension and problems in inferring the meanings of vocabulary from context.

A. Positive Effect of Lexical Inferences on Reading Comprehension

Inferencing is defined as a cognitive process that utilizes "familiar attributes and contexts" to recognize something unfamiliar in reading (Paribarht, & Wesche, 1999, p. 198). Lexical inferencing refers to the process of "making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in light of all available linguistic cues in combinations with the learner's general knowledge of the world, her awareness of context and her relevant linguistic knowledge" (Haastrup, 1991, p. 40). In return, "well-elaborated semantic knowledge, which includes developing knowledge of usage, collocations and other lexico-grammatical characteristics", is primarily gained through learning words by inferring strategies in reading (Hunt, & Beglar, 2005, p. 28). Huckin and Bloch (1993) conducted an exploratory study; using think-aloud protocols to investigate the inferring strategies by three intermediate NNs graduate students when they encountered unfamiliar words in their course reading comprehension. The study discovered that context clues, especially local ones were the main inferring strategies that students successfully used in solving unknown words. It also found that the reason why the students got unsuccessful guessing was that students wrongly assumed that they knew the word. The three participants were observed to use the same strategies to deal with each word they encountered: first, they brought the meaning of the word that assumed to be known into the reading comprehension without checking the context clues,

which sometimes led to misinterpretation of the words that had other meanings. Second, they often guessed the meaning of a word by using morphological analysis, combining with context clues in the text if they knew part of the word. Third, they used context clues to make the guess of a completely unknown word. It was notable that this study was conducted "under the presumption that a complete context was provided to infer the meaning of the 'unknown' word" (Roskams, 2005, p. 68). The same results were found in Chern's study (1993), the participants utilized local clues to successfully guess the meaning of the new words. In Johnson & Yau's study (1996, see Roskams, 2005, p. 69), they also used think-aloud, but the text is much difficult because 70% of the words were new words to the participants. The participants were Chinese (Cantonese) and were observed to use "a top-down lexical processing survival strategy" to guess the unknown words. The participants were found to "make wild guesses for unknown words" without any attempt to check their understanding of these words from further context clues. DeBot, Paribakht and Wesche (1997) carried out an introspective study to observe how readers dealt with unknown words they encountered while reading. The participants were 10 intermediate ESL learners in Quebec. The study displayed that the participants ignored about half the assumed unknown words, focusing mainly on content words (nouns, verbs and adjectives) and the participants were found to use sentence level grammatical knowledge, word morphology and punctuation. Very few participants used discourse level clues. Paribakht and Wesche (1999) conducted another introspective study to identify the strategies and the kinds of knowledge and information that readers may use to handle the new L2 words they came across during reading and explored the process leading to expansion of vocabulary knowledge through reading. The participants were 10 intermediate-level students in a university ESL class with different L1 backgrounds (Chinese, French, Spanish, Vietnamese, Farsi and Arabic). The results of this study demonstrated that the participants applied different strategies to inferring word meanings from a variety of clues such as synonym, collocation, etc. in a text and other ones like prior knowledge, world knowledge. The participants were observed to mainly use sentence-level grammatical knowledge in lexical inferencing, and sometimes combining with word morphology, punctuation and world knowledge. Notable individual differences in the knowledge sources appeared in this study may be due to "the individual's previous L2 learning experience, their L1 and their familiarity with the text topic" (Paribakht & Wesche 1999, p. 214). Their study also provided new insights and understanding of incidental vocabulary learning.

B.   Problems of Lexical Inferences in Reading

In Hirsh and Nation's study (1992), even though for less proficient learners, enlarging vocabulary through inferring unknown word meaning can be achieved by explicit instruction and learning, they discovered that too many unknown words prevented participants from inferring vocabulary from context successfully. They drew a conclusion from their study that in an authentic text, for less proficient EFL learners, a very limited frequency vocabulary may lead to the failure of inferring the meanings of unknown words. Carnine, Kameenui, and Coyle (1984) and Haynes (1984) explained that the closeness, the clearness of relevant clues and their degree of concreteness determine correct lexical inferences. When a text does not supply clear and enough clues for unknown words, it is very hard for readers, particularly for less proficiency readers, to figure out the unknown word meaning. Fukkink, Blok, and De Glopper (2001) also stated that partially and completely incorrect inferences may happen if a text does not supply readers with enough information and context for the unknown words; readers do not have prior knowledge or world knowledge of the topic; if there is more than one interpretation of one unknown word which makes readers difficult to determine its meaning, and if readers can not use the strategy of morphological and syntactic clues. Nation (2001) emphasized that the reoccurrence of an unknown word in different contexts without the help of the other relevant clues can influence readers on correctly inferring the meaning of an unknown word.

C.   Classification Type of Lexical Inferencing

The examination of lexical inferencing often needs to consider the following two aspects. One is using linguistic and other knowledge to infer the unknown words; the other is using the cognitive processes to infer the meaning of new words. Actually, it is difficult to separate the knowledge and process in that "although serial hypothesizing, guessing and decision-making processes seem to be governed by conscious decision making and can be followed in a think-aloud protocol, many generation and recognition activities are relatively unanalysable, because they are unconscious and possibly parallel processes and therefore readers are not able to report them" (Roskams, 2005, p. 71). The following is the parameters used in the lexical inferencing study (adapted from Roskams, 2005, pp, 71-72):

1. INITIAL IDENTIFICATION (Recognition processes)

Word visual recognition: (categories include: no recognition, assume recognize form but forgotten or never knew the meaning, assume recognize form and know meaning)

2. STRATEGIC RESPONSES

Analysis of relevant information, synthesis of a working definition including selective updating of previous knowledge. The sources of analysis can be inferred in many cases as follows:

Guess using extra textual (thematic or world) knowledge

Guess using discourse context i.e. outside the sentence in which the word occurred (using forward or backward context)

Guess using local (sentence level) context

Guess using association or collocation knowledge (i.e. a clue word)

Guess using syntactic knowledge

Guess using visual form (similarity or morphological understanding)

Guess using phonological similarity

All the previous studies presented above seemed to explore effectiveness of lexical inferencing strategies used in dealing with unknown words on the L2 vocabulary acquisition. Few studies have reached the comparison of the lexical inferencing strategies employed by readers from different L1 background in English reading. Therefore this study aimed to investigate the inferring strategies that the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students employed to deal with unknown words they encountered while reading. This present study sought to explore the following research questions:

1. Do the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students in this study employ lexical inferencing to deal with unknown words in reading?

2. What inferring strategies do the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students use to deal with unknown words in reading?

3. Is there any difference in the employment of inferring strategies between the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students? If yes, what is the difference?

4. Do inferring strategies lead to incidental vocabulary learning?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Thirty-four (34) graduate students were involved in this study. Of the 34 participants, 17 were Filipino graduate students pursuing Master Degree of Teaching English Language at College of Education, De La Salle University at the time of this study. The other 17 students were Chinese graduate students studying at different colleges, in De La Salle University and University of Philippines. Most of them were studying at De La Salle University and only one was at University of Philippines when the study was conducted. Eleven (11) out of 17 Chinese students were also pursuing Master Degree of Teaching English Language, two MBA, another two Science in Information Technology, one Computer Science and another Environmental Science and Ecological Management. The years that they had been exposed to English ranged from 7years to 25 years.

B. Material

The material used in this study was a task sheet, the purpose of which was to examine the lexical inferencing strategies and to obtain some information of incidental vocabulary learning. It contained an article and a post quiz. The article was a 240-word text adapted from Roskam's study (2005). Twelve (12) words were underlined for the purpose of examining the strategies for the unknown words. Before the study, the text with the 12 words underlined were given to 10 Chinese graduate students studying Teaching English Language to identify that these words would be more likely to be unknown words and they confirmed that they knew most of the words except for the twelve underlined words. The 12 underlined words fell into three categories of part of speech: nouns, verbs and adjectives. These words were selected in that the discourse context provides enough clues for the students to infer the meanings of these words even though they could not understand the text or had not any prior knowledge about it. The repetition of the target words were all underlined for the purpose of examining whether the repetition could help the students infer the meanings of the unknown words and whether it could aid them to learn these words from the text. Two of target words appeared twice in the text and one appeared three times in different contexts.

The post quiz consisted of three parts. The first part was a vocabulary task in which the participants were requested to choose the best definition of the underlined words from four given choices. The second part covered the strategies that the participants used to guess the unknown words while reading the text. In this part, the participants were expected to choose the strategies they employed in reading the text and provide some information about the other strategies they used when reading the text except the ones already included in this part. The last part involved three questions about the identification of the new words in the text, including or excluding the underlined words and the incidental learning of any new words from the text.

The level of context support had been examined by researcher Tim Roskams. He asked 6 native competent speakers of English to infer the words in a gap cloze. Thus it is confirmed that "this is of limited use in estimating guess ability for the L2 readers as the types of clues that L1 readers use (e.g. collocation) are often unavailable to L2 readers" (Roskams ,2005, p. 73).

C. Procedures

The participants were presented with a task sheet that consisted of the text in which 12 target words were underlined and the post quiz which comprised of three parts. After finishing reading the text, they were then asked to do the Post Quiz. The first part was the vocabulary task in which they were requested to choose the best definition of the underlined words from four given definitions. In the second part that involved the strategies they used to guess the unknown words while reading, they were expected to choose the strategies they employed in reading the text and provide some information about the other strategies they used except the ones listed in this part. The last part included three questions

(see Appendix A). In this part, they were expected to answer questions whether they came across any new words in the text, whether they encountered other unknown word besides the underlined ones and whether they had learned any new words from the text. As for the second and the last question, they were asked to list the unknown words they found and the words that had been learned from the text. Almost all the Filipino graduate students finished the reading and the post quiz within 10- 15 minutes. Most of the Chinese graduate students did it within 15-25 minutes. Some of them did the task at home and gave the task sheets to the researcher one or more days later.

D. Data Analysis

Data were answers collected from the task sheets that were used to examine and assess the inferring strategies that the participants employed in reading the text. Mean (see Table 1) was applied to investigate what strategies or what inferencing strategies the participants utilized in reading the text. The comparison of the differences of the lexical inferencing strategies was produced by examining the mean of the lexical inferencing strategies used by the Filipino and the Chinese participants. The statistic means of mean and the standard deviation (see Table 2) were applied to illustrate the difference and discrepancy in using lexical inferring strategies to figure out the meanings of the underlined words in the text between the Filipino and the Chinese participants by comparing incorrect understanding of these underline words between the two groups of the graduate Students. Mean was used to disclose the number of the new words that the participants incidentally learned from the text (see Table 5).

III. RESULTS

TABLE 1.
LEXICAL INFERENCING STRATEGIES FOR UNKNOWN WORDS

Employed Strategies	Filipino graduate students (N=17)		Chinese graduate students (N=17)	
	N	mean	N	mean
Guess using local (sentence-level) context	10	58.82	12	70.59
Guess using association or collocation knowledge (i.e. a clue word)	11	64.71	11	64.71
Guess using syntactic knowledge	6	35.29	5	29.41
Guess using visual form (similarity or morphological understanding)	4	23.53	9	52.94
Guess using extra textual (thematic or world) knowledge	9	52.94	7	41.18
Guess using discourse context i.e. outside the sentence in which the word occurred (using forward or backward context)	5	29.41	14	82.35
Other strategies or skills used to deal with the unknown words in the article (such as consult a dictionary)			3	17.65

Table 1 presents the mean of strategies that the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students used to deal with the unknown words encountered in reading the text. As shown in Table 1, almost all the participants used the lexical inferencing strategies. Only three of the Chinese graduate students used the strategy of consulting the dictionary. There was similarity in the strategy adoption between them. The same mean of the number of the students (64.71) was observed in choosing the lexical strategy of guessing unknown words by using association or collocation knowledge. Association refers to the word association that a given word is associated with the first word that comes to one's mind and is connected with the given word, such as an antonym, synonym and so on. Collocation means that certain words often co-occur and they are often in a syntactic relation such as verb-object ('take care'), and in a lexical relation such as antonym, synonym and superordinate (such as furniture and table, chair, sofa, etc.) and so on. It seemed that word association and collocation were most preferred by both the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students due to the fact that it was the easiest and commonest way to guess unknown words. The other strategies preferred by both the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students were guessing using local (sentence-level) context, guessing using extra textual (thematic or world knowledge) and guessing using syntactic knowledge. Local (sentence-level) context means sentence-level grammar that "learners frequently used their knowledge of relationships among sentence components including word-class information, often signaled by word order, in dealing with unknown nouns and adjective" (Paribarht, & Wesche, 1999, p. 207). Extra textual (thematic or world knowledge) refers to the familiarity with the topic and the content of the reading material, which can help readers to infer unknown words. Syntactic knowledge involves sentence structures and word order also can help readers to guess the meanings of unknown words. More participants from both countries in this study chose the four strategies explained above compared with the other strategies. However, there were some discrepancies between the strategies employed by the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. From Table 1, some differences were found in using the lexical inferencing strategies between the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. The Chinese graduate students in making use of strategy of guessing using discourse context, that is, using outside the sentence in which the word occurred (using forward or backward context) outnumbered (82.35%) the Filipino graduate students (29.41%). The number of the Chinese graduate students was much larger than that of the Filipino graduate students in employing strategies of guessing using local (sentence-level) context (70.59% vs 58.82%) and guessing using visual form that refers to applying word derivations such as prefixes and suffixes as well as grammatical inflections (52.94% vs 23.53%). However, in using syntactic knowledge and extra textual (thematic or world) knowledge, more Filipino

graduate students (35.29% in using syntactic knowledge and 52.94% in using extra textual knowledge) than the Chinese graduate students (29.41% in syntactic knowledge and 41.18% in extra textual knowledge). No Filipino graduate students were found to use other non-lexical inferencing strategies in this study. Table 1 seemed to indicate that the Chinese graduate students preferred using lexical inferencing strategies more to deal with unknown words than   the Filipino graduate students did while reading in English.

TABLE 2.
COMPARISON OF INITIAL IDENTIFICATION OF WORDS IN READING BETWEEN THE FILIPINO GRADUATE STUDENTS AND THE CHINESE GRADUATE STUDENTS

N=17	No. of unknown words incorrectly understood by individual student		Response to Question 1 about word visual recognition			
	Filipino students	Chinese students	Filipino students N=17		Chinese students N=17	
1	2	2	Yes		Yes	
2	2	1	Yes		Yes	
3	1	7	Yes		Yes	
4	1	2	No		Yes	
5	3	4	Yes		Yes	
6	1	3	No		Yes	
7	1	3	No		Yes	
8	6	6	No		Yes	
9	2	6	Yes		Yes	
10	5	2	No		Yes	
11	3	2	No		Yes	
12	2	3	No		Yes	
13	1	3	No		Yes	
14	1	3	No		No	
15	1	2	No		No	
16	2	3	No		No	
17	4	8	No		No	
	Total no. of incorrect inferred words (38)	Total no. of incorrect inferred words (60)	mean of 'yes' 29.41	mean of 'No' 70.59	mean of 'yes' 76.47	mean of 'No' 23.53

Table 2 demonstrated the comparison of initial identification of words and the number of the words incorrectly understood or inferred by individual Filipino graduate students and Chinese graduate students in reading the text. Initial identification of words is one of the lexical inferencing strategies in accordance with researcher Roskams (2005). It refers to word visual recognition, including three conceptions. First, students cannot identify the unknown word to them. Second, assume that they can identify the form of the known words but have forgotten in reading a text or never knew the meanings of the words and assume that they can recognize the form and know the meanings of the words. From Table 2, it can be found that 70.59% of the Filipino graduate students failed to recognize all the unknown words because they did not correctly understood all the new words in the text. Almost all the Filipino students who reported that they did not encounter any unknown words made mistakes in understanding the new words. It was worth noting that students No. 8, No. 10 and No. 17 who said that they did not come across any unknown words in the text made more wrong inferences of these unknown words (6, 5 and 4 wrong inferences respectively made by the three students). Similar results were found on some of Chinese graduate students. Chinese student No. 17 who reported that he/she did not encounter any unknown words failed to get 8 unknown words correctly understood. The other Chinese students No. 3, 8 and 9 made more than half wrong inferences out of 12 underlined words in the text. One of the main reasons why these students thought there were no unknown words for them may be that they must assume they recognized the form and the meaning of these unknown words without checking them in the context of the text. Conversely, the Chinese graduate students (76.47%) could recognize the unknown words, but they did not successfully infer the meaning of all the unknown word from the context. Compared with the Filipino graduate students (a total of 38 incorrectly understood words), the Chinese graduate students made more mistakes (a total of 60) in inferring unknown words they encountered in reading English.

TABLE 3.
COMPARISON OF INCORRECT UNDERSTANDING OF THE UNKNOWN WORDS BETWEEN THE FILIPINO GRADUATE STUDENTS AND THE CHINESE GRADUATE STUDENTS

Means	Filipino students	Chinese students
mean	2.235294	3.529412
STDEV	1.521899	2.003673

Table 3 shows the comparison of incorrect understanding of the unknown words between the Filipino graduate students and Chinese graduate students. As revealed in Table 3, the number of the incorrect understanding of the unknown words by Chinesestudents was larger than the Filipino students, and the discrepancy of the Chinese students' level of vocabulary knowledge is much larger (SD =2.0036) than that of the Filipino students (SD= 1.5219). Referred to

Table 2, the number of the unsuccessful inferred word by the Chinese students ranged from 1 to 8. One of the students misunderstood eight unknown words, which meant that he/she could not infer 66.67% of the unknown words; the other student misunderstood seven, about 58.33% of the unknown words in the task. Another two students failed to infer six unknown words (50%) from the text. By contrast, the Filipino students had more words correctly understood. Only one student got 6 (50%) unknown word incorrectly inferred.

TABLE 4.
COMPARISON OF THE INFLUENCE OF WORD OCCURRENCE ON LEXICAL INFERENCING

Words	Occurrence in the text	Filipino graduate students		Chinese graduate students	
		N	mean	N	mean
Critical	3	17	100	13	76.47
Drastic	1	14	82.35	11	64.71
Deprivation	2	17	100	12	70.59
mop up	1	10	58.82	8	47.06
Milestone	1	16	94.12	15	88.24
Quotient	1	15	88.24	15	88.24
Utter	1	3	17.65	7	41.18
Hubbub	1	12	70.59	13	76.47
Cue	3	13	76.47	8	47.06
Babbling	1	17	100	14	82.35
Clinging	1	16	94.12	12	70.59
Trigger	2	17	100	15	88.24

Table 4 presents the comparison of the influence of word occurrence on lexical inferencing. The results presented in Table 4 indicated that the occurrence of unknown words seemed to have an impact on the lexical inferencing used by the Filipino graduate students. As we can see, "critical" appeared three times, "deprivation' and "trigger" twice in the text; as a result, all the Filipino graduate students successfully obtained the meanings of these possibly unknown words. About 76.47% of the Filipino graduate students correctly inferred the words "cue" that appeared three times in the text. Nevertheless, the occurrence of the target words seemed not to help the Chinese graduate students infer the meanings of these high-occurrence words compared with the other words of low occurrence. Only 47.06% of the Chinese graduate students could figure out the meaning of the word "cue" compared with the Filipino graduate students. The mean of the correct guess of the other three high-occurrence word "critical", "deprivation' and "trigger" was much lower than that of the Filipino graduate students.

Table 5 shows the comparison of the words reported to be learned incidentally by lexical inferencing in reading between the Filipino and the Chinese Graduate Students. Incidental vocabulary learning refers to unconsciously gaining some new words in reading a text. "Such learning has been called "incidental" because it occurs as learners are focused on something other than word learning itself" (Paribarht, & Wesche, 1999, p. 196). The results shown in Table 5 demonstrated that to some extent, the Chinese graduate students seemed to gain some new words through incidental learning when using lexical inferencing to deal with these unknown words. All the target words were reported to be learned to some extent by Chinese participants. It is worth noting that 64.71% of the Chinese graduate students declared that they had learned the unknown word "hubbub" when inferring the meaning of the word from the context. Similarly, 35.29% of the Filipino graduate students said that they gained the word too. Besides the underlined word in the text, it was found that the other words declared by Chinese participants as unknown such as infant, starve ,discouraged and nonverbal were also learned by some Chinese participants in this study. Unsurprisingly, the Filipino graduate students did not report that they had learned any other word except "hubbub" and "mop up". As to the other words, none of the Filipino graduate students reported that they had learned any of them. For most of the Filipino graduate students, the main reason may be that they assumed these words were not the unknown words to them (see Table 2) and they had already grasped them. However, those who claimed that they thought some of the underlined words were unknown words did not report that they had learned any of them. It seemed that the Filipino graduate students were not benefited from reading in incidental vocabulary learning in this study.

TABLE 5.
COMPARISON OF THE WORDS REPORTED TO BE LEARNED INCIDENTALLY BY LEXICAL INFERENCING IN READING BETWEEN THE FILIPINO AND THE
CHINESE GRADUATE STUDENTS

Words	the Filipino graduate students N=17		the Chinese Graduate Students N=17	
	mean of correctly understood	mean of incidental learning	mean of correctly understood	mean of incidental learning
Critical	100	0	76.47	17.65
Drastic	82.35	0	64.71	35.29
Deprivation	100	0	70.59	29.41
Mop up	58.82	5.88	47.06	23.53
Milestone	94.12	0	88.24	17.65
Quotient	88.24	0	88.24	35.29
Utter	17.65	0	41.18	23.53
Hubbub	70.59	35.29	76.47	64.71
Cue	76.47	0	47.06	23.53
Babbling	100	0	82.35	41.18
Clinging	94.12	0	70.59	17.65
Trigger	100	0	88.24	11.76
Infant		0		5.88
Starve		0		5.88
Discouraged		0		5.88
Nonverbal		0		5.88

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Lexical Inferencing Strategies

The first three research questions involved the lexical strategies employed by the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. As for the first research question whether the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students in this study employed lexical inferencing to deal with unknown words in reading, the results in this study provided a confirmative answer. From Table 1, it was noticed that almost all the participants used the lexical inferencing strategies. Only three of the Chinese graduate students reported themselves to consult the dictionary for the unknown words while reading the text besides the use of the inference strategies. Both the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students preferred the same strategies for dealing with lexical problems while reading. It was obvious that inferencing was the most common strategy used by the advanced learners in a university setting to deal with lexical problems encountered in reading English. Compared with the Filipino graduate students, it seemed that the Chinese graduate students preferred using lexical strategies more to deal with unknown words. The reason may be that compared to English as a second language (ESL) learners, EFL learners often lack an adequate amount of oral or written input; consequently, it is very difficult for them to acquire the vocabulary around them so that they need to compensate for enlarging vocabulary by reading more. In EFL classroom reading instruction such as in China, learners are trained to use different strategies to solving the lexical problems, and inferring unknown words from the context is one of the important strategies they are often taught to use.

As to the second research question of what inferring strategies the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students used to deal with unknown words in reading, Table 1 supplies the answers. The strategy of guessing unknown words by using association or collocation knowledge, guessing using local (sentence-level) context, guessing using extra textual (thematic or world knowledge) and guessing using syntactic knowledge were preferred by both the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students, which is consistent with the results of study done by Paribakht and Wesche (1999). Besides, forward and backward strategy and association or collocation knowledge strategy were most used by the Chinese graduate students. It was displayed that the text had enough clues to help the participants to infer the meaning of these unknown words. For example, the word "drastic" can be guessed using forward and backward strategy and association or collocation knowledge strategy. The clue in the forward context may be "a critical period of life can be starved and damaged" and the backward context "died". The word "died" and "drastic" belong to the collocation and Table 3 shows that most of the participants successfully inferred the meaning of this word. However, it was strange that most of the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students both failed to use the two strategies applied in dealing with "drastic" to infer the meaning of the word "cue". This failure may be caused by the possibility that the participants assumed that they knew the meaning of a word in context and this assumption was associated with less checking of the word in its context. Only 47.06% of the Chinese graduate students

and 76.47% of the Filipino graduate students figured out the meaning of the word. It was worth noting that extra textual knowledge including semantic and world knowledge was of great importance in helping inferring unknown words. From Table 1, the Filipino graduate students were observed to use this strategy more than the Chinese graduate students and most of them succeeded in inferring the unknown words in most of the cases, which may be due to the fact that all the Filipino participants were the graduate students studying Teaching English Language so that most of them should be familiar with the topic of the text--critical period of language learning that is a vital conception in the development of language in the foundation of linguistics. By contrast to the Filipino graduate students, the Chinese graduate students seemed to use less extra textual knowledge to work out the meanings of the unknown words, which may be due to lack of the knowledge talked about in the text because seven of them were not the students of MATEL and they were not familiar with the topic.

With respect to the third research question about whether there was any difference in the employment of inferring strategies between the Chinese graduate students and the Filipino graduate students and if yes, what the difference was, there were notable distinctions in using inferring strategies between the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. First, as far as choosing lexical inferenceing strategies was concerned, the Chinese graduate students appeared to prefer making use of strategy of guessing using discourse context, that is, using outside the sentence in which the word occurred, guessing using local (sentence-level) context and guessing using visual form (similarity or morphological understanding), which may be due to the fact that in Chinese classroom instruction, learners are often introduced and trained to use the strategies of using forward and backward clues, the word-form knowledge and the grammar analysis of the sentences to infer the meaning of a word. Differently, in using syntactic knowledge and extra textual (thematic or world) knowledge, more Filipino graduate students than the Chinese graduate students chose to utilize this strategy, which was likely that the familiarity of the topic of the text assisted them to guess the unknown words easily without the necessity of using other strategies. Thus it was not surprising to find that no Filipino graduate students were found to use other non-lexical inferencing strategies in this study. From Table 1, it can be concluded that the Chinese graduate students preferred using lexical strategies more to deal with unknown words than the Filipino graduate students did while reading in English. Second, Table 2 disclosed that the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students behaved differently in recognizing unknown words. It was implied that the cause which made the Filipino graduate students fail to recognize all the unknown words may be that they assumed they recognized the form and the meaning of the unknown words. This result agreed with that of study conducted by Huckin and Bloch (1993). One obvious cause of failure was that the readers claimed to know a word but, in fact, did not know an appropriate meaning for the text. Another was that they might force a meaning (often from assumed knowledge or association) into the text even where this meaning was clearly not appropriate. Although the Chinese graduate students could recognize the unknown words, they did not successfully infer the meanings of some unknown words from the context. Compared with the Filipino graduate students, the Chinese graduate students made more wrong inferences of unknown words they encountered in reading English. One of the reasons may also be that they assumed to know the word but, in fact, did not figure out the correct meaning for the text. Some of the participants may not bother themselves to reread the text and use the context clues to check their inference of the word. This may be the main obstacle to prevent the participants from using proper inferencing strategies to work out the meaning of words. Third, as shown in Table 3, it seemed that more unsuccessful inference of the unknown words was made by Chinese students than did by the Filipino students, and the discrepancy of the Chinese students' level of vocabulary knowledge is much larger (SD=2.0036) than that of the Filipino students (SD= 1.5219). The number of the unsuccessful inferred word by the Chinese students ranged from 1 to 8. This may be caused by the very limited vocabulary knowledge because some participants found some other unknown words in the text besides the underlined ones. Too many unknown words may hinder the Chinese participants from understanding the text and making correct inference to the unknown words even though the text provided obvious clues. Fourth, some obvious difference could be discovered from Table 4 that exhibited the influence of the occurrence of unknown words on lexical inferencing. It seemed that the occurrence of unknown words seemed to have an influence on the lexical inferencing used by the Filipino graduate students but not on the inferencing strategies by the Chinese graduate students. The occurrence of high-frequent unknown words seemed unhelpful to the Chinese participants in the correct inferences of these unknown words, which may have the reasons that some such words occurred in different contexts and had a different meaning in each context. Finally, the Chinese graduate students seemed to gain some words through incidental learning when using lexical inferencing to deal with these unknown words, while the Filipino graduate students did not report that they had learned any other word except "hubbub". The most possible reason was that they assumed they did not regard these words as unknown ones so that they paid no attention to these words or they assumed they had already gained them.

B. Evidence for Incidental Vocabulary Learning

The fourth research question entailed the incidental vocabulary learning by lexical inferencing while reading between the Filipino Graduate Students and the Chinese Graduate Students. The results of this study did not permit an unequivocal affirmation. It only provided a little evidence for incidental vocabulary learning. From Table 4, it was observed that to some extent, the Chinese graduate students seemed to gain some words through incidental learning when using lexical inferencing to deal with these unknown words. Sixty-four point seven one percent (64.71%) of the Chinese graduate students declared that they had learned the unknown word "hubbub" when inferring the meaning of

the word from the context. Thirty-five point two nine (35.29%) of the Filipino graduate students claimed that they gained this word too. Besides the underlined word in the text, it was found that the other words declared by Chinese participants as unknown words such as infant, starve, discouraged and nonverbal were also learned by some participants in this study. However, it was true that this study did not provide further evidence to confirm that these words were actually grasped by the participants. Maybe further study is needed to examine whether unknown words that were reported to be gained incidentally in referring their meanings are acquired actually by readers or not. Paribakht, et al. (1999, p. 215) pointed out that "vocabulary learning outcomes from reading will always be unpredictable because different learners attend to different words, invest different levels of effort into figuring out the meanings of unknown words while per tendency to use particular strategies that can help them to successfully solve their lexical problems". Therefore, the results of this study imply that attending to unknown vocabulary when reading for comprehension seemed to help the participants to develop their vocabulary in increasing vocabulary breadth but not developing fluency with unknown vocabulary because it was displayed that the correct lexical inference did not always happen in this study.

V. CONCLUSION

This study examined the lexical inferencing strategies used by the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. Some conclusions can be drawn from this study. Firstly, it was confirmed by the results of this study that both the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students did employ the lexical inferencing strategies while reading English. Secondly, it seemed that the Chinese graduate students favored using lexical strategies more to deal with unknown words than the Filipino graduate students. Moreover, the strategy of guessing unknown words by using association or collocation knowledge, guessing using local (sentence- level) context, guessing using extra textual (thematic or world knowledge) and guessing using syntactic knowledge were preferred by both the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. It was found that forward and backward strategy and association or collocation knowledge strategy were most used by the Chinese graduate students. Thirdly, there were notable distinctions in using inferring strategies between the Filipino graduate students and the Chinese graduate students. The Chinese graduate students seemed to like using strategy of guessing using discourse context, local (sentence-level) context and visual form (similarity or morphological understanding), while syntactic knowledge and extra textual (thematic or world) knowledge were preferred by more Filipino graduate students than the Chinese graduate students. Fourthly, it is very dangerous for readers to assume to know the word but, in fact, did not figure out the correct meaning for the text because this may lead to the wrong interpretations of the words and thus make it difficult to understand a text, even miscomprehending a text. Fifth, it seemed that the high-occurrence of unknown words were not beneficial to the Chinese participants in the correct inference of these unknown word meanings, if these words occurred in different contexts and had a different meaning in each context. Finally, as for the incidental vocabulary learning, the results of this study did not provide enough evidence. It seemed that attending to unknown vocabulary when reading for comprehension seemed to help the participants to get to know some unknown words but not completely gain the use of the words.

The findings of this study have implications for language teaching. First, since the results of this study exhibited that lexical inferencing strategies was the most common used strategies and they could affect the inference of a word's meaning, it is very important for teachers to train students, particularly, EFL learners, to use appropriate lexical inferencing strategies to deal with unknown words while reading because they are lack of opportunities to obtain words around them. The only way for EFL learners to learn English language and its vocabulary is reading as much as possible. Second, at the beginning of the classroom training of lexical referring strategies, a text with enough inference clues should be presented to learners to help them excel at applying these lexical inferring strategies to inferring unknown words in reading. Third, learners should be instructed to attend to those words that are key to understand the text even though they are assumed to be known words because they may have the different meanings in that text. The best way is to check the meaning of the word with context clues to infer its appropriate meaning. Fourth, advanced ESL and EFL learners like the participants in this study need to read more authentic reading materials to increase their vocabulary and reading comprehension since the lexical inferencing strategies seemed to have a positive influence on vocabulary learning. However, since the results of this study did not provide enough evidence that lexical inference could help to gain the vocabulary, teachers should provide systematic, explicit vocabulary instruction to help them to expand, consolidate and elaborate their new lexicons encountered in reading (Hunt, & Beglar, 2005). Fifth, Ellis (1994) explained that new vocabulary can be acquired when learners negotiate the meaning of unknown word by joining in classroom discussions which may draw learners' attention to these words and offer chances to them to negotiate the meanings of these words and practice using them. Classroom discussions can lead to vocabulary gains for both those who lead the discussion and those who just listen to the discussion. Therefore, in classroom reading instruction, teachers should provide as many opportunities as possible to learners to have classroom discussions. Lastly, correct vocabulary inferences may need to combine several strategies such as combining inferencing with dictionary use (especially for EFL learners), using the word productively in original contexts, rereading the passage and so on.

However, this study has two limitations. First, the questions that involved the lexical inferencing strategies should be put below each underlined word in the vocabulary task in the post quiz so that the detailed information about the

concrete strategies used to infer the meaning of each unknown word could be obtained. Second, only written data from the task sheets were analyzed. Individual interview should be done to get more information on how the participants make lexical inference while reading.

APPENDIX

Task Sheets

Part I: (Adapted from Roskams, T., 2005)
Age _____ Gender_____
Course of study at present university _____
The years that have been exposed to English_____
Part II: Read the following text and do the vocabulary task.

Directions: Text with words to be inferred highlighted by occurrence and part of speech The words to be inferred are followed by a number which indicates the occurrence in the text, a notation (N=noun V=verb or gerund, A=adjective). Underlined words are those which were underlined in the text presented to students for inferring).

Our First Words is language, like food, a basic human need without which a child at a critical (1, a) period of life can be starved and damaged? Judging from the drastic (1, a) experiment of Frederick II in the thirteenth century it may be. Hoping to discover what language a child would speak if he heard no mother tongue he told the nurses to keep silent. All the infants died before the first year. But clearly there was more than language deprivation (1, n) here. What was missing was good mothering. Without good mothering, in the first year of life especially, the capacity to survive is seriously affected.

Today no such drastic (2, a) deprivation (2. n) exists as that ordered by Frederick. Nevertheless, some children are still backward in speaking. Most often the reason for this is that the mother is insensitive to the cues (1, n) and signals of the infant, whose brain is programmed to mop up (1, v) language rapidly. There are critical (2, a) times, it seems, when children learn more rapidly. If these sensitive periods are neglected, the ideal time for acquiring skills passes and they might never be learned so easily again.

A bird learns to sing and to fly rapidly at the right time, but the process is slow and hard once the critical (3, a) stage has passed. Linguists suggest that speech milestones (1, n) are reached in a fixed sequence and at a constant age, but there are cases where speech has started late in a child who eventually turns out to be of high IQ (Intelligence Quotient (1. n)). At twelve weeks a baby smiles and utters (1, v~) vowel-like sounds; at twelve months he can speak simple words and understand simple commands; at eighteen months he has a vocabulary from three to fifty words. At three he knows about 1000 words which he can put into sentences, and at four his language differs from that of his parents in style rather than grammar.

Recent evidence suggests that an infant is born with the capacity to speak. What is special about Man's brain, compared with that of the monkey, is the complex system which enables a child to connect the sight and feel of, say, a teddy-bear with the sound pattern 'teddy-bear'. And even more incredible is the young brain's ability to pick out an order in language from the hubbub (1, n) of sound around him, to analyse, to combine and recombine the parts of a language in novel ways.

But the speech has to be triggered (2, v), and this depends in the interaction between the mother and the child, where the mother recognizes the cues (2, n) and signals in the child's babbling (1, n), clinging (1, n), grasping, crying, smiling, and responds to them.

Insensitivity of the mother to these signals dulls the interaction because the child gets discouraged and sends out only the obvious signals. Sensitivity to the child's non- erbal cues (3, n) is essential to the growth and development of language.

(From an article which originally appeared in The Observer and reprinted in Maley, A and Duff, A. (1986). Beyond words: Certificate reading and listening skills. Cambridge University Press)

The Post Quiz
Directions: Please work through the following list and put a circle around the best definition of the underlined word. This is not a test so please do not use a dictionary or other text to assist you.
If you do not have any idea about the meaning of a word, please leave it blank.

1. A critical period of life:
a) slow
b) very important
c) unfortunate
d) exciting

2.A drastic experiment:
a) violent (causing hurt)
b) very important
c) exciting
d) to be published (in a journal)

3. <u>Deprivation</u> of food
a) excessive amount
b) keeping separate
c) special delivery
d) delicious kind

4. To <u>mop up</u> language:
a) absorb
b) clean up
c) forget
d) study

5. A <u>milestone</u> in speech development
a) slow growth
b) important point
c) psychological test
d) lateness

6. Intelligence <u>Quotient</u>
a) lack
b) result of division
c) measurement
d) electronic machine

7. <u>Utters</u> a sound:
a) repeat
b) speaks
c) prevents
d) tries to make

8. A <u>hubbub</u> of sound:
a) noisy confusion
b) absence
c) pleasant kind
d) hard to hear kind

9. A <u>trigger</u> to action:
a) causing violence
b) causing a start
c) causing a stop
d) something instead of

10. A <u>cue</u> in a child's behavior:
a) causing anger
b) badness
c) suggestion
d) new stage

11. <u>Clinging</u> behaviour:
loving
angry
full of wonder
holding closely

12. A <u>trigger</u> to action:
a) causing violence
b) causing a start
c) causing a stop
d) something instead of

Part III. Answer the following questions that cover the strategies or skills you employed in dealing with the unknown words in the text.

Which strategies do you employed to deal with the unknown words in the text? Put a circle around the number of your choice. You can choose more than one strategies.

Guess using local (sentence level) context

Guess using association or collocation knowledge (i.e. a clue word)

Guess using syntactic knowledge

Guess using visual form (similarity or morphological understanding)

Guess using extra textual (thematic or world) knowledge

Guess using discourse context i.e. outside the sentence in which the word occurred (using forward or backward context)

You used the other strategies or skills that were not listed above to deal with the unknown words in the article, they are_____

Part IV. Answer the following questions.

You did not encounter any unknown words in the article, did you? _____

2) Did you encounter other unknown words in the article besides the underlined ones? If yes, what are they? _____

3) Have you learned any new words from the article? If yes, what are they? _____
_____

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The Development of Study Skill Tools in Evaluating Student's Study Orientation Skills and Its Relationship towards Academic Performance

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to measure the study orientation skills and to provide remedial devices in correcting respondents' study orientation skills mistakes. The study reveals the relationship between study orientation skills and the grade point average. In addition, the classification of group achiever based on study orientation skills is identified into higher group achiever, normal group achiever and under-achiever. The remedial devices used comprise of the web-based adapted version of Study Habits and Attitudes (SSHA) questionnaires on http://survey.ump.edu.my/surveyor and http://survey.ump.edu.my/admin. Other remedial devices used are study orientation skills module, kit; Ghani's format of note-taking, DVD's and study orientation skills classes. 59 respondents were selected as the sample of study by group sampling from the Faculty of Computer System & Software Engineering and 59 respondents from the Faculty of Civil Engineering & Natural Resources. The research applies Quasi-experimental pre-test and post-test separated group design. The respondent's study orientation skills are analyzed and sorted into three groups of achievement; the higher achiever, normal achiever and under achiever. The significant difference test on study orientation skills was conducted based on pre-test and post-test mean score and the significant differences test on the academic performance was done based on grade point average scores in semester 1 and 2 of first year students. The significant difference test used paired t-test based on statistical package of social science computer program. r Pearson product-moment correlation of coefficient results will show the relationship between study orientation skills and grade point average for each group and between the groups. The internal consistency reliability of the remedial devices is measured by Cronbach's alpha score. Results obtained shows that there is a significant difference between pre-test and post test for study orientation skills for Civil Engineering & Natural Resources respondents (t = 8.47, p = 0.000) and Computer System & Software Engineering (t = 2.74, p = 0.008). Significant difference results are also shown by grade point average for both tested groups (t = 3.054, p = 0.003) and (t = 3.187, p = 0.002). A significant correlation was found on the relationship between study orientation skills and grade point average for each tested group, based on r value was 0.24 (p = 0.05) for Civil Engineering & Natural Resources and r was 0.33 (p = 0.05) for Computer System and Software Engineering. The correlation between both groups tested for study orientation skills and grade point average are r = 0.16 (p = 0.05), r = 0.15 (p = 0.05), r = 0.13 (0.05) and r = 0.31 (p = 0.01).

Index Terms—study orientation skills, study habits, study attitudes, academic performance

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning can be classified into five common domains known as cognitive, psychomotor, affective (Bloom Taxonomy), static and dynamic (Angus, 2000). Each domain is represented by theories, principles, concept, processes factors effecting learning and learning difficulties. The variety of learning approaches, learning skills and learning difficulties exist because of the individual differences (Judy et al, 2003). Obviously, there are so many factors that affect the learning process of an individual. Physical factors are among the most evident (Turiman Suandi, 2004). Physical aspects, learning atmosphere and study orientation skills (riding et al, 2003) have directly affected students learning and are directly related to their academic achievement (Abid, 2006; Alias, 1996).

Secondary school system of learning inculcate the students study orientation skills with a system where the students are dependent more on the teacher, revision workbooks, and are examination orientated. The study orientation skills they possess lie on the study habits and study attitudes that are formed during their school system and these habits are instilled in them until they pursue their studies at the tertiary level at the university. The teacher centered approach which thye encountered during their school days will create a culture of "Spoon-Feeding" students which depend so much on the teacher. (Zubir Mohamed, 1998; Wan Zahid, 1993; Rohana Zubir, 1988).

Due to the above reason in 1993 the Malaysian Ministry of Education had changed the school system into KBSR

(Integrated curriculum for primary schools) and KBSM (Integrated Curriculum for secondary schools). This system changed the teaching approach from teacher cantered to student cantered (Wan Zahid, 1993). Maznah and Yoong Suan (1995) added that KBSM (Integrated Secondary School Curriculum) is required to be practiced by deep approach learning methods as well as surface approach.

Although the new system introduced seems to be much better, but the learning style is still the same and maintained a high number of dropouts. Haslam and Haris (1993) said the system cannot be practiced 100% due to some problems in teaching techniques, student's study orientation skills or student's study habits and attitudes, case study and field project which has to be done outside school. These problems are one of the critical factors that had affected their academic performance in the examination.

In order to overcome the problem, the government took an initiative by introducing a special learning system in school known Smart School system (Azian, 2006). Smart school depends on computer and browsers based, teaching IT, centralized help desk and service centre (Goh, 2000). This project did not succeed 100% due to the study skills problems among students and effectiveness of teaching methodology among teachers (Azean, 2006). Effective teaching by the teacher is considered as one of the successful factors which influences the performance of students. Learning can be improved by improving on the effectiveness of teacher but students still show so much difficulties in adapting and adopting a system of learning in the university especially during the transitional period of their first year studies (Bojuwye, 2002). Radeliffe et al, (2003); Edwards et al (2001) said the difficulties of studies encounter come from three aspects that is of students judgment; the environment; content of study, organization and social setting.

A. Problem Statement

It is very clear that the need of good and efficient study orientation skills is a compulsory element to the students. They will encounter so many problems in their study due to the different needs of study skills and learning system (William, 2005; Kimberly, 2004). The students task in overcoming their study difficulties is a need to adapt and adopt a new academic and social environment. Understanding behaviorist study methods to the cognitive phases need to be adjusted by the students and this will always contribute the difficulties in them (Womble, 2003; Singham, 1998; Estes, 1994).

Katherene (2003) stated the obvious problem faced by these secondary school students when they study in the university or during their first year study is to adapt to the way of study. It is related to study skills parameters such as note-taking during listening to lecture, assignment writing skills library skills, examination skills, effective study techniques, and academic background. Studying in the university is a more autonomous, divergent, lecture style approach and some use e-teaching system (Syed Osman, 2005). This sort of problems actually begins when they are in the upper secondary. Nuy (1991) noted that learning in the university is a mastery of learning which encompasses highly structured learning and problem based learning. It is more on inquiry learning and student's centered learning approach. Judy (2003) stated Monash University in Australia had introduced the Monash Transition Program to help first year students in adjusting their study skills to the new teaching and learning environments and physical environment. Moffat e al. (2005) added there were several programs introduced in helping the students during their transitional period. He said that, University of Melborne's Faculty of engineering has had a purpose in building a transition program as one of the annual efforts in helping the students. This practice was also exposed to some universities in United State of America, Japan and China.

This research is attempting a new design of SOS in measuring and correcting devices in enhancing students SOS so that they can improve in their academic performance. This design will give a positive impact in helping to improve student's study orientation skills as well as their academic performance and prepare them to study in the university.

B. Objectives

The objectives to be achieved by the research are:
1. To determine the effectiveness of the study orientation skills devices in improving respondent's study orientation skills.
2. To find out the relationship between study orientation skills and the academic performance among respondents.

C. Research Hypotheses

To find out the significant differences between pre-test and post-test of SOS among respondents and the relationship between pre-test and post test of SOS and GPA scores as well as the relationship between SOS and GPA the following hypotheses have to be tested. Below are the null hypotheses to be answered by the research finding:
1. There is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test of study orientation skills respondents.
2. There is no significant difference between pre-test and post test on grade points average of respondents.
3. There is no correlation between study orientation skills and academic performance among respondents.

D. Scope of Studies

The scope of study for this research is to measure and to correct study orientation skills of first year undergraduates who are pursuing courses in Computer and Civil engineering and the relationship of SOS to their academic performance. Measuring and correcting SOS was done through innovated device which was the modification of Survey of Study

Habits & Attitudes manual that has been modified into a website. Beside the measuring and correcting website, other correcting devices were innovated and used in correcting respondents SOS. The correcting devices mentioned above are SOS text and SOS kit, SOS, Ghani's format of Note-taking, DVD and lecture on SOS (Abid, 2006; Lisa, 2005; McNamarah, 2004).

The evaluation on SOS is hundred percent based on SSHA questionnaires which is modified into a website. The study orientation skill is only measured based upon the scores in students study habits and items from the study attitudes questionnaires. The study habits score is the summation of delay avoidance and work method whereas study attitudes score is the summation of teacher approval and educational acceptance. The academic performance is evaluated based upon first semester and second semester grade point average of the first year session.

This research is also a study on the selected aspects of study orientation skills that was selected from the survey done showed in table 2; organizing skills, listening skills, reading skills, note-taking skills, presentation skills, assignment and essay writing skills and motivation skills. Second main objective is to measure the correlation between SOS and academic performance among respondents. Obviously when there is an increment in SOS there will also be an increase in academic performance (Deborah, 2006; Gurung, 2003).

II.   METHODOLOGY

A.   Research Framework

The research framework of this research comprises of pre-test, followed by the research treatment and post-test. This flow will be done in duration of two semesters of study during the first year undergraduate's period. The research framework can be illustrated as in the following diagram:
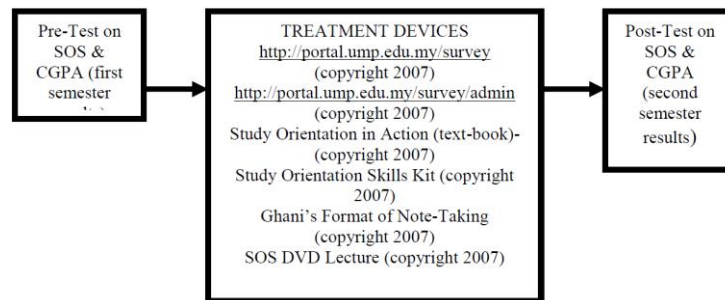

Figure 1:   The research framework

The research framework can be explained in detail by following the flows of the research process which can be simplified as follow:

B.   Research Process

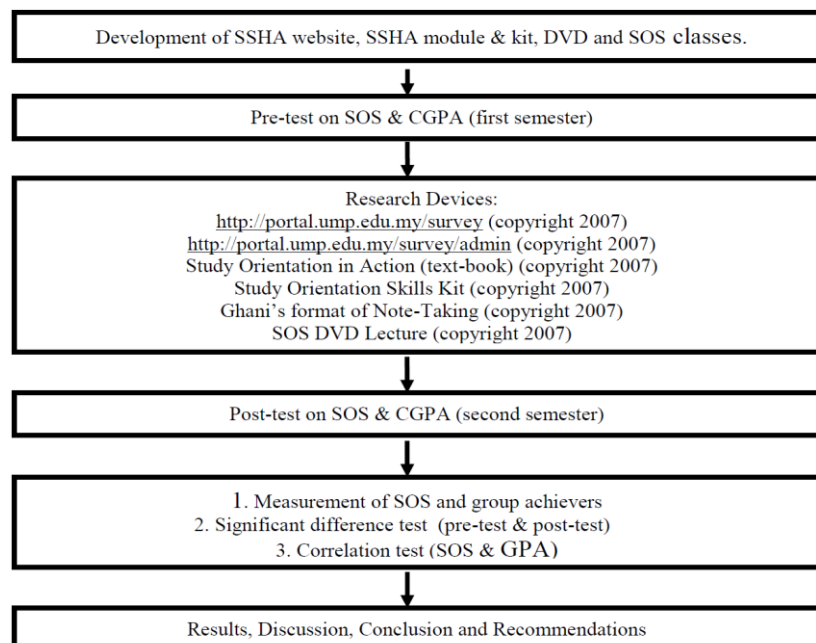The process flow of this research is as in the following diagram

Figure 2:   Research process

C. Research Design

This research uses the quasi-experimental design comparison of group pre-test and post-test design rather then randomly-assigned control groups as the baseline in measuring the impacts of the research. It is more precise to say that the type of comparison quasi-experimental group design used involves an equivalent time series design with equivalent samples material design. This research substitutes statistical controls for the absence of physical control and minimizes Hawthorne effect and the Placebo effect (William, 2006). Isaak (2007 also used quasi-experiment compared group pre-test and post-test design in his research on Matriculation students study orientation skills and academic performance.Other researchers who have used quasi-experimental compared group designs are Oyedeji (2006) and Abid Hussein (2006). Both researchers also conducted a study on the SOS and its relationship to the academic performance. The simplification of the design can be seen in diagram as the following:

Research Design:

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O1   X   O2     SOS
GPA1     GPA2 GPA
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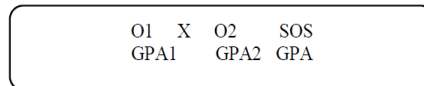
O1 - Pre-test for Group A
X1 - Remedial Devices given for group A (same device)
O2 - Post-test for Group A
GPA1 - Grade point average first term exam
GPA2 - Grade point average second term exam

From the above diagram, 01, 02 and X1 are the pre-test, post-test and remedial devices given to respondents. The respondents will be given the treatment by SOS remedial devices. A Pre-test was given to measure the respondents study orientation skills followed by measuring academic score for term one school examination (GPA1). After the treatment given then post-test (O2) on SOS will be carried out together with the collection of academic score in second term of school examination will be taken (GPA2).

The difference between pre-test and post test scores in SSHA and CGPA will be determined to find out the significant differences and the correlation between two variables.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Is There Any Significant Differences between Pre-test and Post-test in the Study Orientation Skills among Students?

There is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores refering to the results in the table below. The results are suppose to reject Ho if and only if Ftest>Fcrit at $p = 0.05$. (0.35741< 4.151749). However, the mean score for study orientation skills parameter in post test 71.46) is greater than pre-test (68.58). All the SOS parameters showed that there was an increament in post-test scores accept for educational acceptance (EA) which shows lower in mean score in post test (16.38; 16.63).

Anova Single Factor

SUMMARY

Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
Pre-SO	24	1646	68.58333	310.3406
Post-SO	24	1715	71.45833	244.6938

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	99.1875	1	99.1875	0.35741	0.55288	4.051749
Within Groups	12765.79	46	277.5172			
Total	12864.98	47				

Hypothesis Null: there is no difference between pre-test & post-test in so score
Hypothesis Alternative: there is difference between pre-test & post-test in so score
Reject Ho if Ftest>Fcrit or P-value < 0.05
0.35741< 4.151749 and 0.55288-05 < 0.05
So Accept Ho.

There is a sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a difference between pre-test & post-test in so score students at significance level 0.05

TABLE 2.
MEAN SCORE OF STUDY ORIENTATION SKILLS IN PRE TEST & POST TEST.

Category	Pre-Test Mean	Post-Test Mean
DA	14.92	16.04
WM	16.04	17.04
TA	21	22
EA	16.63	16.38
SH	30.96	33.08
SA	37.63	38.38
SO	68.58	71.46
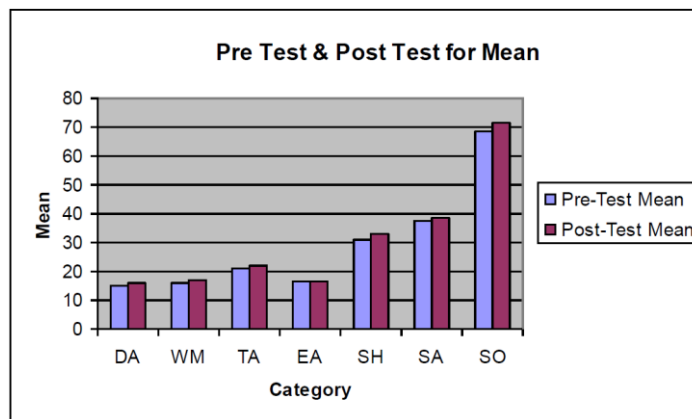
Figure 4: Pre Test and Post Test Mean

TABLE:
PRE TEST AND POST TEST MEAN

Category	Pre-Test SD	Post-Test SD
DA	7.04	7.43
WM	5.81	4.49
TA	6.74	5.7
EA	4.53	5.04
SH	9.8	10
SA	9.92	9.32
SO	17.65	15.64
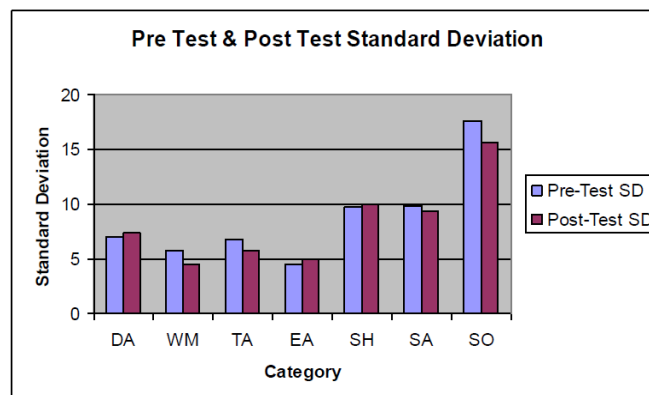
B.   There is no Significant Difference between Pre-test and Post Test on Grade Points Average of Respondents.

   Table below shows that there is a significant differences in achievement score between pre-test and post-test among respondents. It shows that the value of Ftest>Fcrit at P-value < 0.05 or 6.583 > 4.098 at P – 0.05. Post test mean score for achievement test has increased to 78.85 compared to the pre-test mean score 66.6. This results show that the

effectiveness of SOS programmes at secondary school level in increasing academic performance of students

SUMMARY				
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
Pre-test	20	1332	66.6	248.6737
Post-test	20	1577	78.85	207.1868

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	1500.625	1	1500.625	6.583702	0.014359	4.098172
Within Groups	8661.35	38	227.9303			
Total	10161.98	39				

Hypothesis Null: there is no difference between pre-test & post-test in so score
Hypothesis Alternative: there is difference between pre-test & post-test in so score
Reject Ho if Ftest>Fcrit or P-value < 0.05
6.583 > 4.098 and 0.0143 > 0.05
SO-reject Ho.
There is a sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a difference between pre-test & post-test in so score at significance level 0.05
1. Pre-Test Correlation between Study Orientation Skills and Grade Point Average

	Pre-Result	Pre-test SO
Pre-Result	1	
Pre-test SO	0.2614552	1

2. Post-Test Correlation between Study Orientation Skills and Grade Point Average

	Post-Result	Post-test SO
Post-Result	1	
Post-test SO	0.1646272	1

Result above shows there is a weak correlation between SOS and academic performance among respondents. However the correlation showed in pre-test and post-test (0.2614 and 0.1646) is definitely proves there is a correlation between SOS and academic performance among respondents.

IV. DISCUSSION

From the above results, it shows that there is no significance in SOS score between pre-test and post-test t; Ftest>Fcrit at $p = 0.05$. (0.35741< 4.151749). However, the mean score for study orientation skills parameter in post test 71.46) is greater than pre-test (68.58). All the SOS parameters showed that there was an increment in post-test scores except for educational acceptance (EA) which shows lower in mean score in post test (16.38; 16.63).

This result signifies that there is an improvement in the knowledge and practice of SOS among respondents based upon an increment of mean score of SOS and all other parameters except EA although there is no significant difference. From the general overview by the researchers this results may be due to the lack of practice among respondents on the utilization of the device materials because the devices used are all in English. Secondly, the duration of three month given for practice before the examination allocated for them is not enough. Although in some cases, Hawthorne's effect may take place if we allow them to practice SOS at longer period of time. This may be due to the maturity development among respondents.

Result for the significant test on the academic performance showed there is a positive significance difference between pre-test and post-test. It showed that the value of Ftest > Fcrit at P-value < 0.05 or 6.583 > 4.098 at $P - 0.05$. Post test mean score for achievement test has increased to 78.85 compared to the pre-test mean score 66.6. This result had showed that although SOS score did not show a significant difference but the effectiveness of SOS in increasing value of mean score between pre-test did show a positive result in increasing the academic score among respondents. This

result means that if the time allocation given to the respondents in a longer duration it may increase the value of SOS and it will exhibit very much better results in the academic performance of the students. Nevertheless interviews done among respondent's shows that Ghani's format of note taking especially had given them much effect and influence on their study and in improving their academic performance.

The Correlation test score showed in pre-test and post-test (0.2614 and 0.1646) definitely showed there is a correlation between SOS and academic performance among respondents. But there is only small correlation between SOS and academic performance. This result once again proved that duration of time given to the respondents in practicing SOS skills is not enough. Once again the feedback and results from the interviews among respondents agreed upon these issues.

V. SUMMARY

Generally the findings of this research once again support the past finding that signifies an increment in SOS will increase the academic performance among respondents. The finding also showed that time allocation in practicing SOS skills among respondents is crucial and should be longer than the duration of three months. This finding can be summarized by a small increment in SOS mean score between pre and post-test. Future research in SOS should be focused on the best time taken in improving SOS among respondents. Further research should also focus on the effectiveness of Ghani's format of note-taking due to the response gain in this experiment.

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Mismatches between Learner's Style and Teacher's Style in L2: A Concern for Communication, a Case of Iranian Adult

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Abstract—It is quite axiomatic that no two foreign language learners are the same. Also, these differences frequently are considered to be responsible for the learners' success or failure. Although individuals do not usually show variations in their first language learning, they are different in "rate, speed, and ultimate level" as far as their second language acquisition/learning is concerned (Ellis, 1997). Such differences are due to the cognitive, affective, and social factors underlying second language acquisition. This paper is a case study of an Iranian adult who had language deficiency. The subject has been studying at an institute for more than a year and a half; however, he could not make good progress in his English proficiency in comparison to his other classmates. Several instruments were used in this study to probe his probable disabilities in learning. The results show that there are some discrepancies between the teaching method and his learning ability techniques. Moreover, he is not familiar with metacognitive strategies and cannot plan for himself.

Index Terms—communication, mismatch factors, foreign language learners, cognitive factors, affective factors, social factors

I. INTRODUCTION

It is quite axiomatic that no two foreign language learners are the same. Also, these differences frequently are considered to be responsible for the learners' success or failure. Although individuals do not usually show variations in their first language learning, they are different in "rate, speed, and ultimate level" as far as their second language acquisition/learning is concerned (Ellis, 1997) [6]. Such differences are due to the cognitive, affective, and social factors underlying second language acquisition.

Some people learn language more easily and at a higher rate than others (Lightbown & Spada, 2006 [12]; Ellis, 1994 [5]). This variation among learners might be due to the differences in their aptitude (Robinson, 2005 [15]; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003 [8]), attitude and motivation (Arnold & Brown, 1999 [1]; Brown, 2007 [2]; Ehrman, 2005[4]), intelligence (Gardner, 1993 cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006) [12], belief (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), [12] and strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) [13]. Ellis and Sinclair (1989 cited in Halbach, 2000) [9] present a list of the characteristics of good language learners and comment that good language learners "are aware of and understand the reasons for their attitudes and feelings towards language learning and themselves as language learners"(p. 6).

Researchers have been trying to investigate how different cognitive and personality variables are related and how they interact with learners' experiences so that they can gain a better understanding of human learning. The importance of such studies is that researchers hope to find a way to increase the possibility of learners' success in language learning. Stevick (1989 cited in Ellis, 1994) [5], in a study of seven successful language learners, noted that they "differ markedly with regard to what … they prefer to do and not to do". Ellis (1994) [5] has identified five major aspects of successful language learning in literature as (a) a concern for language form, (b) a concern for communication, (c) an active task approach, (d) an awareness of the learning process, and (e) a capacity to use strategies flexibly in accordance with task requirements. Rubin (1975 as well as Naiman et al., 1978 cited in Ellis, 1994) [5] found that good language learners treat language as a system by making effective cross-lingual comparisons, analyzing the target language, and using reference books. Such learners also monitor their L2 performance and try to learn from their errors by asking for corrections when they think these are needed.

Good language learners also attend to meaning. As Ellis (1994) [5] found from eight studies he reviewed, all reported

that good learners use this strategy. Good language learners search for meaning in input they are exposed to. The ability to switch back and forth in attending to meaning and form may be a crucial feature of successful language learning. Moreover, good language learners are actively involved in language learning. They are autonomous although they appreciate teachers who are systematic, logical, and clear. They like to be responsible for their own learning by identifying goals and by introducing new topics into a conversation, although they may not engage in language production. As O'Malley and Chamot (1990) [13] mentions, good learners follow metalingual strategies.

Also they list several features for an effective learner. They believe that effective language learners learn to perceive recurring patterns in a problem and to link their solution to these patterns. They also learn to represent the problem in terms of abstract features. This may be predictive of the problem solution as contrasted with surface features of the problem. Moreover, experts reorganize their approach to the problem in terms of the features of the domain and develop better memories for information that is involved in the problem solution. Also, experts are domain-specific in regard to the knowledge they possess.

More effective learners also understand language tasks in terms of the meaning-based intent of the communication rather than in terms of the linguistic elements or surface language features of the text. They recognize their approach to the problem and apply a variety of strategies, depending on the task demands. Experts have better-organized long-term memory structures for their area of expertise. Elsewhere, Ehrman (1996) [3] proposed a taxonomy in which different types of learners are shown and differentiated.

II.   WHAT IS LEARNING DISABILITY?

Learning disability refers to a "dysfunction in one of the components of learning that takes place in the brain" Ehrman (1996, p. 262) [3]. It covers a variety of problems such as input, output, integration, and memory (Silver, n.d. cited in Ehrman, 1996) [3]. Input is related to all abilities which receive input like visual and auditory perceptual abilities. Visual perceptual disabilities have a spatial aspect such as eye coordination, orientation of self in space, and judging distance. A messy desk might cause trouble for such a person when he or she has to focus on a single task. Auditory perceptual disabilities often cause difficulty with distinguishing difference among sounds. Minimal pairs such as boil and bowl may be confused.

The next learning disability is integration. When information reaches the brain through perception, it must be ordered (sequenced) and understood (abstraction) (Ehrman, 1996) [3]. Sometimes three types of disability occur: sequencing disabilities, simultaneous processing disabilities, and abstraction disabilities. Sequencing disabilities appear in difficulties with narratives, particularly managing sequences of ideas or events. Beginning, middle, and end may be mixed up. Spelling errors will show up as re-orderings of the letters, all of which may be present, or material may be copied in the wrong order.

Simultaneous processing disabilities are not mentioned in Silver's taxonomy, but they would seem to belong here. They may manifest as the severe inability to do even the kinds of everyday multitasking called on by taking notes while listening to a lecture, for example. And finally, abstraction disabilities may show up as difficulties with making inferences, appropriate categorizing, seeing interrelations, or going from the specific to the general. Problems are likely to show up in making subtle semantic distinctions.

Another disability is related to memory. Short-term memory disabilities occur when an unusual number of repetitions are needed to put material into memory. Long-term memory, on the other hand, refers to disability in retrieving information from memory and disability in transferring the original learning context to a new one. The last type of category is output disabilities which cover dyslexia, motor disabilities, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder.

Other famous learning problems are general functioning. Sometimes, in some cases general abilities and language skills are inconsistent with each other. Level of work varies from day to day. These people might have negative self-image, and may need to be given information more than once.

While it has long been recognized in the learning disabilities field that foreign language study would be a terrific challenge to learning-disabled students, somehow this fact has been widely ignored in the field of foreign language instruction and in schools in general until very recently. Teachers of ESL students also have recognized that there are students who have great difficulty mastering English because of learning disabilities. This fact has added some urgency to the need for recognition of this problem. As more research is being done and more teachers are recognizing the problem, more solutions are being created for the student facing the challenge of learning a foreign or second language and the teachers who teach them (Schwarz, 1997) [16]. This study examines one of the cases who has a language learning problem.

III.   METHOD

As mentioned above, the purpose of this paper is to study an Iranian adult with language deficiency to locate his probable disabilities. Therefore, the design of this research is a case study which is done through observation and constructed interview.

A.   The Case

The participant in this study was a 20-year-old boy (his pseudonym is Al hereafter) who has studied English at Marefat institute for about 23 months. He began English at the starter level. He has studied the "Let's Go" series of books. He passed semesters CAC3, CAC4 (yellow "Let's Go" book), CAC5 (He studied this term twice: the first time he failed), CAC6 and CAC7 (the green "Let's Go" book), CAC8 and CAC9 (the red "Let's Go" book), and CAC10 (the orange book). However, he could not make any good progress. He has failed the last semester and now he has taken CAC10 again. Although he is highly motivated, as he frequently repeated this to the interviewer, he could not get a good mark for each term he passed. Mainly his score was near the cut off score of 70 – the conditional case for acceptance – and he has barely gotten 75 or above, which is the unconditional passing score (CAC3=74; CAC4=70; CAC5/1= 66; CAC5/2= 72; CAC6=70; CAC7= 75; CAC8=70; CAC9=70; CAC10= 54). Nevertheless, he enrolled in CAC10 again, although he told me that he might have to quit if he could not pass.

Al has not been a successful learner at high school either. He is studying on his own at home because he is behind his classmates. However, he is a symbol of self-confidence. When this researcher asked him, "Who do you think is the best in your class?" he responded, "I think I am the best because I try very much more than anyone else." He said he had never encountered any problem for which he could not find a solution.

From the very beginning, he stated that he wanted to learn English so he could travel and visit his brother who is studying in Canada. So he seems to enjoy highly extrinsic motivation. Also, he said that he loved English so he enjoys highly intrinsic motivation.

B. Instrument

In this study three instruments were used: 1) an environmental questionnaire developed by Joy Reid (1987) [14], 2) a motivation and strategies questionnaire by Ehrman (1996) [4], and 3) an instrument to test sequential and random processing (Ehrman, 1996) [4]. It took the researcher (the author) 10 sessions, twice a week to interview the respondent and complete the questionnaire. Each session took 30 to 45 minutes. All sessions were videotaped. However, since the interview was structured and was based on the questionnaires available, no part of the interview was transcribed. It only was referenced to the extent it could help the researcher interpret the questionnaire results. For example, the respondent's handwriting, both in Farsi (mother tongue) and English (learner language) was recorded. Also, the way he was writing was recorded. The researcher noted instances in which he answered questions with difficulty. Sometimes, the researcher had to repeat a sentence several times so that he could process the sentence and answer the question.

C. Procedure

During the first session, the researcher introduced herself and explained the purpose of her research. She asked about Al's academic background, but she was cautious not to create any bad feeling in the respondent and embarrass him. Because the respondent was the weakest student in the class, the researcher decided to start the research with two individuals – Al and D – to save Al from embarrassment. They were told that the purpose of the research was to see what might affect language learning development in different students. Later, because of lack of time, this researcher did not continue with D. Therefore, only Al was interviewed for the remaining eight sessions.

Al explained that he had studied English before in another institute in Esphahan, and he thought the Marefat institute was better than his previous institute. He seemed to be very tidy and he had all information on the previous institute in his notebooks. As the researcher asked the other respondent – D, Al prepared his answer to the same question in advance. This showed that he paid attention to every detail of the research and questions. As the researcher asked D to talk about her teachers, Al also was writing the name of his teachers so that in his turn he could talk about them.

D. Environmental Writing Inventory

The first questionnaire was the Environmental Writing Inventory Questionnaire, the responses to which are shown below and discussed in detail. The first question was related to location for studying. Al mentioned that he is used to studying in an informal but clean place. He does not care if he studies at a specific time. Also he is used to using a pencil instead of other instrument such as a computer, pen, highlighter, etc. He also mentioned that he is used to wearing casual clothing when studying and he likes to study in a bright environment. To him it is not important whether it is hot or cold or cool; however, he likes to study in a quiet environment. He also does not like to eat or drink when studying. The result shows that he likes to do everything step-by-step and he is not an integrator.

IV. MSQ PART I: APTITUDE AND MOTIVATION

The second instrument was MSQ, which has three parts. In this part, different respondent's features such as overall attitude, nature of motivation, reason for learning motivation, thin or thick ego boundary, and anxiety are explored. The questions are discussed and the results are interpreted here. The first question was, "How do you rate your own ability to learn foreign languages relative to others in general?" Al considered himself average.

The second question was, "How well do you think you will do in this language course?" He answered "superior" to this question. The third question is, "How motivated are you to learn this language?" This question measures the respondent's motivation for learning English. The answer was "highly motivated." The fourth and fifth questions – "Why are you taking this language?" and "How much do you want to do what you described in item 4 above?" – are

related to the reason for learning and the importance of the reason for learning. To answer this question, Al mentions that he is learning English because he wants to go abroad, watch films, and use the computer. As a whole, he thinks learning English is useful for him. He weighted this importance as a 5, i.e., really looking forward to it. The next questions indicate that his motivation is intrinsic motivation not extrinsic, although he thinks that it is important to be at the top of his class (of course he is not). To him, (a) language learning is fun, (b) he likes the country where English is used, (c) he does not think language learning is a challenge, (d) he enjoys talking with English-speaking people, and (e) he loves to learn something new.

The next questions in this questionnaire were related to anxiety. Anxiety, as mentioned by Ellis (1994) [5] as well as Foss and Reitzel (1988) [7], can be either debilitative or facilitative. Facilitative anxiety helps the learner try harder while debilitative anxiety prevents him from trying. Al seems to have no anxiety at all! Although he is a low achiever, he answered "not at all" to two questions: (7) "I would say my anxiety about learning language is" and (8) "My anxiety about speaking in class (answering questions, giving reports, asking questions, etc.) is about this level". This is really surprising about Al. According to Ehrman (1996) [4], the two questions have a negative correlation with different parts of questionnaires of End of training proficiency in speaking and interactive listening, and reading, as well as Hartmann Boundary Questionnaire (thin ego boundary, sensitive, and abstractions), Meyers-Briggs-Type Indicator. Therefore, he has no anxiety about language learning experience in spite of being well behind the class, nor does he have anxiety about speaking in class although he is not fluent in speaking. One point should be worth mentioning about Al is that he even insists on using the English pronunciation when pronouncing a word in Persian. This researcher has to use his native language for asking questions and talking to him, and whenever she uses an English word he was familiar with perfunctorily in Persian pronunciation, surprisingly he corrected the researcher.

In sum, Al is a very motivated student with intrinsic motivation. According to Dornyei and Skehan (2003) [8] intrinsic motivation is a positive motivation and is more permanent than extrinsic motivation, which is temporary and situational. This is why he persists in learning English, although he faces many difficulties and is gaining low scores and mostly near-cutoff scores rather than excellent scores. What has been observed was that in one of his quizzes he was allowed more time in answering test questions than his classmates.

A. MSQ Part IIa: Learning and Teaching Techniques

This questionnaire is a 5 option Likert scale with 1 equals waste of time, 2 equals not very helpful, 3 equals neither/nor, 4 equals helpful, and 5 equals nearly indispensable. Al strongly endorsed systematic ways of instruction and language learning. In responding to the first question of this questionnaire, "The instructor systematically follows a textbook or syllabus" he answered "helpful".

Moreover, he rated himself as an analytic processor, which is associated with MBTI (Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator) of thinking and judging; however, he cannot be considered neat in HBQ's sense. In answering the question of "A written in-class exercise in which students fill in the correct form of verbs in sentences" he answered "nearly indispensable". To answer the question according to Ehrman (1996) [4], judging tends "to like to learn sequentially and control one thing before going on to another" (p. 106). This was obvious because he did everything one by one. One time he brought a notebook to show some names in it to this researcher and when she asked him to put the notebook aside and get back to the interview, he put it inside his bag instead of aside. To a judging type person, unpredictability is a source of discomfort. Judging types tend to get their work done in an orderly way, and they are often natural time-managers. Judging is correlated with sensing, and perceiving is correlated with intuition. Their downside is sometimes intolerance of ambiguity and a need to control the uncontrollable. This might be true for him because he always asked for repetition of those sentences which seemed obscure to him. Specially, in this section of this questionnaire, this researcher had to ask first whether he agreed with the statement or not, then go to options. For example, she asked "Do you think you agree with this statement or not?" and in the case he said that he did not agree, then the question would be so how much you disagree – "is it a waste of time, not very helpful, or neither/nor". Otherwise, he could not concentrate on the differences and would ask for more repetition.

Also, Al is characterized by thinking, which means that thinking learners "gravitate to analytical processing and like to take part and recombine ideas, if they prefer intuition, or things, if they prefer sensing" (Ehrman, 1996, p. 105) [4]. These people tend to trust reasoning above all other ways of knowing. Thinking people are less vulnerable to distress and anxiety. As noted earlier, Al did not feel anxious at all, although he had not developed English properly. This feeling of course may create problems for them, because as Ehrman said, "native interlocutors may not be as patient with them" (p. 105). Moreover, he rated himself as thick ego boundaries or neat, which in HBQ's sense means to be relatively meticulous and orderly. These people are not very receptive to new information.

Al is also rated himself to highly enjoy lessons when the class breaks up into smaller groups to talk. He works with his classmate whose name is Mohammad Reza. He interprets small group as pair work, of course. Also, Al likes to ask questions in pairs. However, he does not think that he can learn English through interviews with a native speaker specifically grammar, Instead he thinks that English grammar should be explained through examples and handout. This shows that he is field-dependent. Other evidence for his judging and sequential-based learning character, is that he rated himself highly on question number 7; that is, teacher "reads new material in the textbook aloud, followed by students reading it aloud one by one". This shows that he can be characterized as sensing in that he needs to practice everything in an order to learn, not go through intuition. In fact, he is a deductive learner rather than an inductive one.

One contradiction is that he answered quite highly positive to question number 8, that he thinks it would be very helpful if each student finds and reports on an interesting news or magazine article in language x. This might suggest that he also is an open-ended learner which is in contrast with sensing. This is again indicated in questions 19, 23, 24, 26, 27, and 28 but is rejected by his low weighting of question number 21.

Moreover, he strongly rejected using word list and translation, saying that English should be learned through English, not translation and Farsi. This suggests that he is low in tolerance of ambiguity. This is also supported by question 15, which states that the teacher calls on each student in turn to make a change in a target sentence in some specified way. Questions 22 and 23 support his low tolerance of ambiguity; however, his answers to questions 24, 27, 28, 29, and 30 indicate high tolerance of ambiguity. This might suggest that he has an average tolerance of ambiguity.

Also, Al seems to rely on highly external structure, as he answered "highly positive" to questions 22, 30, and 32 and "highly negative" to questions 21; however, his surprising answers to questions 23, 26, 29, and 33 indicates he is not highly dependent on external structure, especially in pronunciation. Maybe we can conclude that he does not like to be interrupted very much.

Al did not like to guess the meaning of words and he thinks this guessing job would not be very helpful; he has chosen 3 – neither/nor – as his answer to this question. This proves that he mostly prefers sequential and orderly learning over open-ended and random learning. Also, this supports that he is low in tolerance of ambiguity. Al also is not field-sensitive and a global learner because he does not think explaining grammar through English would be useful for him. Instead, he feels that the teacher should give a sentence to which the entire group responds orally and changes the sentence in some way indicated by the teacher. Again this proves that his thinking ability is better than his intuition. Also, he answers "not very helpful" to question 13, which asks whether he agrees with classroom discussion of some topics, although he likes to change his personal opinion but he did not find it very useful in learning grammar or language.

He weighted the sentence "students read a number of sentences, finding and correcting the mistake" as helpful. This shows that he is analytic. Although this is supported by question 36, this is not supported by his responses to questions 20 and 25.

Also, he seems to be a perfectionist because he weighted "teacher corrects all mistakes in student's writings." He does not care whether teacher cares for his feeling or not. Also, he does not like to move around so he does not rate himself as a kinesthetic learner. Al can be considered as introvert rather than extrovert because he answers question 37 "highly low", question 31 "moderately low", and question 36 "highly high". He does not like to use the computer either.

Table -2- has summarized the names of both personal learning techniques and learning and teaching activities with the respective questions measuring them. Based on the table, the respondent's replies to the questions are combined to estimate the weight of the feature in question. The result is summarized in Table -3- below. I will refer to it later.

B. MSQ Part IIb: Personal Learning Techniques

In this part, first the questions will be briefly discussed, and then the sum of the result will be compared with that of the learning and teaching technique. MSQ part IIb consists of 35 five Likert option questions with 1 equals almost never and 5 equals most of the time.

The first question is related to metacognitive strategies as well as reflectiveness. He said that he would never plan out his studying. The second question, "I need to take study breaks", is related to extraversion and kinesthetic features of the learner, on which he rated himself as 4, which means often. The third question, "I remember better if I have a chance to talk about something" is related to auditory, probably kinesthetic, and extraversion features of the learner, on which he rated himself as 5, which means most of the time. On question 4, "I have a number of projects going on, in varying states of completion", which is related to randomness, and multitasking, he rated himself as "almost never". On question 5, "mental images help me remember", which measures visual (objects, action), he rated himself as "rarely".

For question 6, "I like to know how the system works and what the rules are, then apply what I know" which measures deductive learning technique, he rated himself as "sometimes". Question 7, "I like to work with some background music", measures the multitasking feature of the learner, to which he responded "sometimes". The next question is, "I try to keep my mistakes and reverses in perspective." This question measures effective strategies or effective self-management. He responded "most of the time". Question 9, "If I write things down, I can remember them better", is related to visual and possibly kinesthetic learning techniques on which he rated himself as "sometimes". Question 10, "like to be able to move around when I work or study", measures kinesthetic, and extraversion feature of the learner, on which he rated himself as "sometimes". Question 11, "I don't mind it when the teacher tells us to close our books for a lesson", measures the auditory feature of the learner, on which he rated himself as "most of the time". Question 12, "I can trust my 'gut feeling' about the answer to a question", measures the intuition, impulsivity, and global features of the learner, on which he rated himself as "most of the time".

Question 13, "I take a lot of notes in class or lectures" measures visual and possible kinesthetic, in which he rated himself as "sometimes". Question 14, "I find ways to fill in when I can't think of a word or phrase, such as pointing, using my hands, or finding a filler word …" measures the intuition, kinesthetic and compensation strategies features of the learner on which he rated himself as "sometimes". Question 15, "I hear words in my mind when I read", measures auditory learning technique, on which he rated himself a 5, i.e., "most of the time".

Question 16, "I work better when it's quiet," measures low multitasker and kinesthetic, in which he rated himself as

"sometimes". Question 17, "I look at the ending when I start a book or story," measures random, non-sequential learning technique, which he rated "most of the time." The next question is 18, "If I use a computer to learn, I like programs with color and movement," which measures kinesthetic learning techniques. He chose "often" for this question. Question 19, "My mind wanders in class," also measures multitasking and kinesthetic learning techniques, for which he chose "almost never". On question 20, "Figuring out the system and the rules for myself contributes a lot to my learning," which measures inductive learning technique, he rated as "almost never".

On question 21, "It's useful to talk myself through a task," which measures auditory learning technique, he chose "most of the time". For question 22, "I feel the need to check my answers to questions in my head before giving them," which measures reflectiveness of the learner, he chose "almost never". On question 23, "I forget things if I don't write them down quickly," which measures visual (text) and distractible learning technique, he chose "sometimes".

On question 24, "I consider myself a 'horizontal filer' (e.g., my desk has piles of papers and books all over it), which measures random (maybe) and perceiver learning technique, he chose "almost never". For question 25, "But I can find what I need quickly", which measures random and perceiver learning technique, he chose "sometimes". On 26, "When I need to remember something from a book, I can imagine how it looks on the page," which measures visual learning technique, he chose "almost never". Question number 27, "I can do more than one thing at once," measures multitasking, which he rated as 1, meaning "almost never". Question 28, "I prefer to jump right into a task without taking a lot of time for directions," also measures kinesthetic and impulsive learner technique, for which he chose "most of the time".

For Question 29, "I am comfortable using charts, graphs, maps, and the like," which measures low auditory, he chose the answer "almost never". Question 30, "I try to be realistic about my strengths and weaknesses without dwelling on the weaknesses," measures visual and field-independent learning technique as Ehrman mentioned. He chose "most of the time" as the answer. On question 31, "I like to complete one task before starting another," which also measures sequential learning he rated as "most of the time". For question 32,   "I prefer to demonstrate what I have learned by doing something real with it rather than take a test or write a paper," which also measures effective strategies and effective self-management the learner might adopt in learning, he chose "sometimes" for this question.

For question 33, "I have trouble remembering conversational exchanges word for word," which also measures kinesthetic, random, concrete, and global learning techniques, he chose "often" as the answer. On question 34, "Hearing directions for a task is better for me than reading them," which measures auditory and extraversion learning techniques, he chose sometimes. And finally, for question 35, "I like to be introduced to new material by reading about it," which measures visual learning technique, he chose "most of the time".

Because the answers are not systematically interpretable in terms of individual questions, since each question seems to measure different learning techniques, the researcher summarizes the answers so she can interpret the result. Table 3 summarizes the result.

C.   Result

The result for both learner techniques and teaching techniques used in class has been summarized in Table 3 so that the teaching techniques and learner techniques can be matched to see where the problem might be. As you can see in this table, "a" stands for the learning and teaching techniques he supports or rejects and "b" represents the personal techniques he uses when studying.

As it is shown in this table, Al seems to enjoy more sequential-based teaching in the class than random teaching. He scored 21 out of 25 in sequential learning, while only 15 out of 25 on random learning (15 has changed into 25). However, when talking about his learning techniques, he has not rated himself as a sequential learner, but a random learner (he has got zero on sequential learning). Also, Al seems to be a more open-ended learner than a learner who needs external structure. He seems to be a global learner and also enjoys the global learning in the classroom (he got 9 out of 10 on global learning).

He seems to be more than average in tolerance of ambiguity. He is more field-dependent; however, his class activity learning tends to field-independency. Among learning techniques of kinesthetic, visual, and auditory, he is more auditory-based. This means that he can learn if he listens more than through vision or tactile sense. Also, his class teaching techniques are auditory based rather than kinesthetic. He is a more deductive learner, while his class teaching technique is inductive learning. He rarely uses metacognitive strategies, nor does he use compensation strategy. Also he cannot do everything at the same time, but prefers doing things one by one. He is more impulsive than reflective, while his class teaching activity requires him to be more reflective than impulsive. His learning is mostly based on intuition than judging, while as we saw, his class activity is more based on judging learners than intuitions.

V.   MORE INFORMATION ON AL

Another instrument used in this study was the Problem Integration Strategy Test which is presented in Appendix A. This test is neither an intelligence nor an aptitude test as Ehrman (1996, p. 302) [4] mentioned, but it helps the researcher understand how the respondent can develop his or her own study method. His way of sorting shows that he does pay attention to the equation, but only to the number of numerators. For example, to him s is more difficult than g, or L. The ordering he recognized from this test is as follows: i-o-s-c-p-n-j-m-e-b-l-r-h-k-d-f-a-g-q-t.

VI. CONCLUSION

Al has been studying English for more than a year and a half; however, he has not shown a very good improvement in his English compared to other students in his class. Although his score is mostly near the cutoff point, he has not quit because he enjoys a very high level of intrinsic motivation. His teacher believes that if he tries more he can do better, but he himself believes that he is doing his best. In this regard, he enjoys a very high self-efficacy, even in comparison to other students. He has a very positive picture of himself and he thinks he is the most studious student in his class. He also failed this term.

During the interview with Al, this researcher noticed that his mental ability is a bit behind other students. The researcher agrees with the institute supervisor and disagrees with Al's teacher that Al seems to be a bit mentally retarded, but not completely. He can work with Memory Stick and the computer very well. He is very organized in writing, although his handwriting is not age-appropriate. He paid attention to the questions very carefully and did not answer any question without care. This showed that he has the ability to learn. Even in doing the last integration problem instrument, he chose all the options through logic so we cannot accept that he is far below normal intelligence.

However, through analyzing the two questionnaires on teaching and learning techniques, this researcher noticed some discrepancies. First, Al is a more sequential learner than a random learner, while the teaching context is more random and communicative-based. This was also obvious through the interviews, because he needed everything to be mentioned with care and step-by-step.

Second, he is field-dependent while his class teaching activity is more field-independent. This would be terrible for him because he cannot be an inductive learner. Everything should be mentioned and he cannot take the details from the whole picture of language. Third, he is a more deductive learner while his class teaching technique is inductive learning.

Fourth, he rarely uses metacognitive strategies, nor does he use compensation strategy. Using metacognitive strategy is one of the good learner's features (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) [13]. Fifth, he is more impulsive than reflective, while his class teaching activity requires him to be more reflective than impulsive. His learning is mostly based on intuition than judging while as we saw, his class activity is more based on judging learners than intuitions. And finally, he is a very slow reader, both in English and in Farsi. The result is summarized in Table -3- .

APPENDIX TABLES

TABLE -1-:
EHRMAN TAXONOMY

Thin boundaries		Thick boundaries	
Feeling	Intuition or perceiving	Sensing/ judging	Thinking
Interpersonal (Diverger) Type 3	Cognitive flexibility (accommodator) Type 1	Hard work (converger) Type 4	Control (Assimilator) Type 2
Social Political Empathy	Information processing Cognitive, hypothesis Metacognitive, analysis Compensation strategies Self-management	Effort/order Persistence Study aids Memorizing Repetition	Control Cognitive order Analysis Planning
Relation with others Authorities Colleagues Host country nationals	Aptitude Achievement	Self testing Test preparation Planning Products Completed assignments practice	Concentration Self evaluation Clarify of categories Effective task management
Language proficiency			

TABLE -2-:
THE LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS MEASURED BY MSQ

Sequential learning: Questions 1, 7, 22, 30, 32, 17b (-), 31b	Random: 5, 10, 13, 4b, 17b, 24b, 25b, 33b,
Open ended learning: 5, 8, 10, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28	Need for external structure: 1, 6, 7, 9 (high), 12, 13 low need for external (-), 15, 19 (-), 21 (-), 22, 23 (-), 26 (-), 29, 30, 32, 33,
Analytic processing: 1, 14, 16, 17 (-), 20, 25, 36	Global learning: 11, 13, 19, 24, 26, 27, 28, 31, 12b, 33b
Perfectionist: 16, 20, 29	Concrete: 33b
High TOA: 5, 10, 11, 13, 24, 25, 27, 28,	Low TOA: 9, 22, 29, 30, 32, 33
Field-dependence: 6,	Field-independence: 14, 25, 30b
Field sensitive: 11,	Field insensitive:
Kinesthetic learning: 18, 19, 23, 38, 2b, 3b, 9b, 10b, 13b, 14b, 18b, 19b, 28b, 32b, 33b	Auditory: 39, 3b, 11b, 15b, 21b, 29 (-), 34b,
Inductive : 25, 20b	Deductive: 6b,
Extraversion : 31, 37, 2b, 3b, 10b, 34b,	Introversion: 36
Visual: 35b, 5b (action, object); 9b, 13b, 23b, 26b (text); 30b (schematic)	Metacognitive: 1b
Reflective: 1, 22b,	Multitask: 4b, 7b, 16b (-), 19b, 27b,
Affective strategy: 8b, 32b	Intuition: 12b, 14b
Impulsivity: 12b, 14b	Compensation strategy: 14b
Distractible: 16b, 23b	Perceiver: 24b, 25b
Self management: 32b	

TABLE-3-:
CHARACTERISTIC TOTAL

Sequential learning: 21/25 (a), 0/10b	Random: 9/15a, 9/25b
Open ended learning: 36/50a	Need for external structure: 24/51a
Analytic processing: 16/35a	Global learning: 29/40a; 9/10b
Perfectionist: 8/15a	Concrete: 4/5b
High TOA: 29/40a	Low TOA: 18/35a
Field-dependence: 4/5a	Field-independence: 7/10a; 5/5b
Field sensitive: 2/5a	Field insensitive:
Kinesthetic learning: 14/20a; 38/55b	Auditory: 4/5a, 22/24b
Inductive : 3/5a, 1/5b	Deductive: 3/5b
Extraversion : 4/5a,16/20	Introversion: 4/5a
Visual: 22/40b	Metacognitive: 1/5b
Reflective: 4/5a, 1/5b	Multitask: 3/19b
Affective strategy: 8/10b	Intuition: 9/10b
Impulsivity: 8/10b	Compensation strategy: 3/5b
Distractible: 6/10b	Perceiver: 4/10b
Self management: 3/5b	

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An Investigation and Analysis of Attribution Preference and Gender Difference of Non-English Majors' English Learning—Based on Investigation of Non-English Majors in Tianjin Polytechnic University

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Abstract—This paper investigates 97 non-English majors' attribution preference of their English learning (including 52 female students and 45 male students) by using Weiner's attribution theory. All of the participants are from the Tianjin Polytechnic University (TJPU). According to the data, this paper discusses and analyses the new trends and features between the gender difference and students' attribution preference of their English learning. The results show that the female and male students' attribution preference are basically correct and reasonable and tend to be the same, but some problems still exist.

Index Terms—English learning, attribution preference, gender difference

I. INTRODUCTION

Attribution theory, as one of the new research topics in the contemporary psychology, is widely applied in the education, management and clinical practice in recent years. It can provide the theoretical basis to explain and infer people's actions and the causality of activities. From the perspective of the foreign language education, the scholars in China have studied it in the following three aspects: (1). the research of students' self-attribution. (2). the research of the attribution training. (3). the attribution research of teachers' teaching. However, it is rare now that the study of attribution preference of male and female students (Zhang, 2007). This paper focuses on studying the attribution preference in non-English majors' English learning and whether gender differences exist between male and female students or not, which can offer the real and accurate information for teachers and the teaching practice, so that students' English learning can be improved effectively.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Attribution Theory

It is very important for learners to explain his/her successes or failures about his/her learning from the cognitive point of view. This is because the learners' motivation of learning the similar things can be decided to some extent by how s/he gave the attribution explanation about his/her former results of learning. Attribution refers to people always attribute their successes or failures, perceived by themselves, to some certain reasons. In seeking to understand better the ways in which people make sense of events in their lives, the social psychologist Fritz Heider began to develop in the 1940s and 50s what he termed a 'naive' psychology of the layperson (Heider, 1944, 1958). A central aspect of Heider's theory was that it was how people perceived events rather than the events in themselves that influenced behavior. When required to give reasons for the outcomes of events or the behaviors, Heider suggested that people would tend to refer to a limited range of internal (personal) and external (environmental) factors. Psychologist Bernard Weiner drew together Heider's view of attribution and the theory of control, and he proposed his own influential version of attribution theory in 1970s (William and Burden, 2000). Weiner revised his attribution theory in 1980s, which is "the most systematic theory to explain learning motivation" (Zhang, 2000, p.163).

After a large number of researches, Weiner suggested that, on the whole, people tend to refer to six main sets of attributions for their perceived successes and failures after they finished their work: "(1). ability, (2). effort, (3). task difficult, (4). luck, (5). physical and mental condition, (6). others which refers to some influence from other elements, such as, the help from teachers. And the six attributions can be divided into three dimensions due to the different features of the attributions. (1). Locus of causality, which refers to that people regard the source of attributions in from personal (internal) or environmental (external) factors. The three attribution elements of ability, effort and the physical and mental condition belong to the internal factors, while others relate to the external factors. (2). Stability, which refers

to the factors are stable or not. The attribution elements of ability and task difficult belong to the stable factors, and others belong to the unstable factors. (3). Controllability, which refers to whether the factors can be controlled by clients' hopes. The attribution element of effort relates to the dimension of controllable, all of others relate to dimension of uncontrollable. In general situation, people would attribute their successes to the stable, internal and controllable factors, while attribute their failures to the unstable, external and uncontrollable factors. This is always regarded as the correct method of people's attribution preference" (William and Burden, 2000, p.105-106). As to the six attributions and three dimensions, it will be different for the different people to deal with different tasks in different situations (Zhang, 2000), so this paper focuses on investigating and analyzing the attribution preferences of the students who are studying in TJPU.

B.   Gender Difference

Over the past two centuries, some scientists conducted experiments observing human behaviors, and they naively have assumed that results obtained from those tests on male subjects would automatically generalize to the female population as well. But, since the women's movement in the 20c70s, those people who are engaged in the scientific study of humans have come to realize that there are gender differences in humans beyond the obvious biological ones. Perhaps this disparity is due to the genetic destiny, as seemingly espoused by Freud, or may be these differences can be traced to cultural learning processes in while males and females are taught to behave in different ways (Dowling, 1981). Nevertheless, whether the source is "nature" or "nurture", the end result is that the two genders see the world differently (Gilligan, 1982), interpret identical situations differently (Kohlberg, 1973), and attribute causation and results differently (Horner,1972).

Among the past 40 years, the attribution processes have been examined extensively. At first, researchers (for example, Dweck and Rapucci, 1973) seemed to find an "externality bias" among females, which meant that females generally refused to accept personal responsibility for their own success, and this situation was countered by the apparent "internality bias" among males. Later studies (for example, Sweeny, Moreland and Gruber, 1982) completely contradicted these earlier findings. In 1933, Beth Dixon searched for indication of an externality bias among adolescent females and found little evidence to support its presence. She concluded that in the generation since the original research done in the 1970s, females have tended to show less and less externality or self-derogatory bias in explaining their success and they have begun to exhibit much more of a self-serving bias as do their male counterparts(Maguire, 1996). Because the gender difference is changing as time goes by, the gender difference is another focus of this study.

C.   Research into Attribution in Language Learning

In the past studies of the English learning, most researchers just analyzed the external elements, which would influence the English learning. The research of the learners themselves does not gain enough attention as a central part in the previous studies. Only if the intelligent elements and the non-intelligent elements of learners' learning process can interact well with each other, the good and positive learning results can be gained. One of the important elements which can influence the learners' results in the language learning process is the learners' attribution preference. The different attitudes towards the attribution will lend to different results.

So far, researches into attribution have been focused mainly on sport psychology. Unfortunately, very little has been carried out in the area of the attribution theory and EFL or SLA. Marion Williams and Robert Burden are about the only researchers who have tried to systematically link the two areas. And the two most famous scholars studying in this field in China are Chuming Wang in GuangDong University of Foreign Studies, and Xiaoqing Qin in Huazhong University of Science and Technology (Chen, 2008, p.82). I did not find any other persons or materials, which focus on the research of the gender difference and attribution theory of English learning.

This paper uses Weiner's attribution theory, aims to find the changed relationship between the two genders and the attribution preference of students' English learning, and analyses the results of the whole investigation.

III.   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A.   Research Question

This study focuses on the attribution preference of non-English majors' English learning and whether gender differences exist between male and female students. The main questions that this paper tries to answer are the following ones: (1). Whether the students' attribution preference is correct or not? (2). Which are the most important ones I the factors that would have an influence on students' English learning? (3). Whether gender differences exist between male and female students? If it does, what the differences are?

B.   Participants

The participants are 110 non-English majors in TJPU, who were chosen arbitrarily in the library and in the self-study classrooms. Except the participants who do major in English and who did not finish the questionnaires as required, the number of the final qualified participants is 97, including 52 female students and 45 male students. They are in different grades from freshmen to seniors. All the participants are not required to sign their names on the papers in order that they can choose the most suitable and real answer without restraint.

C.   Instruments

In this study, the instrument is questionnaire. The whole questionnaire consists of two components. The first part is about some basic personal information of the participants, such as, the gender, the major, the score of College English Test Band 4 (henceforth, CET-4 score), and how they regard their own English learning. The second part includes 18 questions, which are suitable for three dimensions and six attributions of Weiner's attribution theory.

This questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale to finish the 18 questions in the second part, which means the participants can choose the suitable answer from the specific and possible options for each question from the strongly agree to strongly disagree. Part of the 18 questions were adopted from the book--*psychology for language teacher,* written by Williams and Burden(2000), and part of them are from the questionnaire about attribution tendency to English learning successes and failures, finished by Weihong Chen (2008) (see the Appendix for details). In order to avoid misinterpretation, the questionnaires are designed in Chinese.

The quantitative data analysis was used in this study. The traditional descriptive method was also used to contrast the differences between the male and female. Although the CET-4 has some problems in itself, the subjects are from different grades and different majors, the CET-4 mark is the comparatively standard and equitable comparison for them. In the questionnaires, it is normal for the students to regard their English learning situation with their CET-4 scores.

IV.   ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A.   Discussion and Analysis of Personal Information

TABLE 1:
THE RESULTS OF PERSONAL INFORMATION (↑=ABOVE, ↓=BELOW)

	The score of CET-4				How to assess English learning		
	500↑	500-425	425↓	average score	good	ordinary	bad
F	28.8%	65.4%	5.87%	474.7	26.9%	67.3 %	5.8%
M	26.7%	44.4%	8.9%	462.1	20%	51. 1%	28.9%

(1). Based on the investigation data of the score of CET-4, there are two pieces of information can be got: ①. Both male and female students are quite satisfied with their English learning. ②. Female students' English learning are better than male students on the whole. 23.7% of the students consider their English learning are good or even perfect. 59.8% of the participants consider their English learning just in ordinary level. Generally speaking, both male and female students are positive and optimistic about their English learning. Teachers should continue to foster students' interests and confidence about their English learning, make the students have great zeal for their English learning.

(2). 28.8% of female students' and 26.5% of male students' scores of CET-4 are higher than 500, so the proportion of female students are more than that of male students by 2.1%. About the item of how to assess their English learning by themselves, 26.9% of female students and 20% of male students think their English were good, so the proportion of female students are more than that of male students by 6.9%. And the number of students who think their English learning are good is less than the number of students whose CET-4 score are higher than 500. All of these show: ①. both female and male students don't have enough self-confidence for themselves. ②. to some extent, female students are more confident than male students. Teachers should continue to foster students', especially the male students', confidence in their English learning.

(3). The proportion of the female and male students whose CET-4 score are less than 425, and the proportion of students who think their English learning are bad are the same: 5.8% of female students and 28.9% of male students. This situation means that the score of CET-4 has a great influence on students' self-assessment of their English learning. Teachers should make the students know that the ultimate aim of English learning is not only to pass the CET-4 examination.

B.   Discussion and Analysis of Attribution Preference

According to Weiner's attribution theory, the 18 questions in the questionnaire can be divided into nine categories, and the nine categories can be put into the three dimensions: stability, locus of causality and controllability, as in the following table:

TABLE 2:
THE SPECIFIC CATEGORIZATION OF THE 18 QUESTIONS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE (1, 2, 3……18 = THE 18 QUESTIONS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	stability		locus of causality		controllability	
	stable	unstable	internal	external	controllable	uncontrollable
Interesting (1)		+	+		+	
confidence(2)		+	+		+	
effort (3)		+	+		+	
ability (4,5,6)	+		+			+
Physical and mental condition (7,8,9)		+	+			+
Task difficult (10,11)	+			+		+
Learning environment (12)		+		+		+
luck (13)		+		+		+
Others (14,15,16,17,18)		+		+		+

(1). Interest (1)

Interest is a kind of learners' subjective preference on all things in the outside world, and is the top problem in the learning process. The findings show that both male and female students are positive about the question of whether English learning is related to the interest, because 80% of male students and 65.4% female students choose the alternative of "satisfied". This refers to both male and female students and more male students consider the interest can have a great effect on their English learning. Some inspirations of the English learning can be gotten from this result: teachers should enhance students', especially female students', interest in English learning at its source, and advance their English learning with the effect of getting twice the result with half the effort.

(2). Confidence (2)

Confidence is very important for the English learning, because it is impossible to master a foreign language overnight. The investigation data show that both male and female students are positive about the relationship between English learning and confidence. 60% of male students and 53.8% of female students choose the alternative of "satisfied", and 23.1% of female students and 17.8% of male students choose the alternative of "neutral", which means that both male and female students think their English learning need confidence, but their own confidence are not enough. Compared with the male students, less female students consider that their English learning has been influenced by confidence. This situation requires that teachers should pay more attention to foster students' confidence of their English learning in the teaching process.

(3). Effort (3)

Both male and female students hold the same opinion on this question that English learning would be affected by effort. 80% of male students and 73.1% of female students admit the effort is very important for their English learning. Teachers should lead students to improve their English under this correct attribution preference.

(4). Ability (4, 5, 6)

Both male and female students on the whole are negative about the statement that ability influences their English learning. Less than 30% of students admit that the learning ability affected their English learning, but most students think their English learning is not influenced by the ability. From the theoretical analysis, ability relates to the stable, internal and uncontrollable factor, which should be positive about students' English learning. However, why do students negate this important factor in such a high proportion? It is a problem deserved to be re-thought.

(5). Physical and mental condition (7, 8, 9)

The data show that both male and female students have a negative attitude about that the physical and mental condition can affect English learning. As to the physical condition, 91.1% of male students and 82.7% of female students hold negative opinions. As for the mental condition, most students also hold negative about it, the proportion makes up 55.5%. There are some "nature" gender differences between male and female students, so it is normal for the male and female students to make subtle different chooses on this item. In the teaching-learning process, teachers should grip students' this attribution preference, and inspire them to overcome some difficult and study hard.

(6). Task difficulty (10, 11)

The task difficulty in this paper refers to the degree of the difficulty of teaching materials and examinations. The results show that 77.8% of male students and 75% of female students negate the idea that the difficulty of teaching materials can affect the English learning. At the same time, 75.5% of male students and 76.9% of female students negate the idea that the difficulty of the examinations can affect the English learning. This result shows that: ①. The levels of students' English proficiency are quite high, so the present task difficult cannot be regarded as a kind of difficulty for them. ②. The students have recognized that English learning has no concern with the task difficult. No matter which inference is the real situation, teachers should pay much attention to it, and make some adjustments in the teaching process.

(7). Learning environment (12)

The data show that the disparities between the judgment that learning environment affects English learning for the male and female students are narrow. Both male and female students regard that their English learning are affected by the learning environment, because 73.1% of female students and 77.8% of male students think that the learning

environment is an important influential factor for their English learning. This finding refers to universities even the teachers should create a good learning environment for the students.

(8). Luck (13)

78.9% of female students and 75.5% of male students have a negative attitude about the statement that the English learning can be influenced by luck. But the proportion of admitting luck can influence English learning is that: female students make up 3.8%, while the male students make up 11.2%. Teachers should lead students to refute the factor of luck in the teaching process, because it belongs to the unstable, external and uncontrollable factors. And teachers should make students be conscious of the reality that no matter in the daily learning or in the examinations; English learning cannot be influenced by the luck.

(9). others (refer to the evaluations and helps from teachers and classmates, etc) (14, 15, 16, 17, 18)

The data show that both male and female students on the whole are negative about this kind of relationship can affect English learning. 97.8% of male students and 69.2% of female students think that their English learning are not affected by teachers' evaluations. 86.6% of male students and 86.5% of female students think that their English learning are not affected by the companionship with classmates. 82.2% of male students and 90.4% of female students think there is no relationship between English learning and the helps from their classmates. 60% of male students and 71.2% of female students think there is no relationship between English learning and the helps from their teachers. Only 22.2% of male students and 25% of female students acknowledge English learning is related to the teachers' teaching quality. Weiner regarded these factors as the unstable, external and uncontrollable factors and learners should not attribute the successes or failures of their English learning to these factors, but in the English learning process, especially for the Chinese English learners, the functions of teachers and classmates are very important. And the beliefs of "respect the teacher and reverse his teaching" and "hold together and help each other" are the traditional virtues in China. Therefore, what is the deep resource about this phenomenon? Is the world view of students changed fundamentally or the teachers' ability and quality cannot meet the students' requirements? In view of the existing situation, how should the teacher go about their work? In the author's opinion, the most important and urgent thing is to improve teachers' ability and quality.

All the data from this investigation show that: both male and female students can take a basic correct and reasonable view of their successes or failures of the English learning, which means that the attribution preferences of them are basically correct and reasonable. In the English learning process, the boundary line between the male and female are not very distinct. Both male and female students hold a positive attitude about that the English learning would be affected by the factors of interests, confidence effort and learning environment, and both of them hold a negative attitude about that English learning would be affected by the factors of ability, physical and mental condition, task difficult, luck and other reasons. Both female and male students have similar or even the same opinion about the same reason. The top four elements in the 18 affecting elements, which have the most influence on students' English learning are: effort > learning environment > interesting > confidence. The distinct gender differences are not embodied clearly, but some subtle differences still exist: ①. Both of them admit the influence of the factor of interest, but proportion of male students takes up 80%, while that of the female students only takes up 65.4%. ②. Both of them negate the influence of the factor of teachers' evaluation, but the proportion of male students takes up 97.8%, while that of the female students only takes up 69.2%. Both of the male and female students' chooses belong to the same direction in these two questions, and the differences are just in varying degrees. Some new trends and features also emerged during this study: ①. Both male and female students are negative about the statement that learning ability can affect their English learning. ②. Both of them are negative about the statement that the evaluations and helps from teachers and students can affect their English learning.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper focuses on studying the attribution preferences and gender differences in non-English majors' English learning in Tianjin Polytechnic University. The main questions that this paper tries to answer are the following ones: (1). Whether the students' attribution preference is correct or not? (2). Which are the most important ones I the factors that would have an influence on students' English learning? (3). Whether gender differences exist between male and female students? If it does, what the differences are? The findings show that both male and female students' attribution preferences are relatively correct and reasonable. Both of them regard some stable, internal and controllable factors as the reasons for their success of English learning, and both of them regard some unstable, external and uncontrollable factors as the reasons for their failures of English learning. The top four elements in the 18 affecting elements, which have the most influence on students' English learning are: effort > learning environment > interesting > confidence. No distinct gender differences about their attribution preferences exist in this study, and their opinions about these factors are similar.

The attribution preferences of students will be changed with the development of their learning, so it is very important for teachers to help the students establish the correct attribution preferences and practice the reattribution trainings--strengthen the right attribution and rectify the wrong attribution, and teachers also should revise their opinions and judgments of the students' attribution preferences constantly. The learning environment and the teachers' ability and quality should be improved, and the teaching methods should be adjusted, etc, which can regulate students'

English learning, strengthen students' interest and confidence, etc, so the English learning can be improved by leaps and bounds.

APPENDIX QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ENGLISH LEARNING ATTRIBUTION PREFERENCE

1. Gender: A: Male   B: Female
2. Your major:
3. Your grade: A freshman   B sophomore   C junior   D senior   E postgraduate
4. How do you regard your English learning?
    A: very good   B: good   C: just so-so   D: very poor
5. Your CET-4 score:

Please answer the following questions by choosing one answer from the five possible options.

Question: My English learning is in the present situation, and I attribute it to:

reasons options	A	B	C	D	E
1. the interesting in English					
2. the confidence of learning English					
3. the extent to make effort on English learning					
4. my capability of learning					
5. the learning strategies or methods					
6. when meeting the difficult, I don't know what I should do next					
7. my physical condition					
8. the mood in the class					
9. whether feel tired in the class					
10. the difficult degree of teaching materials					
11. the difficult degree of exams					
12. the learning environment					
13. the luck					
14. the evaluation from teachers					
15. the relationship with classmates					
16. whether get help from classmates					
17. whether get help from teachers					
18. the teachers' teaching quality					

(A=very suitable   B=fairly suitable   C=may or may not   D= not very suitable   E= non-relation)

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Planning Time, Strategy Use, and Written Task Production in a Pedagogic vs. a Testing Context

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Abstract—As there has been little attempt to delve into performance differentials occasioned as a function of planning time in pedagogic versus testing contexts, the present study, taking up a mixed methods approach, addressed the effects of pre-task planning on the written output of intermediate EFL learners under four conditions: 1) no planning in a pedagogic context, 2) pre-task planning in a pedagogic context, 3) no planning in a testing context, and 4) pre-task planning in a testing context. Results showed that provision of pre-task planning time fostered accuracy, syntactic complexity, and fluency in the pedagogic context. In the testing context, also, more accurate, syntactically complex, and fluent output was generated by planners compared to no-planners. Finally, the data gleaned through the interviews showed that metacognitive and cognitive strategies were the most used strategies and that no significant difference existed between planners in the two contexts in terms of strategy use.

Index Terms—pre-task planning, accuracy, complexity, fluency, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Planning time studies have always garnered the attention of researchers, syllabus designers, language teachers, and language testers. This might have followed from findings and implications of studies which indicate that planning more often than not leads to gains in areas of performance; esp. in fluency and complexity (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Rouhi & Marefat, 2006; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Undergirding most of these studies are information processing theories such as those of VanPatten (2002) and Huitt (2003), where it was predicted that in light of limited attentional resources which are at learners' disposal, spoken discourse generated by L2 learners would favor one area of performance (meaning) to the detriment of another (form) (Skehan, 1998; VanPatten, 2002). It was proposed that provision of planning time would unpack some of the real time processing load incurred on L2 learners which buys them time to concentrate more on their performance during on-line execution of the task promoting quality and quantity of performance.

Another account of processes of speech production in L2 was advanced in Anderson's (1983) ACT theory. This theory posits that in skill acquisition, one's explicit knowledge of a skill (declarative knowledge) transforms into implicit knowledge manifest in one's behavior (procedural knowledge). Elder and Iwashita (2005) relate this theory to the beneficial effect of planning time on performance by suggesting that provision of pre-task planning time may ease access to the declarative knowledge through retrieval and rehearsal so that pertinent grammatical forms and lexical items that facilitate production may be retrieved during on-line performance and ready-made plans can be recalled and uttered.

Finally, Skehan (1998) put forth the dual processing mode theory juxtaposing a rule-based system and an exemplar-based system. Unlike the exemplar-based system, the rule-based system is expected to exact a heavy processing burden during on-line language production, especially, in view of learners' limited attentional resources, as "rules need complex processes of construction to underpin their operation…and require detailed attention during comprehension and assembly during production" (p. 89) which make access to such a system time-consuming. It is believed that provision of pre-task planning time makes the rule-based system accessible, rendering language use more accurate.

In short, empirical investigation of such theoretically grounded models are thought to (a) aid task designers select tasks with the appropriate caliber of difficulty which draw upon the full range of learners' abilities; (b) help test developers properly construct test tasks and the conditions under which these tasks are executed; (c) aid development of descriptors of rating scales; and (d) ease interpretation of test scores in accordance with the difficulty of the task (Skehan, 1998).

A. Planning Time Studies in Pedagogic Contexts

In task-based language teaching, planning time has found expression as a task design variable whose contributions to language production cannot be overlooked in pedagogic contexts; especially, with regard to complexity and fluency of production.

In a planning time study, Robinson, Ting and Urwin (1996) investigated the effect of allocation of no planning time vs. 3-minute planning time on written and oral narratives of learners. Results showed that planning time fostered

fluency in speaking but not in writing. However, planners did not generate more accurate discourse in comparison to no-planners in either modality.

Taking up a product- and process-oriented approach toward planning time, Ortega (1999) probed the effects of pre-task planning time (10-minute planning and no planning time) on the performance of learners of Spanish using narrative tasks which were ensued by semi-structured retrospective interviews immediately after each oral task so that the researcher could study the cognitive processes implicated during pre-task planning. Planners outperformed no-planners in terms of fluency. Moreover, planners syntacticized their language significantly more than no-planners. The accuracy measures produced significant results in favor of the planning group, too.

As regards the interviews, planners tried to complexify their discourse more than no-planners. Furthermore, provision of pre-task planning time was found to have favored higher-proficiency learners more than their low-proficiency counterparts. In short, it was found that attention to form is not a natural corollary of pre-task planning. Rather, it may come to pass in the course of pre-task planning only for the developmentally ready leaner in conjunction with the communicative demands of the task and learner's proclivity to attend to form and thereby accuracy. At the end, it is suggested that learner's proficiency level should be taken into account in psycholinguistically-oriented theories of attention, as in an earlier similar study (Ortega, 1995, as cited in Ortega, 1999), it was reported through self-reports that for lower-proficiency learners, communicative stress and lexical retrieval problems registered monumentally in the learners' mind during pre-task planning and performance which could have taken a toll on rehearsal and recall strategies.

Furthering their pursuit of bifurcation of planning time, Ellis and Yuan (2004) implemented essentially the same experimental design as that of their previous study (Yuan & Ellis, 2003) around a narrative writing task in order to extend their findings regarding planning time across modalities. As expected, planners produced significantly more fluent discourse in comparison to their no-planning counterparts. Pre-task planners syntacticized their discourse significantly more than no planners and almost significantly compared to on-line planners. Accuracy measures revealed that the difference between on-line planners and no planners verged on significance with on-line planners being the most accurate among all.

In a rare attempt at exploring the composite effects of task design indices, Gilabert (2004) crossed planning time (50-second planning time vs. 10-minute planning time) with +/- Here-and-Now (keeping the visual stimuli vs. removal of visual stimuli). Four different oral narrative tasks which were manipulated along the task features were used. It was found that provision of planning time aided fluency in terms of pruned speech rate in both Here-and-Now and There-and-Then planning conditions. As regards lexical complexity assessed by Guiraud's Index of lexical richness, planning conditions lexicalized their speech more than no-planning conditions.

Contesting the previous research which has not taken account of the bearings of pre-task planning on L2 learners' allocation of attention to form, meaning, or both, Sangarun (2005) examined the effects of form-fused, meaning-focused, and meaning/form-focused pre-task planning on EFL learners' pre-task cognitive processes, on the way L2 learners put their strategic plans into effect, and on the measures of spoken production thus affected (fluency, complexity, and accuracy). Having provided think-alouds during the strategic planning phase, the learners in the planning groups executed an instruction task ensued by an argumentative task following the same procedure.

In the main, regardless of their planning condition, learners stood to focus on meaning, when engaged in pre-task planning. Overall, the instructions led the learners to focus on either form or meaning related to their respective groups, i.e., the form-focused group planned vocabulary on a large scale, the meaning-focused group planned meaning intensively, and the meaning/form-focused group divided their attention between form (grammatical corrections) and meaning.

Also, regarding application of strategic plans, it was found that learners in the meaning-focused and meaning/form-focused group used more planned ideas and fewer unplanned ideas than the other planning group concerning the argumentative task and the instruction task, respectively. To boot, the meaning/form-focused group used more planned forms in both tasks. The researcher concluded that pre-task planning directed toward meaning/form is more effective than either form-focused or meaning-focused strategic planning.

Regarding accuracy assessed through the percentage of error-free clauses and the number of errors per 100 words, positive accuracy gains were found for the meaning-focused and form-focused groups for the argumentative task and in the meaning/form-focused group for both tasks. Regarding complexity measured by the number of S-nodes per T-unit and the number of clauses per T-unit, the hypothesis that the meaning-focused and meaning/form-focused groups would promote speech complexity was borne out. In terms of speech fluency calculated by speech rate and the percentage of total pausing time, positive effects for all three planning groups were found for the instruction task and for the form-focused group for the argumentative task.

B. Planning Time Studies in Testing Contexts

A number of studies in testing contexts have also homed in on the bearings of planning time on performance. Interestingly, relatively attenuated gains in performance areas were reported in these contexts. To compound the problem, the operationalizations of testing contexts have differed across studies.

Using an array of tasks, Wigglesworth (1997) investigated planning (no planning time and 1-minute planning time) across proficiency levels (high and low). Both discourse-analytic measures and analytic ratings were implemented. It was found that planning time led to the complexification of higher-proficiency testees' speech in the more difficult tasks.

Also, planners produced more fluent discourse compared to no-planners. It was hypothesized that the easier the task, the less likely it is that planning time advantages performance. Analysis of accuracy gains revealed that performance was significantly promoted by planning time for the high-proficiency group in the summary of conversation and picture tasks. Regarding the low-proficiency group, performance in terms of accuracy on all tasks except for picture tasks was improved by planning time. As regards analytic ratings, the researcher found that the trained raters did not find any differences across the proficiency groups.

Iwashita, McNamara and Elder (2001) explored the differential effects of manipulation of planning time (3.5 mins vs. 0.5 min). No significant differences were found in terms of the discourse-analytic measures of accuracy, complexity, and fluency, findings which did not accord well with the existing findings pertaining to Limited Attentional Capacity Model (Skehan, 1998; Skehan and Foster, 1999, 2001).

Elder and Iwashita (2005) probed the effect of pre-task planning on oral performance in a testing context and on test takers' perceptions of task difficulty. Measures of accuracy, complexity, and fluency did not show any difference between the planning conditions. In addition, it was found that pre-task planning exerted no influence on perceptions of task difficulty and task enjoyment. At the end, the researchers questioned the contribution of pre-task planning to language testing and came to the conclusion that results yielded may be "due to the fact that language behavior in a test situation is fundamentally different from language of the classroom or of real world encounters and therefore that findings of SLA classroom research may not be generalizable to testing contexts" (p. 235).

Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) crossed degree of structure (4 levels) and strategic planning across elementary and intermediate proficiency levels. Planners generated more fluent discourse than no-planners. Accuracy was also promoted as a function of planning time. The planning group produced significantly more complex discourse than the no-planning group.

Grounding his speculation in the findings of planning studies in pedagogic and testing contexts, Ellis (2005) contends that "planning seems to have less effect on performance on tasks in tests than in other contexts" (p. 217). By punctuating the high-stakesness of a test environment, and therefore, the significance of testees' performance in a testing context, Ellis proposes that apparently a testing environment calls for attention to accuracy while steering attention away from other areas of performance and that the high-stakesness of the test environment heightens attention to accuracy during task execution which in turn eschews any effect of pre-task planning on all three areas of performance.

By and large, the above cited research indicates that planning favors fluency and complexity of production in pedagogic contexts; however, results regarding the effect of planning on performance areas in testing contexts are mixed. Therefore, a single study of planning in both pedagogic and testing contexts bears special significance, as the differentials of performance in these two different contexts have not been explored in one single study. To compound the problem, in addition to the fact that the writing mode has received scant attention in planning research in pedagogic contexts, no studies of planning have targeted writing in a testing context. This seems bizarre since the role of pre-task planning cannot be denied in writing. Finally, what planners do when they plan have gone unheeded in previous research save in a handful of oral studies (Ortega, 1999, 2005). Therefore, the present study sought to ascertain the effects of pre-task planning on written performance in pedagogic and testing contexts in terms of discourse-analytic measures of accuracy, syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, and fluency, and also to explore the strategies utilized during pre-task planning time through post-task interviews.

Research Questions:

The following research questions led the course of the present investigation:

1. Does manipulation of pre-task planning time and context affect written performance in terms of accuracy?

2. Does manipulation of pre-task planning time and context affect written performance in terms of syntactic complexity?

3. Does manipulation of pre-task planning time and context affect written performance in terms of lexical complexity?

4. Does manipulation of pre-task planning time and context affect written performance in terms of fluency?

5. Does manipulation of context affect strategies adopted during pre-task planning time?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants for the present study were 75 Iranian intermediate EFL learners, 43 females and 32 males, aged between 18 and 41, chosen from 101 English learners from twelve intact mixed sex classes. The participants had been placed in the same level of English class by either an institutional placement test or a final examination composing of a written examination and an oral interview at a language school, namely Farhikhtegane Daneshgah Institute. At the time of data collection, the participants were studying New Interchange 2. In order to ensure homogeneity of the groups of participants in terms of language proficiency, Nelson Language Proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1976) was administered; the participants whose scores ranged between 50 and 60 were selected.

There were four groups of participants; learners from every three classes were grouped together. Each of these groups was assigned to one of the conditions in the study. The composition of each group was as follows: The no-planning group in the pedagogic context consisted of 16 language learners; the pre-task planning group in the pedagogic

context consisted of 18 participants; the no-planning group in the testing context consisted of 18 language learners; and the pre-task planning group in the testing context consisted of 23 participants. Further analysis based on the proficiency test showed no significant differences across the groups of participants in terms of language proficiency.

B. Material

The task used in the present study was a tightly structured picture narrative consisting of eleven pictures taken from Salvador (1991). A narrative task was chosen because first, in addition to being used by some international testing organizations (e.g., Test of Spoken English, University of Cambridge's YLE), narrative tasks have a long tradition in task-based research (Ortega, 1999) in light of their being non-interactive and thus openness to greater control (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005) and the resultant suitability for standardization (Tavakoli, 2009); second, the use of narrative tasks enables comparison with studies of planning which have used similar tasks (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2007); third, learners are familiar with their macrostructure (Skehan, 2001); fourth, they are deemed reasonably demanding on the part of learners (Yuan & Ellis, 2003), provided that some interpretation of the pictures bears down upon the learners (e.g., Skehan & Foster, 1999); fifth, the task used involves a small number of characters in the story (Gilabert, 2007); sixth, narrative tasks are reliable and authentic elicitation devices (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005); seventh, they are tightly structured so as to eschew individual variation and facilitate comparison (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005); eighth, they typify tasks used in EFL course books; finally, they are wordless so as not to clue learners in on the words that participants can use in their writing (Gilabert, 2007).

C. Procedures

Planning was defined at two levels of no planning and pre-task planning and context, on the other hand, was operationalized at two levels of pedagogic and testing contexts. These operationalizations generated the following conditions (Table 1): no planning in the pedagogic context; pre-task planning in the pedagogic context; no planning in the testing context; and pre-task planning in the testing context.

In the no planning & pedagogic context condition, the participants performed the task under normal classroom settings in the presence of their normal teacher with the researcher present all along. Upon receiving the picture set, the participants wrote the story embedded in the picture series in 14 minutes and had to write at least 150 words. The time limit for task completion was established based on a pilot study in which participants who had been at a proficiency level comparable to that of the participants in the main study had to write out the same narrative as the one used in the main study. No time limit was fixed. All times were jutted down and then, following Rouhi and Marefat (2006), averaged to set a time limit for the study in the pedagogic context. The resultant mean, and thereby the time limit, was 14 minutes. Following Ellis and Yuan (2004) and Yuan and Ellis (2003), this procedure was implemented so as to curb large scale on-line planning.

In the planning & pedagogic context condition, the participants performed the task under normal classroom settings in the presence of their teacher with the researcher present all the time. Like the no planning & the pedagogic context condition, they were required to finish the task in 14 minutes and write at least 150 words so that on-line planning was partially curtailed. Having been provided with the picture set, they were given a piece of paper to write notes during the pre-task planning time which was set at 10 minutes in the study. The provision of 10-minute pre-task planning time was based on previous research (Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2007; Ortega, 1999, to name but a few). Following Ellis and Yuan (2004) and Foster and Skehan (1996), no detailed instruction was given to the participants; they were asked to plan their output in terms of content, organization, and language. Upon the completion of 10 minutes of pre-task planning time, the notes were removed, with participants' prior knowledge. According to Ellis and Yuan (2004), the removal of written notes serves dual purposes: first, it ensures that the language generated during task completion is produced solely during that spell; secondly, notes can be used to probe how the participants plan and to help stimulate recall in retrospective interviews.

In the no planning & testing context condition, with the institute's consent, the researcher posing as an administrative in the institute informed the learners, who did not have any prior knowledge of an upcoming examination, that they would be taking an examination in the form of a pop quiz in that session. They were also told that the test results would have a direct impact on their final score, and therefore, on their entry into the following level. Upon receiving the picture set, the testees commenced writing the story embedded in the picture series. They had 16 minutes to complete the task and were asked to write at least 150 words. This time limit was fixed based on a pilot run in which participants had to narrate the same story as the one used in the main study. No time limit was fixed. All times were noted and then averaged to set a time limit for the study in the testing context which was clocked at 16 minutes. Following Ellis and Yuan (2004) and Yuan and Ellis (2003), this procedure was implemented so as to limit on-line planning.

In the planning & testing context condition, which was formulated the same as the no planning & the testing context condition in terms of testing context establishment, having been provided with the picture set, the testees were given a piece of paper to write notes during the pre-task planning time which was set at 10 minutes in the study. Upon the completion of 10 minutes of pre-task planning time, the notes were collected with testees' prior knowledge. Like the no planning & pedagogic context condition, they were required to finish the task in 16 minutes and write at least 150 words.

TABLE 1
THE EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

No planning & pedagogic context	Planning & pedagogic context	No planning & testing context	Planning & testing context
n = 16	n = 18	n = 18	n = 23
No pre-task planning time	10 minutes for planning	No pre-task planning time	10 minutes for planning
14 minutes to perform the task	14 minutes to perform the task	16 minutes to perform the task	16 minutes to perform the task
Picture set accessible during execution	Picture set accessible during execution	Picture set accessible during execution	Picture set accessible during execution
	Interview		Interview

Subsequently, the 41 planners were interviewed by the researcher and a research assistant who had a degree in TEFL and was fully aware of research purposes and familiar with the research study. The interviews were conducted in Persian in order to gain better insights into what strategies were employed by the participants over the course of pre-task planning time, what differentials, if any, existed between the two planning groups in terms of their use of strategies while planning for an upcoming task, and finally what planners did during pre-task planning time. The participants were not previously let in on the fact that they would be interviewed. The reason for opting for stimulated retrospective interviews rather than introspective verbal reports was the dissenting accounts of validity of verbal reports (See Alavi, 2005; Cohen, 1994).

The interviews lasted approximately 15 minutes per interviewee. The purpose of the semi-structured interviews was to delve into the a priori categories pertaining to the taxonomies advanced by O'Malley and Chamot (1996), Oxford (1990), Ortega (2005) and Dornyei (1995).

The interviews were done with a strong focus on the possible differentials in terms of strategy use between pedagogic and testing planners. Accordingly, the picture task, the participants' notes collected after task performance, and the researcher's notes formed the basis for interview questions. To this end, an interview protocol was developed which was to be modified through follow-up questions as needs be. Subsequently, the researcher and the research assistant discussed the protocol and their approach to questioning the interviewees. The researcher and the research assistant did their utmost to eschew from asking leading questions which would conduce to researcher bias. All interviews were recorded by an MP3 recorder and subsequently transcribed for analysis of strategy use during pre-task planning time.

D. Data Analysis

In order to detect any possible variations across conditions, discourse-analytic measures of grammatical accuracy, syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, and fluency were run.

Accuracy was operationalized as the percentage of error-free clauses (EFC), the number of errors per 100 words (NER), and the percentage of target-like use of English articles (TLU). In order to implement EFC and NER, Polio's (1997) guidelines with regard to errors were strictly observed save misspellings (punctuation and capitalization). T-units were taken as the clauses which encompassed a main clause in addition to any subordinate clauses (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985). Sentence fragments were not deemed T-units. Clauses were defined as those which had finite verbs (Polio, 1997). As regards TLU, misspellings between *a* and *an* were overlooked.

As regards syntactic complexity, two production measures were used: the number of S-nodes per T-unit (S-nodes/T) and the number of clauses per T-unit (C/T). T-units and C-units have been both opted as measures of complexity in task-based research; however, Robinson (2001) views the former as a more viable index for measuring complexity of monologic narrative performance and the latter as a variant for assessing complexity of interactional production, inasmuch as dialogic performance is suffused with elliptical and fragmentary utterances. Following Mehnert (1998), S-nodes included both finite and nonfinite clauses. S-nodes are also thought to be a better measure of syntactic complexity in comparison to subordinate clauses (Crookes, 1989).

Lexical complexity was assessed through one measure of lexical variation, namely MSTTR (Mean Segmental Type-Token Ratio), springing from Ellis and Yuan (2004), Malvern, Richards, Chipere, and Duran (2004), and Yuan and Ellis (2003). Type-Token ratio (TTR) has been the mainstay of a good deal of task-based researches; however, many recent calls have brought the validity of this measure into question, as myriads of studies have not dealt in the fact that type-token ratio is overly sensitive to text length (Carrol, 1967; as cited in Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998), i.e., the longer a text is, the lower the score for TTR. In order to mitigate this problem, MSTTR was implemented. As such, following Ellis and Yuan (2004) and Yuan and Ellis (2003), for the calculation of this index of lexical complexity, each narrative was divided into segments of 40 words and the Type-Token Ratio of each segment was computed by dividing the total number of words by the total number of different words in the segment. Subsequently, the MSTTR was calculated by adding the mean score of the segments and dividing the total by the total number of segments in the text for each participant.

Fluency was assessed through the calculation of the number of dysfluencies, i.e., the total number of words a participant reformulated (crossed out and changed) (Ellis & Yuan, 2004). Hyphenated words were counted as one word (Ishikawa, 2007).

All performances were coded by the researcher and an independent coder whose reliability index for measures of accuracy and fluency reached above .90. However, the reliability coefficients for the complexity measures registered lower. To remedy this problem, after a discussion session between the researcher and the independent coder, the data for these measures were re-coded. This time, the inter-coder reliability reached .84 and .88 for syntactic complexity measures (number of S-nodes/T and C/T, respectively) and .89 for the lexical complexity measure.

As regards the dataset, the normal distribution of the four groups' scores was tested in terms of skewness and kurtosis. In cases of normal distribution of scores, two-way between subjects ANOVAs were run for which main effects and partial eta squared (Cohen, 1988) were reported (0.01 = small, 0.06 = medium, 0.14 = large).

Concerning interviews, all interviews were coded in relation to the a priori categories anchored, in the main, in the taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot (1996), and secondarily in that of Oxford (1990), of Ortega (2005) and one category from Dornyei (1995).

Selected from O'Malley and Chamot (1996), these strategies included meta-cognitive strategies (advance organizing, directed attention, selective attention, self-monitoring, functional planning, self-evaluation, and problem identification), cognitive strategies (translation, note taking, outlining, summarizing, imagery, elaboration, and rehearsing, the last of which was chosen from Oxford, 1990), avoidance strategies (topic avoidance and one category from Dornyei, 1995, namely message abandonment) and affective strategies (self-talk) and also three emergent themes in Ortega's (2005) study, namely writing for retrieval, writing for recall, and cross-language monitoring, and finally compensation strategies, grounded in Oxford's (1990) classification, namely circumlocution, approximation, and lexical transfer. To wit, writing for retrieval collapsed into lexical retrieval and grammatical retrieval and also two other categories were considered as avoidance strategies (grammatical and lexical avoidance) which were all studied in order to further elucidate the use of the given superordinate categories.

In addition, a number of items from O'Malley and Chamot's (1996) emergent themes were not dealt in in light of the assumption that they did not pertain to the tightly structured narrative writing which was used in the study (comprehension monitoring, auditory monitoring, personal elaboration, academic elaboration, resourcing, grouping, substitution, between parts elaboration, questioning elaboration, self-evaluative elaboration, creative elaboration, inferencing, questioning for clarification, cooperation, and self-reinforcement), overlapped with other categories (transfer and visual monitoring), or those which could not be applied to strategy use during pre-task planning time (strategy monitoring, plan monitoring, and strategy evaluation) were excluded from the interviews. The same was applied to Oxford's (1990) classification of rehearsing (memory) and compensation strategies. As for the former, physically acting out words, using rhymes, using flashcards, placing new words in a context were excluded due to their assumed irrelevance to a writing investigation. Also, reviewing well and elaboration were also crossed out, as they overlapped with other categories. As regards the latter, guessing, getting help, using mime or gesture, and coining words were excluded, as they were deemed unrelated to the nature of the writing task in the study.

The transcribed interviews were then subjected to thematic content analysis, which was based on the a priori strategies expounded earlier. The researcher coded all the qualitative data. However, the independent coder coded 30% of the data. The intercoder agreement using Cohen's kappa reached .83.

III. RESULTS

In what follows, first the results of the analysis of the participants' output is presented followed by the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the interviews whose main purpose was to tap into the strategies employed by planners during planning time and also to find differences, if any, between pedagogic planners and testing planners in their use of strategies during that time spell.

A. Measures

The descriptive statistics for the measures of grammatical accuracy, syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, and fluency are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY, SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY, LEXICAL COMPLEXITY, AND FLUENCY ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Dependent variables		Pedagogic context		Testing context	
		No planning	Planning	No planning	Planning
Accuracy					
% of EFC	Mean	58.18	61.16	61.83	68.13
	SD	7.52	6.97	9.88	7.30
NER	Mean	8.31	7.16	6.88	5.47
	SD	2.65	2.22	2.32	2.10
% of TLU	Mean	64.51	71.68	73.66	67.57
	SD	9.84	9.22	12.47	10.90
Syntactic complexity					
S-nodes per T-unit	Mean	1.33	1.52	1.28	1.60
	SD	.17	.18	.16	.14
Clauses per T-unit	Mean	1.15	1.20	1.17	1.24
	SD	.07	.07	.05	.08
Lexical complexity					
MSTTR	Mean	.77	.80	.78	.78
	SD	.06	.05	.07	.05
Fluency					
Dysfluencies	Mean	8.18	4.77	8.94	6.17
	SD	2.88	1.86	2.64	1.74

Note: EFC = error-free clauses; NER = number of errors per 100 words; TLU = target-like use of English articles; MSTTR = Mean Segmental Type-Token Ratio.

Skewness and kurtosis showed that the data for the percentage of error-free clauses, the number of errors per 100 words, the number of S-nodes per T-unit, MSTTR, and the number of dysfluencies in the text were normal. That leaves the data for the percentage of target-like use of English articles and the number of clauses per T-unit, for which data were found to be nonnormal. Therefore, with regard to the former group, two-way between subjects ANOVAs were conducted (Table 3). As regards the latter, the two-way between subjects ANOVA's equivalent, namely the Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 4) was conducted ensued by the Mann-Whitney U tests (Table 5).

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF TWO-WAY BETWEEN-SUBJECTS ANOVAS FOR GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY, SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY, LEXICAL COMPLEXITY, AND FLUENCY ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Independent variables	Measures	SS	df	MS	F-Value	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Planning time	% of EFC	396.377	1	396.377	6.240	.015*	.081
	NER	30.105	1	30.105	5.633	.020*	.074
	% of TLU	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	S-nodes per T-unit	1.155	1	1.155	41.766	.000*	.370
	Clauses per T-unit	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	MSTTR	0.006	1	0.006	1.591	.211	.022
	Dysfluencies	145.253	1	145.253	26.555	.000*	.269
Context	% of EFC	518.513	1	518.513	8.163	.006*	.103
	NER	44.611	1	44.611	8.347	.005*	.105
	% of TLU	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	S-nodes per T-unit	0.008	1	0.008	0.305	.583	.004
	Clauses per T-unit	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	MSTTR	0.000	1	0.000	0.081	.777	.001
	Dysfluencies	0.500	1	0.500	0.091	.763	.001
Planning time * Context	% of EFC	50.710	1	50.710	0.798	.375	.011
	NER	0.323	1	0.323	0.60	.807	.001
	% of TLU	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	S-nodes per T-unit	0.089	1	0.089	3.218	.077	.043
	Clauses per T-unit	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	MSTTR	0.007	1	0.007	1.671	.200	.023
	Dysfluencies	0.000	1	n.a	n.a	n.a	.000

* = Statistically significant at $p < .05$

TABLE 4
RESULTS OF KRUSKAL-WALLIS TESTS FOR THE PERCENTAGE OF TLU AND THE NUMBER OF CLAUSES PER T-UNIT ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Dependent variables	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
% of TLU	6.261	3	.100
C/T	13.485	3	.004*

* = Statistically significant at $p < .05$

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY U TESTS FOR THE PERCENTAGE OF TLU AND THE PERCENTAGE OF C/T ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Dependent variables	Comparison	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
% of TLU	Planning vs. No planning	682.500	1543.500	-.154	.877
	Pedagogic context vs.Testing context	652.000	1247.000	-.479	.632
C/T	Planning vs. No planning	384.500	979.500	-3.332	.001*
	Pedagogic context vs.Testing context	543.000	1138.000	-1.642	.101

* = Statistically significant at $p < .05$

Null Hypothesis 1. Manipulation of pre-task planning time and context does not affect written performance in terms of grammatical accuracy.

As regards the percentage of EFC, a significant main effect for pre-task planning time ($F_{(1, 71)} = 6.240$, p = .015) with a moderate effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .081$) was detected. On the other hand, the effect of manipulation of context reached statistical significance ($F_{(1, 71)} = 8.163$, p = .006) with a moderate effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .103$). On the other hand, the effect of the interaction between the two independent variables was shown to be nonsignificant (Planning time * Context: $F_{(1, 71)} = 0.798$, p = .375).

In terms of NER, a significant main effect for pre-task planning time ($F_{(1, 71)} = 5.633$, p = .020) with an almost moderate effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .074$) was found. Moreover, manipulation of context significant influenced accuracy gains ($F_{(1, 71)} = 8.347$, p = .005) with a moderate effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .105$). To wit, the effect of provision of pre-task planning time did not impinge on the context in which it was provided (Planning time * Context: $F_{(1, 71)} = 0.60$, p = .807).

The last measure of accuracy, the percentage of target-like use of English articles revealed no significant differences across the groups of participants ($x^2 = 6.261$, df = 3, $p = .100$). Further, two Mann-Whitney U tests were run to gain a better understanding of the differences across the conditions which registered no differences across the groups either as a function of planning time or that of context ($z = 682.500$, $p = .877$, $z = 652.000$, $p = .632$, respectively).

Accordingly, in light of the substantial effect of manipulation of planning time and context on the accuracy of written output, the first null hypothesis was disconfirmed.

Null Hypothesis 2. Manipulation of pre-task planning time and context does not affect written performance in terms of syntactic complexity.

Pre-task planning time significantly increased the number of S-nodes per T-unit ($F_{(1, 71)} = 41.766$, p = .000), an effect which was very large in magnitude ($\eta_p^2 = .370$). However, manipulation of context did not exert a significant influence on syntactic complexity ($F_{(1, 71)} = .305$, p = .583). Finally, the effect of the interaction between the two independent variables was shown to be nonsignificant ($F_{(1, 71)} = 3.218$, p = .077).

The number of clauses per T-unit, the second measure of syntactic complexity, demonstrated that planners significantly complexified their written output in comparison to no-planners ($x^2 = 13.485$, df = 3, $p = .004$). Further analysis revealed that increments along planning time significantly fostered syntactic complexity ($z = 384.500$, $p = .001$) although the effect of manipulation of context fell shy of significance ($z = 543.000$, $p = .101$).

In the wake of the significant effect of manipulation of planning time on the syntactic complexity of written output, the third null hypothesis was disconfirmed.

Null Hypothesis 3. Manipulation of pre-task planning time and context does not affect written performance in terms of lexical complexity.

The lexical complexity measure, MSTTR, did not show any significant main effects as a function of pre-task planning time or context ($F_{(1, 71)} = 1.591$, p = .211, $F_{(1, 71)} = 0.081$, p = .777, respectively). Moreover, the interaction between the two independent variables was found to be nonsignificant ($F_{(1, 71)} = 1.671$, p = .200). Hence, the third hypothesis had to be accepted.

Null Hypothesis 4. Manipulation of pre-task planning time and context does not affect written performance in terms of fluency.

Finally, Two-way between subjects ANOVA showed a significant main effect for pre-task planning time ($F_{(1, 71)} = 26.555$, p = .000) with a very large effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .26$). Manipulation of context, on the other hand, did not significantly influence fluency ($F_{(1, 71)} = 0.091$, p = .763). Therefore, the fourth null hypothesis was disconfirmed.

B. The Interviews

In this section, the quantitative analyses of the interviews are presented coupled with tidbits of translated interview responses from the participants, deemed paramount, in quotations.

The interviews were conducted in order to ferret out the metacognitive, cognitive, affective, compensation, and avoidance strategies employed during the pre-task planning phase of the task (Table 6).

TABLE 6
STRATEGIES DOCUMENTED IN THE INTERVIEWS

Strategy types		Total sample (N = 41)		Pedagogic planners (n = 18)		Testing planners (n = 23)	
		Raw	Percent	Raw	Percent	Raw	Percent
Metacognitive strategies							
1	Directed attention	12	29%	8	44%	4	17%
2	Problem identification	15	36%	4	22%	11	48%
3	Advance organizing	19	46%	10	55%	9	39%
4	Functional planning	30	73%	12	67%	18	78%
5	Selective attention	37	90%	16	89%	21	91%
6	Evaluation	29	18%	9	12%	20	22%
6.1	Performance evaluation	9	22%	3	17%	6	26%
6.2	Production evaluation	5	12%	0	0%	5	22%
6.3	Repertoire evaluation	6	15%	4	22%	2	9%
6.4	Ability evaluation	9	22%	2	11%	7	30%
7	Monitoring	112	45%	48	44%	64	46%
7.1	Production monitoring	88	71%	36	67%	52	75%
7.1.1	Vocabulary	20	49%	7	39%	13	56%
7.1.2	Grammar	33	80%	13	72%	20	87%
7.1.3	Error correction	35	85%	16	89%	19	83%
7.2	Cross-language monitoring	9	22%	6	33%	3	13%
7.3	Style monitoring	5	12%	5	28%	0	0%
7.4	Double-check monitoring	10	24%	1	6%	9	39%
Cognitive strategies							
1	Note taking	29	71%	11	61%	18	78%
2	Translation	22	54%	11	61%	11	48%
3	Outlining	18	44%	5	28%	13	56%
4	Summarizing	3	7%	3	17%	0	0%
5	Induction/deduction	22	54%	12	67%	10	43%
6	Writing for recall	35	85%	15	83%	20	87%
7	Writing for retrieval	23	28%	11	30%	12	26%
7.1	Writing for retrieval (lexical items)	18	43%	6	33%	12	52%
7.2	Writing for retrieval (grammatical items)	5	12%	5	28%	0	0%
8	Imagery	15	36%	5	28%	10	43%
9	Elaboration	8	19%	2	11%	6	26%
10	Rehearsal	53	43%	19	35%	34	49%
10.1	Rereading	34	83%	15	83%	19	83%
10.2	Mental	16	39%	4	22%	12	52%
10.3	Subarticulatory	3	7%	0	0%	3	13%
Affective strategy							
1	Self-talk	12	29%	3	17%	9	39%
Compensation strategies							
1	Circumlocution	12	29%	6	33%	6	26%
2	Approximation	7	17%	4	22%	3	13%
3	Lexical transfer	11	27%	2	11%	9	39%
Avoidance strategies							
1	Concept avoidance	8	19%	4	22%	4	17%
2	Avoidance (lexical items)	13	32%	4	22%	9	39%
3	Avoidance (grammatical items)	8	19%	2	11%	6	26%
4	Message abandonment	3	7%	3	17%	0	0%

In general terms, the most documented strategies employed by at least half of all 41 planners included selective attention (90%), writing for recall (85%), error correction (85%), rereading (83%), grammar monitoring (80%), functional planning (73%), production monitoring in general (71%), note taking (71%), translation (54%), induction/deduction (54%), and vocabulary monitoring (49%). In effect, the oft-mentioned strategies were the metacognitive and cognitive ones which direct attention to the primacy of monitoring, planning, rehearsal, and retrieval strategies during pre-task planning time.

With respect to the differences in terms of strategy use between pedagogic and testing planners over the course of task preparation, testing planners more often than not seem to have resorted to more strategies than pedagogic planners with these discrepancies, if 20% difference or higher is deemed large, being strongest in double-check monitoring (33%), mental rehearsal (30%), writing for retrieval of grammatical items (28%), style monitoring (28%), outlining (28%), lexical transfer (28%), directed attention (27%), problem identification (26%), production evaluation (22%), cross-language monitoring (20%), ability evaluation (19%), writing for retrieval of lexical items (19%). The thread of preponderance of monitoring, rehearsal, and retrieval strategies hand in hand with the evaluation ones runs through the participants' interview responses which, in effect, reveal the relatively divergent nature of strategies adopted by testing planners in comparison to the pedagogic planners. In essence, tweaking the nature of a task environment may have exerted an influence on the way planners put their time to use.

As can be seen in Table 6, the metacognitive themes highly punctuated in the interviews were allocation of attention, planning, monitoring, and evaluation. Both groups capitalized on the idea of selective attention over the course of pre-task planning time. This "considering the details" was more often than not entwined with the forethought to detect problems; in particular, regarding grammar and vocabulary during performance. Furthermore, it seems that a focus-on-form concern in addition to the need to "laden the text with details", to be "organized in writing", to "write in good English" and to "write correctly" prodded the planners into selectively attending to, without being prompted to do so, areas of performance in which they felt they were falling behind. It seems that the demands of the task and the context goaded them into choosing selective allocation of attention, an approach which was more stressed upon by testing planners. On the other hand, a smattering of pedagogic planners reported using directed attention. It seems that these planners had a penchant to merely focus on meaning and message conveyance.

A second oft-mentioned theme was the participants' concern for planning their performance, the comments regarding which ranged from planning the development in the simplest form, i.e., previewing and thinking about the storyline to linking it to their life, in O'Mally and Chamot's (1996) term, what is known as personal elaboration, thinking about the purpose of the task and the goals to achieve (esp., in the case of testing planners), changing the perspective, creative interpretations and concoctions, according to O'Malley and Chamot, what is referred to as creative elaboration, vocabulary, grammar, phrases or chunks that come in handy, and even in one case spelling.

Likewise, self-monitoring figured prominently in the interviews, among which production monitoring found striking expression. In addition to the need to be correct in terms of grammar and lexis, testees took a mention of monitoring as a necessary strategy in exams as it leads to higher scores and more self-confidence, and also "it makes one look good". It seems that the demands of the test environment occasioned a stronger sort of focus on form during pre-task planning time.

The cognitive themes underscored in the interviews revolved around how the planners interacted with the task in advance of task execution, namely note-taking, outlining, summarizing, writing for recall, writing for retrieval, imagery, induction/deduction, translation, and rehearsal.

Being a frequently used strategy by both groups of planners, note-taking was in the main implemented to focus attention on the main content of the picture series, help "gather one's thoughts", "help one remember the main points", and improve the organization of the text. This strategy was more preferred by the testing planners, as they were in the belief that taking notes and memorizing them could help them develop a layout of the whole plotline and expedite their production, a conviction which grew out of a concern for time management and this in its own right lowered their anxiety and upped their self-confidence under the stressful examination conditions.

Outlining was another strategy characteristically favored by testing planners which was opted in order to provide a blueprint for action, as the fact that they were going to be tested seemed to have taken a toll on their attentional resources and prompted them to come up with ways to counter the pressure of task demands which may have been amplified by the manipulation of context. In contrast, pedagogic planners did not "see a point" in outlining. Summarizing, on the other hand, was adopted solely by few pedagogic planners. Other planners in both contexts thought the planning time was almost sufficient to write out the whole task. Hence, they preferred to complete the task during strategic planning time as "a dry run" of the main task so that they could "sail through it" during task execution and in the case of testing planners remember the vocabulary that they had used in their notes more easily during the task proper.

A good deal of planners took to writing for the purpose of recall in advance of task execution. In effect, they believed that planning time helped them recall the storyline better during task execution, boosted their self-confidence, lowered their anxiety, helped them manage time better, helped them take risks over the course of task execution, in particular, with regard to grammatical structures, and helped them unpack the processing load of the task. Writing for recall was more often than not executed in the hope of later recall and that production monitoring could be set in motion, as the output was "in print", thereby rendering task proper easier to manage.

On the other hand, the planners' responses contained remarks of writing for lexical retrieval and also grammatical retrieval to a lesser extent. The former typified testing planners' approach, while the latter was in the main employed by a few pedagogic planners, as other planners in both groups thought if they "had the right words in mind", they could "put them into sentences without thinking too deeply about grammar". Nevertheless, lexical retrieval problems and grammatical retrieval problems were rife. This resonates with Ortega's (1999) ceiling for the effect of planning.

The next strategy was imagery which was doubly preferred by the testing planners in comparison to pedagogic planners. Visualization was thought to help one remember the storyline better and more vividly, engage with the story and relate to it which helped the planners add more details (personal elaboration) and come up with more vocabulary items and more interpretations.

Another type of documented strategy was deduction which was mostly employed by pedagogic planners, as they reported having cogitated grammatical structures while producing the language. This theme was in the main followed by double-check monitoring and reading rehearsal. It seemed that conscious attention to rules raised more doubts about the incorrectness of those rules. However, testees believed that giving too much attention to grammatical rules could have "steered attention away from the message", would have led to more mistakes, and could have "jumbled the

storyline" This might have sprung from their preoccupation with time management and preparation for the upcoming performance.

Translation was also favored more by pedagogic planners than by their testing counterparts. This strategy was usually coupled with production monitoring. Translation happened at word level by all the participants that reported using it, at phrase level by 4 pedagogic planners (36%) and 2 testing planners (10%), and at sentence level by only 2 pedagogic planners (18%).

Finally, the rehearsal strategy was used; particularly, rereading and mental rehearsal in order to facilitate recall and retrieval. The former was utilized to improve development, organization, grammar, and vocabulary, while the latter was used to enhance vocabulary and grammar.

Table 7 reports the descriptive statistics of the five strategy types employed by each pedagogic and testing planner. Overall, out of the approximately 11 or 12 strategies which each planner on average availed themselves of, 6 to 7 were metacognitive strategies, 5 to 6 cognitive ones, 0 to 1 affective strategy, 0 to 1 compensation strategy, and finally 0 to 1 avoidance strategy. In addition, testing planners used more strategies than pedagogic planners with the differences being largest in terms of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

TABLE 7
STRATEGIES REPORTED PER PLANNING WRITER

	All strategies	Metacognitive	Cognitive	Affective	Compensation	Avoidance
All participants						
Mean	11.75	6.19	5.56	.29	.73	.78
SD	2.67	1.76	1.37	.46	.80	.85
Pedagogic planners						
Mean	10.27	5.94	5.22	.16	.66	.72
SD	2.24	1.76	1.39	.38	.90	.89
Testing planners						
Mean	12.91	6.39	5.82	.39	.78	.82
SD	2.42	1.77	1.33	.49	.73	.83

In order to find out if these differences were significant, a series of independent-samples t tests was run which revealed no significant differences between pedagogic and testing planners in their use of metacognitive, cognitive, affective, compensation, and avoidance strategies ($t_{(1, 39)} = -0.801$, $p = .428$; $t_{(1, 39)} = -1.408$, $p = .167$; $t_{(1, 39)} = -1.578$, $p = .123$; $t_{(1, 39)} = -0.452$, $p = .654$; $t_{(1, 39)} = -0.383$, $p = .704$, respectively). Hence, there does not seem to be any significant difference between planners in terms of strategy use in pedagogic and testing contexts which renders the last null hypothesis probable.

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study almost chime well with those of previous research which have shown standard complexity and fluency gains accrued from opportunities for planning (e.g., Crookes, 1989; Ellis & Yuan; 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Ortega, 1999; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 1997, 2005; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003).

In the planning literature, findings with regard to grammatical accuracy have been mixed across studies. In the main, the findings of the present study with respect to planning in the pedagogic context were in tandem with those which have found blurred results for planning on the accuracy of EFL output (e.g., Foster and Skehan, 1996; Ortega, 1999; Gilabert, 2007). Like the pedagogic planners' discourse, testing planners' accuracy of written discourse benefitted from opportunities for planning, a finding which was consonant with those of Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) and Wigglesworth (1997).

As regards the propitious effect of manipulation of context on accuracy of production in terms of percentage of error-free clauses and the number of errors per 100 words for testees, citing Hulstijn and Hulstijn's (1984) study, Wigglesworth (1997) argues that a testing context may engender a focus-on-form environment in which planners channel their attention toward accuracy (p. 103). Therefore, it might be the case that in a test context, "cognitive capacity is reached" (p. 102), as testees, being more oriented to focus on accuracy of their production, try to rise to the high-stakes occasion. This was further championed by Sangarun (2005) who observed that accuracy can be promoted when learners are accuracy-oriented. Although this proposition may ring true for the present study, this is not to say that testing planners do not direct their attention towards content, either, as the syntactic complexity scores and the data from the interviews speak otherwise. Furthermore, the fact that testing planners reported using more production monitoring than pedagogic planners and that they rehearsed their output more may have led to their significantly higher scores. On the other hand, that the attenuated performance of pedagogic planners in terms of these two accuracy measures may have resulted from the assumption that they may have monitored the accuracy of their production to a smaller extent due to the lower stakes imposed by the situation; hence, pre-task planning time may less facilitate focus on form on a large scale in the pedagogic contexts.

As regards the syntactic complexity of production, the data from the interviews revealed that planning, i.e., previewing, thinking about the story, identifying the purpose, setting goals, and giving own interpretations in addition to writing for recall, outlining (for testing planners), and note-taking abounded in planners' responses with regard to what they did during the strategic planning time. In effect, planners spent their time conceptualizing and practicing what they wanted to say during task execution which might have led to the higher gains in syntactic complexity scores of planners in comparison to their no-planning counterparts. Therefore, it can be postulated that planning time may have given learners some leeway to conceptualize what they wanted to say in terms of content, to ponder on their newly assimilated cutting-edge knowledge of grammar, and to test their hypothesis regarding those grammatical items; and therefore, during task completion they were less burdened by the processing load of the task and were able to deploy those items, a finding which was also corroborated by the syntactic complexity measures.

That both syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy were promoted seems to run counter to the tradeoffs portended by the limited attentional capacity model. However, a closer look at the data reveals that the effect size for grammatical accuracy (percentage of error-free clauses and number of errors per 100 words) was lower than that for syntactic complexity (number of S-nodes per T-unit) which suggests that tradeoffs between accuracy and syntactic complexity transpired with detrimental consequences for accuracy; Nevertheless, it seems that the learners in the testing context shifted priorities (Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005, p. 268) to focus on accuracy more than pedagogic planners.

The present investigation also found a standard effect for fluency in accord with that of previous research (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2004; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Rouhi & Marefat, 2006; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003), as fluency was promoted by the provision of planning time in both contexts.

That the lexical complexity measure did not yield significant results was in line with findings of and Ellis & Yuan (2005), Ortega (1999), and Wigglesworth (1997). In contrast, some studies have found favorable gains for the effect of pre-task planning on lexical complexity (e.g., Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2004; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1995, as cited in Ortega, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003).

Another possibility can be entertained which pertains to the nature of writing. Writing seems to impose less cognitive load than speaking does (Skehan, 1998); therefore, even robbed of pre-task planning time, L2 learners may be able to ponder on the retrieval and rehearsal of lexical items which may enable them to be on a par with planners in this respect. This can also be observed in the planning studies conducted to date, as most studies which have found favorable gains for lexical complexity as a result of pre-task planning have been oral studies (e.g., Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2004; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1995, as cited in Ortega, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003) with one exception Ellis & Yuan (2004), a writing investigation, which found no significant differences in terms of lexical complexity scores across the groups of participants. Similarly, the performance of the participants of the four groups in the present study did not differ remarkably. This may have arisen from the proposals regarding the nature of the picture task which may have fettered the use of more diverse vocabulary or from the conjecture that there was a ceiling for the retrieval of lexical items (Ortega, 1999, 2005) to which pre-task planning may have been of no avail, since the participants were from the same proficiency level in the study at which they were not deemed to possess a well-stocked battery of lexical items and, as a result, may have encountered lexical retrieval problems. This proposition was further endorsed by the planners' comments in the interviews that although half of the testing planners and one-third of pedagogic planners wrote to facilitate the retrieval of lexical items later on and rehearsed what they wanted to say during pre-task planning time, they failed to lexicalize their output more than no-planners.

The favorable effects of pre-task planning time on fluency of written output might have happened, as learners tried to plan, rehearse, review, and write to remember the content of what they wanted to say during strategic planning time. Therefore, during the on-line performance, learners were less burdened by the processing load of the task and since they were equipped with newly developed plans, they were able to generate more fluent discourse. Building up on these assumptions, the data from the interviews revealed that learners tried to conceptualize what they wanted to say (macro-planning) and formulate what they wanted to say (micro-planning) which may have rendered their production more fluent.

As far as the use of strategies in advance of task execution is concerned, selective attention, writing for recall, error correction, rereading, grammar monitoring, functional planning, production monitoring, note-taking, translation, induction/deduction, and vocabulary monitoring were predominant strategies. It seems that conceptualization, formulation, monitoring, rehearsal, and translation activities were given prominence which points to the predominance of metacognitive and cognitive strategies among writing planners in pedagogic and testing contexts. Despite the fact that these findings partially diverged from those of Ortega (2005) who found writing/outlining/summarizing, production monitoring, functional planning, lexical compensation strategies, translation, empathizing with the listener, and rehearsing to be the oft-used strategies in her oral studies, the preponderance of metacognitive and cognitive strategies over the course of strategic planning time can be traced. Nevertheless, similar to Ortega who found metacognitive and cognitive strategies to be on an equal par in her studies, the present study found almost equal use of these strategies by planners. This is at odds with O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, and Russo's (1985) finding who found that more metacognitive strategies were used by intermediate learners in comparison to cognitive strategies in writing. The fact that at odds with Ortega's study, affective strategies did not draw much attention among planners in the present

study may have stemmed from the assumption that in oral studies, as Ortega puts it, the presence of an authentic listener puts the use of socioaffective strategies on the front burner which is not the case for the present study, which examined the writing modality. This finding was also in keeping with that of Chamot, O'Malley, Küpper, & Impink-Hernandez (1987), in which the use of socioaffective strategy use was limited at all proficiency levels. Avoidance strategies were also minimally used which is consonant with Ortega's findings. On the other hand, lexical compensation strategies were found to have played a minor role in the formulation of the message during pre-task planning time which runs counter to Ortega's investigation; the storyline of the picture narratives may have warranted the use of different vocabulary which led to the different findings in each study.

As regards the difference in strategy use during pre-task planning time, both groups of planners made use of almost the same number of metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Nonetheless, pedagogic planners' use of strategies partially differed from that of testing planners with the former using remarkably more writing for retrieval of grammatical items, style monitoring, directed attention, and cross-language monitoring and the latter employing sizably more double-check monitoring, mental rehearsal, outlining, lexical transfer, problem identification, production evaluation, ability evaluation, and writing for retrieval of lexical items. These differences may have followed from the different demands of a testing situation and a focus-on-form concern which may have called for one's outlining the message to be conveyed, evaluation of one's ability to complete the task, identification of the problem spots, writing for retrieval of vocabulary items, rehearsal of the message, monitoring, resorting to compensation strategies to make up for their lack of linguistic resources, and checking one's completed work a second time more than pedagogic planners, whereas in the pedagogic context, planners were at liberty to more attend to the sheer content of the stories denuded of details, heed formality/informality of language, monitor the use of Persian-English equivalents, and write to remember the grammatical items more than what transpired during strategic time in the testing context. Therefore, the difference between pedagogic and testing planners in terms of strategy use seems to be more qualitative than quantitative.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The main purpose of the present study was to build up on previous planning research by examining: a) the effect of provision of strategic planning time on accuracy, complexity, and fluency of written production of EFL learners in a pedagogic vs. a testing context; b) the strategy use of EFL learners during strategic planning time in a pedagogic vs. a testing context.

The present study endorses the findings of the foregoing research in terms of discourse-analytic measures of accuracy, complexity, and fluency with respect to the effect of pre-task planning in a pedagogic context. As regards the testing context, it tentatively suggests that accuracy and complexity are also in competition for attention, as although both syntactic complexity and accuracy were promoted as a function of provision of pre-task planning in the study, the effect size for accuracy was smaller than that for syntactic complexity which may speak to the assumption that heightened awareness in a test situation focuses learners' attention on language form. These results, however, run counter to a number of claims and speculations with regard to the effect of testing context on the propitious effects of pre-task planning time on learners' production (Elder & Iwashita, 2005; Iwashita, McNamara, & Elder, 2001) that in testing contexts, the beneficial effects of pre-task planning time are attenuated. On the other hand, it seems that more focus on accuracy is occasioned (Ellis, 2005) and that learners' attention is shifted from complexity towards accuracy (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005). Furthermore, the findings converge on a limited attentional capacity view of learners in which a competition for attention has been predicted between accuracy and complexity to the detriment of one of the two.

As regards the strategy use of planners, it was found that broadly speaking, planners made use of more metacognitive and cognitive strategies than the other types of strategies with pedagogic planners and testing planners employing approximately the same number of strategies.

The driving force behind the present study was the investigation of the bearings of process-oriented research on providing insights into what transpires over the course of pre-task planning time, the idea whose pacesetter was Ortega who explored the role of pre-task planning time and proficiency level on what learners do when they plan and on their perceptions toward pre-task planning time through retrospective interviews (Ortega, 1995, as cited in Ortega, 1999, Ortega, 1999, 2005). In a related vein, the present investigation champions this research tradition, as it throws more light on how planning works to learners' advantage. A second approach to look into what learners do when they plan would be to use think-alouds and verbal protocol analysis (Kawauchi, 2005). It seems that the process-oriented research holds considerable promise in this regard.

APPENDIX THE TASK

Look at the picture story below starting with picture 1 going through to picture 11. Write the story down.
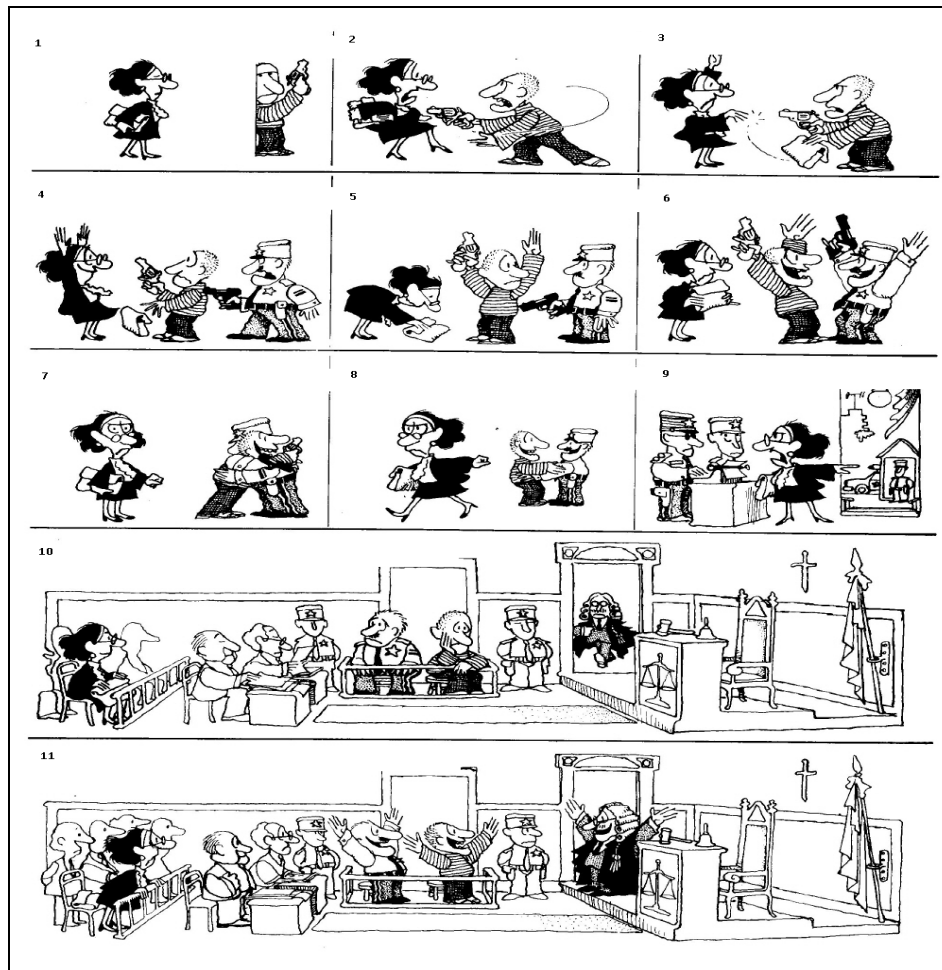
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An Anti-social Socialist: A Critical Reading of Arthur Miller's *Death of a Salesman*

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Abstract—**For long Arthur Miller and his plays were praised (especially by Marxist critics) as strong critics of capitalist societies and their dehumanizing force upon individuals living in them. Using Frankfurth school's views, Miller's own ideas and his play *Death of a Salesman*, this paper reveals some faults and contradictions in characterization, plot and other aspects of the play that would question Miller's opposition against capitalism and his criticism of it.**

Index Terms—**Death of a Salesman, Capitalism, high culture, Marxism, popular culture, social play**

I. INTRODUCTION

In his plays Miller has dealt mostly with the social issues of his day and this is the case with *Death of a Salesman* too. It is probably this characteristic that caused Death of a Salesman to be the center for much critical debate as to what it signifies, right from the beginning. Among those who so much celebrated the play were critics with a Marxist line of thought. They perceived it as a "social play", an attack upon, or a criticism of society and its system of beliefs, knowing Willy Loman (the major character of the play) to be flawless. They also labeled Miller as a true social writer who is critical of capitalist society and its values (Finkelstein, 1967) (Gassner, 1954) (Lewis, 1970). On the other hand, there appeared a growing trend among many of those who approached this play to condemn Willy Loman out of hand, believing his actions to be the root of his destruction and knowing society to be free of any guilt (Corrigan, 1969) (Carson, 1982) (Downer, 1967) (Lumley, 1967). Though personally I find the arguments put forward by the former group stronger and more valuable there are some points which I think left unnoticed by these critics which make them unable to account for some of the seemingly contradictory aspects of the play. The major task of the present paper is to analyze the play with the help of Marxist literary criticism but in a way that enables us to solve all the doubts and contradictions of the play and finally to answer the question of whether we can call it a "social play" (as celebrated by most of the Marxist critics) or not.

To do so it is most helpful first to grasp some ideas about literature and social criticism, the way a writer deals with social matters and how important his social and political views can be in shaping his works from Marxist point of view. Even those only slightly acquainted with the Marxist criticism know that what it wants from a writer is to commit his art to the cause of the proletariat. The principle doctrine related to this topic was called "Proletkult". The doctrine states that "Literature must be tendentious, party minded, optimistic and heroic; it should be infused with a revolutionary romanticism, portraying heroes and prefiguring the future" (Eagleton, 2001, p.35). In this regard there is Marx's view about the relation between a writer's social and political views and his writings. Marx says in a criticism of Sue LaSalle's novel, that what it shows diverges from what it says. He adds that French bourgeois ideology is the dominant ideology in the work and the main force that caused the novel to sell so well, but at the same time the novel can occasionally "reach beyond its ideological limits and deliver a slap in the face of bourgeois prejudice" (Eagleton, 2001, pp.44-45).

As Eagleton argues, according to Luckacs modern writers should do more than "merely reflect the despair and ennui of late bourgeois society; they should try to take up a critical perspective on this futility, revealing positive possibilities beyond it" (Eagleton, 2001, p.48). On the other hand according to Eagleton, if we regard Brecht's ideas about theatre and its role in the society, we see that he believed bourgeois art to be based on illusion. With the help of this illusion it makes people think that what is presented to them is reality itself. The audience in bourgeois theatre is "the passive consumer of a finished, unchangeable art object offered to them as real" (Eagleton, 2001, pp.59-60). The play does not allow the audience to think about how it is made, how it represents its characters and events and in what ways (if there is any) can these characters be different from what they are. Because the dramatic illusion conceals the fact that it is constructed, it prevents an audience from "reflecting critically on both the mode of representation and the actions represented" (Eagleton, 2001, p.62). Brecht recognized that this reflected an ideological belief that the world was fixed, and unchangeable, and that the function of the theatre was "to provide escapist entertainment for men trapped in that assumption" (Eagleton, 2001, p.62). So we see that bourgeois art (which is the dominant form of art according to Brecht) is exactly the opposite of the "Social" art that Marxist writers and critics use to favor and praise. The art that Marxists believed in is the art that is revolutionary, an art which shows the short comings of the bourgeois system and makes the audience react against it and eventually bring about the change required. Regarding the different views discussed above,

Miller's relationship with his plays, the subject he deals with in them and the way he deals with those subjects can be discussed and analyzed.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE PLAY

What Miller asks for is a theater of "heightened consciousness." He speaks of two passions in man, the "passion to feel" and the "passion to know." He believes that we need, and can have, more of the latter in his plays. Miller believes that drama must "help us to know more and not merely to spend our feelings" (Corrigan, 1969, p.61). Elsewhere he says "the end of the drama is the creation of a higher consciousness and not merely a subjective attack upon the audience's nerves and feelings" (Williams, 1971, p.274). This idea is akin to that of Brecht mentioned before. But these prove to be merely ideas since we can hardly find any traces of them in this play. Here a controversial scene would be the final Requiem scene, where Linda, his two sons, and Charley are at Willy's burial ceremony. The way this part is structured and the characters' speeches are formed seems to make it an unnecessary and detached part of the play. Linda's cries and statements or Charley's words that are used to justify Willy's actions have only one function; that is to sell Willy to the audience and to get the maximum tears out of them. There seems to be no reason for the sudden change in the mind of Charley, regarding Willy's ideals. Charley used to criticize Willy for his wrong ideas and values and tried to make him understand that having dreams is of no use, but in the last scene we see him defending Willy by saying that "a salesman has got to dream" (Perrine, , 1974, p.1470). There is hardly anything found in this scene to help to raise the knowledge of the audience about the world they live in and its laws, or explain why Willy's ideas suddenly seems so praiseworthy to Charley. But regarding what has been said, this scene seems to be merely an attack upon the feelings of the reader or the audience. In the concluding paragraphs of his introduction to his collected plays Miller rejects the idea that man is at best the sum of forces (psychological and social) working upon him from within and without and adds that:

Man is more than the sum of his stimuli and is unpredictable beyond a certain point. A drama, like a history, which stops at this point, the point of conditioning, is not reflecting a reality…. If there is one unseen goal toward which every play in this book strives, it is that… we are made and yet more than what made us (Miller, 1967, pp.54-55).

As it is clear Miller believes that man is able to pull his weight in life. This is much quoted by some critics who try to prove that what happens to Willy in his life and his final death are mostly direct outcome of his own choice and society doesn't play much role here. Even Marxist critics, who believe Willy Loman as a victim of society and its values, say that at the end Willy revolts against these values and changes the fate that society had in store for him by committing suicide. To them suicide means rejection of society and its depersonalizing system since what it wants from an individual is to accept his nothingness and to declare (like Biff does) that he is "a dime a dozen" a man with no real human value. Willy doesn't want to accept that the outcome of all the ideas proposed by society is this and by killing himself he tries to prove that he can still have individuality, be loved and remembered. That is why most Marxist critics believe him to be a revolutionary hero who puts under question the capitalistic system of society. But it should be argued that on the contrary Willy as a character has accepted his fate and what the society had in store for him. I agree that what Willy believes in and teaches to his sons are given to him by society but I also believe that at the end when Willy finds out that these values are shallow and nothing more than a lie, he tries to act differently to defy them. But as Charley tells him, in this society which is based on competition, a man's value is measured by how much more he has than the others and the only thing that counts is what one has to sell. As Willy finds out, personality, individuality and being respected and valued as an individual human being regardless of the material gains one has achieved are no more in question in the society. Therefore, as Willy has not achieved any material gains he has no place in the society and must give up his dreams. It is this vision that leads him to suicide since it means he has sold himself for 20000 dollars and that is exactly what society wants him to do because Willy has nothing left to sell in his life other than his life itself. So as could be seen even at the end Willy is defeated and society is the winner. Other characters have also accepted the conditions and terms of the society but they are different from Willy in that they have never questioned it and tried to fit it as best as they could and that is why they have become successful (of course in the eyes of a capitalist society). This is the society that we face in this play and Miller does not show any way out of its futility, there is no hope for a better future for people like Lomans pointed to in the play. Willy kills himself. His two sons, though they have different understanding and view about life, both have an unclear future. Happy who is a follower of his father's way of life is most probably going to have a tragic ending, an ending similar to that of Willy. Though it is difficult to predict the future of Biff, something which the play does not make clear too, but we can say that though he will receive enough money (from his father's life insurance) he will also lead a dreadful life because he has accepted his nothingness and his defeat by the society. This society will allow him to live since he can clearly understand that he is just a "dime a dozen" and nothing more but he will have no personality and dignity which is a characteristic of a real human being. This shows that Miller's play gives us the idea of unchangeability of the society and fate, and in this way he has written a bourgeois theatre rather than a social one. This is certainly not a kind of social play which Marxists like Lukacs, Engels or a revolutionary writer and critic like Brecht had in mind and believed in. Moreover Marxists believed that a true social play portrays heroes, and prefigures a hopeful future, but in this play we see the opposite. Willy, if we can call him a hero at all, is a consenting hero, one who in seeing the uselessness and futility of opposing society, throws away all his ideals and does not rest his hope in the future. Even if he talks of any future it is what the society means by a

future; that is to be number one and to have more than the others. That is why he hopes that in the future Biff will be better than others in terms of the money he has and says "imagine that magnificence with twenty thousand dollars in his pocket! When the mail comes he will be ahead of Bernard again"(Perrine, 1974 , p.1468). Moreover, neither he nor his actions can be called great or heroic. No hero, no heroic act, and no sign of hope for the future; this is certainly not the kind of social drama that is meant by what were discussed in the beginning of this part.

Despite what many critics believe, Miller's ideas too are not revolutionary, radical and new. Not only he does not propose revolution in his play against the social law and order, but at the end of the play the social order is confirmed. Miller's play does not attempt to startle the society with new ideas. He believes that the theatre should enunciate "ideas which are already in the air, ideas for which there has already been a preparation by non dramatic media" (Corrigan, 1969, p.59). He has from the beginning aimed at a clarification of the already existent attitudes which were prominent among the American theatre goers. His play is largely for and from the point of view of a man whose attitudes is not radical and innovatory but "puzzled", confused, and does not want to break with his fellow countrymen (Corrigan, 1969, p.59). Furthermore, Miller might present *Death* in "a spirit of puzzled, anguished analysis" (Corrigan, 1969, p.136) but does not suggest that anything like revolutionary change in American society might be necessary. In other words he wants theater to present a balanced concept of life without the questioning author preaching revolution. Consequently, when Willy is betrayed by myths and ethics of his society, all we have and are given by Miller is Linda's pitiful cry that "attention, attention must finally be paid to such a person" (Miller, 1956, p.1421). In this play Miller deals with the themes of faith and meaning within the confused social and personal life in America, and deals with them without producing ideas which might call for a rethinking of the society (Corrigan, 1969, p.136). Speaking about his play *All My Sons* and Kris Keller's way of thought, Miller once remarked "I cannot live apart from the world" (Brown & Harris, 1975, p.127) and *Death of a Salesman* is a dramatization of the way a man gets alienated from his society and then tries to get back to it. Willy cannot live apart from his society too. But in this play the structure of that society goes uncondemned and unanalyzed, taken as if it were unchangeable. The weight of actions falls cruelly on the individual within the fixed, powerful society which fails to support him at his moment of need and remains indifferent, as he falls. Another reason for Miller not to believe in revolutionary change is that he wanted his plays to attract the attention of the audience. Miller had a kind of problem regarding his plays; that is, he was not at ease with the moral and political content of his plays. In "The Playwright and the Atomic World*"* speaking of the reception of his plays outside America, he notes that Europeans are "more interested in the philosophic, moral and principled values of the play than we are", whereas Americans "create methods of reaching the great mass of the people" (Brown & Harris, 1975, p.146). Miller wishes to write for the majority audience, and his desire leads him to write plays which have in mind player goers' tastes and social values. To be accepted by the large number of audience he had to ignore those ideas and themes which were unacceptable by them or not interesting to them. And of course those new ideas which put their system of belief and values under question must be avoided as far as possible.

It is worthy of note that Miller believes that the tragic flaw is an "inherent unwillingness to remain passive" (Corrigan, 1969, p.85). The passives are therefore, he concludes, flawless and the majority is passive. It is surely according to this that we see in the play the evil lays in those who disturb their environment actively, Willy Loman being a symbol of them. To blame those who are active and do not accept all that is given or done to them is certainly an anti-socialist way of thought and (to me) it is a crude way of saving society from being challenged and changed. This view can be supported further by paying attention to the part of Miller's essay on *Death* which is about Willy and his fault. Explaining the reason why he as well as a large number of the audience regard Willy as guilty he says:

The answer I think is not that we respect the man, but that we respect the law that he has so completely broken, wittingly or not, for it is that law which, we believe, defines us as men. The confusion of some critics viewing *Death of a Salesman* in this regard is that they do not see that Willy Loman has broken a law without whose protection life is insupportable if not incomprehensible to him and to many others; it is the law which says that a failure in society and in business has no right to live. (Miller, 1967, p. 35).

But that is incredible of Miller. It is he who seems to be in confusion since the law which he is talking about is in no way the law which can make our life comprehensible and the lack of which would lead to chaos and incomprehension.

Thus far our discussion mainly dealt with Miller's own ideas and statements but here on it is tried to analyze other aspects of the play in a rather different light by using Adorno's ideas on popular culture and art. In his famous essay, "*How to Look at Television*", Adorno tries to crystallize a number of theoretical concepts, with the help of which we can study the effect of television and its impact upon the personality of viewers. In this essay a distinction is made by Adorno between high culture and mass culture, and then he compares and contrasts their characteristics with each other. According to him the message which is dominant and "all pervasive" in today's mass culture is the message of obedience and adjustment (Witkin, 2003, p.140). This is also noted by Adorno and Horkheimer in the *Dialectics of Enlightenment*, where they view modern culture as a training ground for those acts of submission and resignation through which one is promised some kind of survival. They see the products of mass culture as examples of a process in which culture industry repeatedly uses an individual's dependency, helplessness, submission and surrender to the social order, as an "aesthetic object" for demonstration. Films which show people crushed and defeated in normal life, under desperate situations, promise the viewer that if she or he becomes aware of his or her nothingness and accept defeat,

then "fate and circumstance" will allow she or he to live. Helplessness, submission and defeat are what, according to Adorno, can also be traced in many other spheres of art like Jazz, and Hollywood movies.

All these provide models of submission for those who must become what the society requires them to become. Adorno adds that in mass culture, the outcome of conflicts is pre-established, and all the conflicts are mere sham. Society is always the winner, and the individual is always the puppet "manipulated" through social rules. They teach their readers that one has to be realistic, that one has to give up romantic ideas, that one has to adjust oneself at any price, and that nothing more can be expected from any individual. The conflict between the society and the individual has been vanished and the message is that of identification with the status quo (Witkin, 2003, pp.141-145). Adorno believes that to understand the process in which mass culture influences the individual we have to do a "deep psychological" study focused on the "multilayered structure" of culture industry's different components. Of course, he does his research particularly on television. He says that "mass media are not simply the sum total of the actions they portray or of the messages that radiate from these actions" (Witkin, 2003, p.141). He adds that mass media are made of different layers of meaning which are "superimposed" upon each other and each has its own effect. In mass media, the hidden message may be more important than the overt message, because the hidden message can pierce through the mind of individual and influence his mind without being noticed and restricted by "controls of consciousness" (Witkin, 2003, p.141).

Of course the relation between hidden and overt message is highly complex. For example, a number of repressed desires and ideas which form a great part of the hidden message are manifested by the surface message in "jests, off-color remarks, suggestive situations, and similar devices" (Witkin, 2003, p.142). All these various levels, however, have a definite aim: they tend to canalize audience reaction. This is exactly why many believe that the culture industry's products are producing or reproducing the ideas and characteristics that are closely matched with the interests of capitalist society.

Of course the characteristics discussed are not restricted to TV and Adorno sees them as compromising of all other forms of mass media and mass cultural agents. Literature is one of the areas in which capitalist ideologies have pierced through and are being publicized. It is because of the vast reading public from which the popular novels, popular stories and poems enjoy that these ideologies can be very influential and of great importance in creating obedient, submissive individuals who believe in the principles of the capitalism by heart.

Having Adorno's discussions in mind, we can apply them to the play in discussion to prove our claim. As was just said, the message which is dominant in popular art and culture is that of adjustment and obedience. We can see this message to be publicized by *Death of a Salesman,* though it is hidden from the ordinary reader at first sight. Willy is shown as a character who opposes the values of his society when he finds out about their shallowness but, put under pressure by the society, he learns at the end that he has to consent. The reward of his consent is 20000 dollars that would go to his son, much more than what he could earn in life. Then he is contrasted with Charley and Bernard, who are successful in the society because they know the rules and laws of society by heart. We see for example Bernard who is a very good student in terms of the rules and laws of the school, and as a result gets into the university and is now a very successful lawyer. His opposite is Biff who is not behaving so well in terms of school laws; he cheats at the exams, defies the authorities, steals things and at the end is not allowed to go to university. Though an athlete, he ends up in jail and is now a lost man, not knowing what to do with himself.

Though when they were young Biff was very athletic and promising in sports and Bernard was weak and pale, we see ironically that now it is Bernard who is the most athletic of all by having tennis rackets and playing in a real tennis court. He has also a wife and two children and seems well established. The message that the reader learns beside everything else is that by consenting and following the rules you can achieve everything and that those who do not consent are the ones that are capable of cheating, theft and adultery, and who will end up as failures in life, since all that is presented to us by such unconsenting characters like Lomans is nothing but these. Other characters like Ben and Howard are also successful by putting aside their own ideals and romantic dreams. What is promoted by the characters of these two is the idea that hard work or "being well liked" has nothing to do with success. We see that Howard has got the company and all he has through inheritance and that Ben has got them by chance. We read that Ben wanted to go north to Alaska to find gold, but as he says "at that age I had a very faulty view of geography…I discovered after a few days that I was due sought, so instead of Alaska, I ended up in Africa…"(Perrine, 1974 p.1416). And we know that this unbelievable mistake has caused him to end up in diamond mines instead of gold mines! In this way the play seems to be a shrewd way of adjustment by saying that you cannot change your fate and what is waiting for you. You have only to conform to the society's conditions and only hope that your fate will bring you the money and success through luck, inheritance or any other way unforeseen by you and nothing like hard work, or trying different jobs or having great ideals would be necessary. Biff is another good example here. As soon as he puts aside his ideals, accepts his nothingness and declares his worthlessness his fate brings him a fortune of 20000 dollars from his fathers' life insurance.

To put aside the romantic dreams and be realistic is a message that Adorno believes mass culture and art gives to the reader. Willy's dreams lead him nowhere and Charley who is himself realistic tries to make him understand that his dreams won't really work; something which other characters like Howard, Ben and Bernard have accepted and Willy finally accepts. Conflicts in mass art are sham and at the end of each there is no winner but the society and man is only the victim of the powerful society against which he has revolted. There is nothing that man can do in this society and all

his actions are directed and manipulated by forces of society which make him a mere puppet at its hands. Willy is such a character to my view. I believe Willy to be a consenting victim from the beginning and at the end. What he learns and teaches the reader is the lesson of conformity and adjustment by putting behind the romantic and individual ideals and dreams.

This play is an instance of "pseudo-criticism" as termed by Adorno. This is a term coined by him to refer to those works of the culture industry that claim to be critical of the society. Adorno believes that the so called critical works of the culture industry actually heighten the lie of individuality and defeat any such critical purpose as a consequence. To make the point clear he gives as an example the case of a radical film director who whishes to show the darker aspects of a merger between two corporations. "Even if the dominant figures are revealed as monstrous, their monstrousness would still be sanctioned as a quality of individual human beings that would obscure the monstrousness of the system whose servile functionaries they are" (Bernstein, 1996, p. 57). As it is clear, Adorno believes that works of mass culture treat all the actions, behaviors and characteristics of the characters as personal and individual traits which belong to a specific person and in this way make that character or person worthy of blame, showing the society to have nothing to do with these faults. In *Death of the Salesman* this is the case. As was discussed we get more and more involved with the personal world of Willy Loman, his thoughts, past life and his feeling of sin with the help of flash backs and the expressionism technique, so that we blame him and cannot see anyone else as responsible for his miseries. This point is emphasized by the fact that even Miller first chose "*Inside His Head*" as the title of the play (Miller, 1967, p.50). All that has been said so far about the play with the use of Adorno's theories brings to mind Marx's idea about the implicit and explicit messages of a play which were discussed at the beginning of this paper. But actually we see that in the case of Miller, his play's explicit social message is against the bourgeois ethics and beliefs and seems to criticize them while what it actually reveals is an approval of them and a confirmation of the capitalistic kind of society.

An important and final issue to be discussed would be the issue of cliché characters and their role in the play. Among the most important of them are the women characters in the play. It is easy to be disturbed by the apparently passive female stereotypes we find in *Death of a Salesman*. Women have been either marginalized and appear as loyal wives like Linda, or easy women (like The woman, Miss Forsythe, and Letta), or they have been hardly featured at all, such as Willy's mother, or Charley's wife. Women of Linda's generation were thought to be dependent on their men, stay at home and raise their children. As Abbotson states, in the time of World War Two many women were called to perform jobs outside home which were previously considered unsuitable for them and which gave them new authority and ambition. Some of these women were reluctant to pass this authority back to the men on their return from the army. The "working girl" was becoming a social reality by which many felt threatened (Abbotson, 2000, pp.53-55). To diminish such a treat these women were often dishonored and belittled wherever and however possible, largely to affirm old fashioned opinions of Bourgeois society about what was right and proper for men and women to do. Having this in mind, it should be pointed that there are a number of examples of working women in the play, such as The Woman, Jenny, and Miss Forsythe, and it is interesting to note how they are presented. Women like The Woman, Miss Forsythe and Letta are characterized in a way as being close to whores, as they are very easy with their "favors". One sided characters, as they are, they become the scapegoat for men's bad behavior, and are unable to defend themselves or have any opportunity to tell us how they feel. The Woman is shown to be the cause of alienation of Willy and his son Biff. Other single girls like Miss Forsythe or Letta, have the same power to divide men, as they take Happ and Biff away from their father. Even a good wife and mother like Linda is not shown as pure of any guilt, because we see Linda encouraging Willy to stay in New York and does not allow him to go with Ben to Alaska. In this way she ruins the chances that Willy had for achieving success and becoming rich. In a way women in this play are all like Eve who tempted Adam to commit sin and caused his downfall. This kind of cliché characterization is a characteristic of popular art, according to Adorno, or Bourgeois art according to Brecht, and one which makes identifying *Death of a Salesman* as a high social play more difficult and objectionable.

III. CONCLUSION

Summing up all that has been said so far we can say that to achieve a conclusion about Miller and his play *Death of a Salesman* regarding the social issues and social criticism would be difficult and a challenging task. This play has different aspects each of which either proves or disapproves the categorization of the play as a social one. But one thing is clear and that is, Miller to my view never tried and wanted to put all the blames on the society, to show it as an evil that must be overcome. He believes in society and does not rule it out though he sees some flaws in it. However it must also be said that to reach a more reliable answer in this regard, studying of a single play of a writer like Miller would not be satisfactory enough and a more complete and thorough study which would include a number of Miller's other plays would be necessary. We should also have in mind that despite all the criticisms, Miller is one of the greatest and most influential playwrights of his time in America and all around the world, someone whose plays are performed long after they have been written with the same or even greater enthusiasm shown by the audiences when the plays were first appeared on the stage. And Finally I would like to add that whatever Miller's weaknesses or faults are, *Death of a Salesman* has many beauties and merits that to have written it is an achievement of such a great significance that would make us allow Arthur Miller a slip or even a fall.

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An Exploration on Designing College English Listening Class

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Abstract—Teaching listening, rather than "pushing button English" and testing later, involves a change in pattern, application of listening strategies, approaches application, and a variety of materials. Teaching listening will be going through three stages of classroom activities to help students to foster ability to understand and take notes on listening material—before, while and after listening. Extended post-listening after class autonomously is more fruitful in helping learners' problems identified and tackled so as to improve students' listening skill and strengthen students' learning effect in listening class.

Index Terms—listening strategies and techniques, listening teaching mode, three stages

## I. INTRODUCTION

A. Current Situation

In recent years, a wide phenomenon in universities is that a considerable number of English teachers in universities simply push the button to play the tape or CD several times for students to get input and then do exercises related in English listening class. It is so called "Push Button English". They still maintain that in listening class they are under less pressure compared to integrated course. However, listening class is not simply designed as "Push Button English", and doing exercises later. It is designed not only to construct knowledge through listening but to improve listening skills and strategies for future use as well. Applying listening strategies to teaching practice in listening class does benefit students for future study. However, only a small number of teachers adopt listening strategies and foster students' skills by training them on purpose in class. Mendelsohn (1995) stressed that "A strategy-based approach teaches learners to listen effectively by instructing them in the use of strategies" (p.134). Teaching listening will be going through three stages of classroom activities to develop students' ability to understand and take notes on listening material—before, while and after listening (Lynch, 2004).

B. New Challenge

According to a Fortune 500 CEO Survey of CEO's, they are looking today for employees who are:
1. Global thinkers
2. Excellent communicators
3. Team workers
4. Innovative
5. Creative
6. Cooperative
7. Problem solvers
8. Independent
9. Self-starters
10. Technologically competent

So international talents are intended to possess the following qualities: widened global perspective, structure of specialized global knowledge, familiar with international rules, competence in cross-cultural communication in foreign language, independent ability for global organization, capability to use and tackle foreign information, and higher order political thinking and healthy psychology as well. In order to achieve this goal, students are supposed to be familiar with the learning process of acquiring knowledge and skills in English listening class:

http://lowery.tamu.edu/teaching/morgan1/sld023.htm
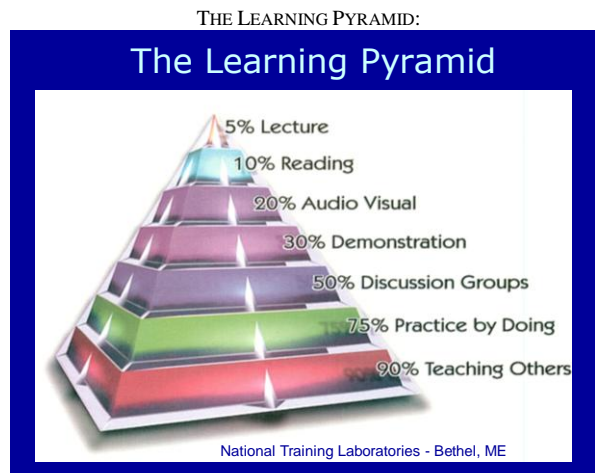
From this learning pyramid, students will know what they should do to acquire English knowledge and skills in order to achieve the learning target well in class.

II.   TEACHING MODE IN LISTENING CLASS

Traditionally, the listening pattern in class is passive just as many teachers still carry on in their classes now. However bottom-up, top-down, interactive, and task-based methods are advocated and applied by more and more English teachers to achieve listening comprehension and develop communication skills. As cited in Zhang and Zhu (2004) research has shown that in general good listeners use a variety of metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategies and strategy instruction does help improve listening comprehension. (Cohen, 1990; Chamot, 1993; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). So careful strategy-based teaching helps learners bring listening to a conscious level. Before teaching listening, diagnosing students' listening problems is indispensable. Qu & Jiang (1998) argued that "Eight factors have been often discussed. They are motivation, intelligence, aptitude, attitude, personality, age first language, and learning strategies" (p.5). Particularly, the students' levels, their needs, interests, listening style, personality, background, ability, and expectations. So a placement test and "troubleshooting", is a priory in order to identify students' particular problems. Secondly, a syllabus design is followed mainly for the teacher to carry on teaching and solve the students' problems according to their needs.

Furthermore, especially in listening class, using a Communicative Language Teaching Approach is challenging but beneficial. Mark (2005) argued Communicative Language Learning that relies exclusively on communication tasks without language awareness is not effective. A method that concentrates on language analysis without communicative language practice and tasks is equally ineffective. An eclectic method that combines communication and language awareness study is consistent with what we know about the functioning of the brain and how human beings learn, and it is effective.

A.   Before Listening

Top-down approach is attached to much more importance in predicting information, brainstorming ideas in a form of mind map, focal points of vocabulary on the blackboard, warm-up activities are often used to help students to guess what will be going on next and prepare students to establish a link between old knowledge and new information. As Lynch stated "*Study listening* stimulates that real-life situation through pre-listening discussion, which helps you to call up the background knowledge and relevant language in preparation for what the lecturer says." (Lynch, 2004, p.5)

Cortazzi and Jin (1996) introduced the notion of culture of learning to explain the difference in behaviour in language classrooms. They maintain that a culture of learning has its roots in the educational and, more broadly, cultural traditions of the society, and that the 'Western and Chinese cultures of learning sometimes weave past each other without linking'. (p.10). The way to establish a bridge between the different cultures is through dialogue. Thus, cultural background introduction before listening is essential according to "schema theory" which is based on the notion that past experiences lead to the creation of mental frameworks that help us make sense of new experiences.   It focuses on two ways of decoding information: from "bottom-up" to "top-down". Shu (2009) pointed out "If the teacher suspects that there are gaps in students' knowledge, either of content or of grammar or vocabulary, the listening itself can be preceded by schema-building activities". (p.118)

B.   While Listening

Shu (2009) emphasized "traditionally, in language teaching, listening comprehension used to be thought of as a passive skill. Like reading, listening comprehension is now no longer regarded as a passive skill. The decoding of a message calls for active participation in communication between participants". (p.133) Listening comprehension is an

interactive process involving active guessing, approximation, expectation, idealization which makes extensive use later in a typical speech. After the initial reception of the sound, students perform several operations, such as processing the "raw material" and holding an image in short-term memory; determining the speech event; inferring the objectives of the speaker; recalling background information; assigning a literal meaning or an intended meaning, etc. Thus, Bottom-up and interactive processes are significant. **First listening** is extensive. Students should be told to get a global understanding of the listening material by doing multiple choice questions like "Who", "When", Where", "What", "How" etc. to guide students to construct general meanings. **Second listening** is intensive process. Making notes shorter but effective is of great importance. Different, clear tasks are assigned to different groups of students based on their level and ability. For example, guessing key words from the context, detailed note-taking of key points, summarizing the main ideas is given to different students who are supposed to work out answers by collaborative efforts through comparing of notes, checking answers, arguing with each other, etc so as to make the whole process interactive. In this way, listening becomes a much more interactive activity with listeners listening not because the teachers tell them to, but they have a vested interest in justifying their own explanation of the text. By means of listening and re-listening, they improve the accuracy and by discussing possible interpretations, they improve their ability and construct representations of meaning from what they hear. In the whole process, taking notes is indispensable. However, As Lynch (2004) stressed combining, listening and writing is not easy, even in our first language, so techniques for making notes shorter but effective is essential, which are as followed:

C.   Note-taking Techniques

Note-taking is very personal and there is no single best system in class.
First listening-general
1. Guided note-taking for main ideas and development
2. Focus on relevant macrostrategy
3. Oral summary
Second listening-specific
1. Detailed note-taking
2. Comparison of note-taking

According to Lynch, note-taking is very personal and there is no single best system. But there are three basic rules that enable note-taking quicker and more effective.
1. Be selective: decide what is important;
2. Be brief: use abbreviations, initials, official abbreviations, and symbols;
3. Be clear: show the interrelationship between the speaker's points (linear notes; mind map, spider notes or web notes)

Stevens, F. (1976) argues that although students in the activity-centered program used the target language for only 40% of the school day, they attained the same levels of target language speaking and reading proficiency and almost the same levels of proficiency as the students in the teacher-centered program, which provided all instruction in the target language.

D.   After Listening

Focus on language and content should be emphasized. Students are expected to identify functional language such as apologizing, inviting, refusing, suggesting, and so no, and help listeners to achieve lexical segmentation. Moreover, inferring the meaning of new words is required too. Post-listening is endless work. As the old saying goes "Practice makes perfect." Students should do a lot of relevant and selective practice autonomously after class in order to be proficient in listening comprehension.

In addition, authentic listening materials from BBC, VOA, CIR, CNN etc has been increasingly used and is strongly advisable to introduce in EFL listening class in universities in China in that they reflect a natural rhythm of speed of language and provide an experience of something like real-life listening.

III.   SUGGESTED LISTENING ACTIVITIES

1. schema-building activities: cultural background, language introduction and predicting information
2. visual – relying more on the sense of sight and learn best through visual means (e.g., books, video, movie appreciation, charts, pictures)
3. auditory – preferring listening and speaking activities (e.g., discussions, debates, audiotapes, role-plays, lectures).
4. hands-on – benefiting from doing projects, working with objects and moving around. (movie dubbing)
5. extroverted – enjoying a wide range of social, interactive learning tasks (e.g., games, conversations, debates, role-plays, simulations)
6. note-taking (taking short-hand such as numbers, figures, names, key words etc.)
7. Lynch (2004) pointed out four stages should be carried for a typical unit.

A typical unit	Teaching activities
Before listening	1) topics lead-in 2) brainstorm information 3) present new words and difficult grammar
Listening for the first time	1) take guided notes for relevant information and content development 2) focus on related macrostrategies 3) oral summary
Listening for the second time	1) detailed note-taking 2) comparing notes with others in content and note-taking forms
Post listening	1) language focus a) identifying problems such as speed, accent etc. b) make marks in the script like intonation stress, pause, fast speed c) concentrate on forms of note-taking, e.g. comments and the importance of marks-making 2 content focus a) clarifying content b) reflecting critically c) personal response d) optional extended tasks and essay writing

TABLE:

STUDENTS' SCORE IN LISTENING BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP, APPLYING STRATEGIES BEFORE AND AFTER

		Measures of central tendency			Measures of dispersion			
Group		**Mean**	**mode**	**Median**	**minimum**	**maximum**	**Range**	**Standard variation**
Experimental Group	before	12. 87	13	13	4	20	16	2. 65
	after	13. 31	14	12	5	18	13	2. 66
Control Group	before	11. 33	13	11	3	19	16	3. 06
	after	10. 85	10	11	2	17	15	3. 00

As is shown, the scores of the experimental group are higher than the control group but it is not obvious. It is evident that students' listening ability is improved through the experiment of applying listening strategies.

IV. CONCLUSION

Teaching listening, rather than pushing button English and testing later, involves a change in pattern, approaches application, and a variety of materials. Extended post-listening is more fruitful in helping learners' problems identified and tackled. It is of vital importance that our students be taught effectively and critically. First, choose authentic and appropriate listening material; secondly, teach listening skills and strategies; thirdly, foster students' abilities by means of extended listening, reflecting, and reconstructing understanding; finally, cultivate a good environment for improving listening skills both in class and after class. Popkewitz and Wehlage (1973) argued that teaching should be viewed as a craft that includes a reflective approach toward problems, a cultivation of imagination, and a playfulness toward words, relationships, and experiences. The principles of designing listening are: definite goals, careful step-by-step planning, active overt students' participation and involving, communicative urgency, conscious memory work, feedback process, without too much writing, realistic and practical activities, schema-building tasks, and strategies for effective listening as well. Here are some useful tips for listening practice teacher before going into the classroom:

1. Never go into listening without full preparation.
2. Never ask students to memorize in class.
3. Don't worry about every unfamiliar word.
4. Never give students the tapescript.
5. Don't play the tape more than three times
6. Never ask students to write too much while listening.

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A Profile of an Effective EFL Grammar Teacher

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Abstract—**Grammar teaching dates back to many years ago. It is a critical issue since its importance has been clarified in second/foreign language teaching and learning. There are always some hints about a good grammar teacher, but one cannot easily find a holistic framework for a successful ESL/EFL grammar teacher. For this reason, the present study investigates the qualities of a good and effective grammar teacher based on observations and interviews. An Iranian EFL grammar teacher's class was observed for about ten hours in order to see why his students and colleagues considered him to be a successful English grammar teacher. The results demonstrate that there are some important features for an effective ESL/EFL grammar teacher, which should be taken into account by other practitioners doing a similar job. Finally, this study provides a coherent framework for grammar teachers in order to make the outcome of their grammar lessons more fruitful.**

Index Terms—**implicit grammar teaching, explicit grammar teaching, effective grammar teaching, successful grammar teacher**

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammar teaching has always been a matter of heated debate among language teaching professionals. Depending on various methods, grammar teaching has had its ups and downs in recent decades. For instance, in the Grammar Translation Method, form was the central aspect of learning, while in the Direct Method and Natural Approach grammar had a marginalized role (Brown, 2001). At present, the debate is centered on task-based teaching of grammar and consciousness raising activities, in addition to the role noticing, play an important part in grammar instruction (Fotos, 1994; 2005). In order to know the essential knowledge base for an effective ESL/EFL grammar teacher, it is necessary to briefly review some key concepts in grammar teaching.

When we say grammar, we mean a set of rules with which each individual can make sentences in a language. Brown (2001, p. 362) defines grammar as "the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence…Technically grammar refers to sentence-level rules only, and not rules governing the relationship among sentences, which we refer to as discourse rules." Celce-Murcia (1991, p. 465) meticulously draws a chart in which the importance of grammar for adults and children is shown based on different categories like the learners' age, their proficiency level, educational background, etc. In the following figure, one can see different variables which were highlighted in her model.

Learner Variables	Less important	Focus on Form	More Important
Age	Children	Adolescents	Adults
Proficiency level	Beginning	Intermediate	Advanced
Educational background	Preliterate No formal Education	Semiliterate Some formal education	Literate Well-Educated
Instructional variables			
Skill	Listening, Reading	Speaking	Writing
Register	Informal	Consultative	Formal
Need/Use	Survival	Vocational	Professional

Figure 1. Variables that determine the importance of grammar (from Celce-Murcia, 1991)

What can be inferred from the above figure is that grammar is important for both adults and children. More important than the mentioned categories for the importance of grammar is the difference between inductive and deductive approaches to grammar teaching. For a long time, the pendulum of ESL/EFL grammar teaching has been swinging between the dichotomy of inductive and deductive approaches. To put it simply, in the inductive approach, the teacher first presents different examples of the target language form and the students should discover the rules themselves. On the other hand, when utilizing the deductive approach, a rule is explicitly introduced by the teacher and the students should practice it through different examples. Some ESL/EFL practitioners prefer to use a deductive approach, while others stick to an inductive one. A new trend in recent years is the mixed method approach in which both deductive and inductive ways of teaching are combined.

A new line of research in the domain of grammar teaching is concerned with the distinction often made between focus on forms and focus on form. In this respect, Harmer (2007, p. 53) points out that:

Focus on form occurs when students direct their conscious attention to some feature of the language, such as a verb tense or the organization of paragraphs… It will occur naturally when students try to complete communicative tasks… in Task-based learning…. Focus on form is often incidental and opportunistic, growing out of tasks which students are involved in, rather than being pre-determined by a book or syllabus. Many language syllabuses and course books are structured around a series of language forms, however. Teachers and students focus on them one by one because they are on the syllabus. This is often called "focus on forms" because one of the chief organizing principles behind a course is the learning of these forms.

Although focus on form has recently been considered as a working strategy for teaching grammar, there are some scholars who are strictly against it. For instance, Sheen (2003, p. 225) believes that "an underlying assumption of a focus on form approach is that all classroom activities need to be based on communicative tasks, and that any treatment of grammar should arise from difficulties in communicating any desired meaning." However, Ellis (2006) argues that "the grammar taught should be one that emphasizes not just form but also the meanings", and that focus on forms is valid, provided that students are given chances to use the discrete forms they have studied in communication tasks. However, it is clear that "an incidental focus-on-form approach is of special value because it affords an opportunity for extensive treatment of grammatical problems (in contrast to the intensive treatment afforded by a focus on forms approach)" (p. 102).

One of the common ways of focusing on form is "noticing", a concept introduced by Schmidt (1990). Harmer (2007, p. 54) stresses that "noticing is a condition which is necessary for if the language a student is exposed to is to become… language that he or she takes in." Besides, Lynch (2001, p. 125) contends that "Noticing is certainly part of successful language learning; one can hardly imagine (adult) learners making substantial progress without it."

In addition to noticing; implicit methodological techniques can be regarded as another influential strategy for teaching grammar. Ellis (2003) maintains that these techniques involve providing feedback on learners' use of the target feature in a manner that maintains the meaning-centeredness of the task. In effect, this involves the strategic use of the negotiation of meaning…[They provide] a way of teaching grammar communicatively because the opportunities to reformulate deviant utterances occur in the context of trying to communicate and because the learners are not aware that the teacher is intentionally focusing on form (p. 167).

It is also important to note that in addition to implicit methodological techniques for teaching grammar, there are explicit methodological techniques which can be categorized as pre-emptive and responsive. In the former "the teacher draws attention to the targeted feature by asking a question or by making a metalingual comment [while] a *responsive focus* occurs through negative feedback involving explicit attention to the targeted feature" (Ellis, 2003, p. 170).

All of the above mentioned features are important to be fully understood by a good grammar teacher. In other words, a good teacher should know about different approaches to grammar teaching. As a matter of fact, an effective grammar teacher should be aware of the role of grammar and the historical issues in grammar teaching in order to use them at proper times. As Sasson (2007) postulates, the role of grammar needs to be demythisized in today's ESL/EFL classroom.There is too much speculation that students will gain a new grammatical structure simply by noticing it and writing down its rules. Learning to understand its complexity is part of the problem. The other part is how to embark on teaching it. Generally speaking, a good language teacher needs to possess some critical characteristics to be regarded an expert in his or her discipline. Given this, Tsui (2003, p.247) identifies three dimensions for expert language teachers: (a) How they relates to the act of teaching, and the extent to which they integrate or dichotomize the various aspects of teacher knowledge in the teaching act, (b) how they relate to specific contexts of work, and the extent to which they are able to perceive and open up possibilities that do not present themselves as such in their specific contexts of work, and (c) the extent to which they are able to theorize the knowledge generated by their personal practical experience as a teacher and to put theoretical knowledge into practice.

There are also some other characteristics which are essential for a good language teacher, i.e. being a good manager, being patient, being enthusiastic, being flexible, intelligent, to name but a few. In the light of the previously mentioned points, the authors of the present study intend to find the characteristics of a good EFL grammar teacher. A large number of research studies have been carried out on the effective ways of teaching grammar; however, a lack of focus on teachers themselves is obvious in most of these studies. What is it that effective teachers do in their grammar classes and what teaching and learning behaviors can an observer expect to see in the teaching practice of a good grammar teacher? It is this that the present paper is concerned with.

The idea of good or effective teaching is still a vague concept for the TEFL community members. In addition, classroom situation plays a key role in this regard. As van Lier (1998, p. 23) maintains, "We thus have the curious situation that most second language acquisition theorizing ignores the L2 classroom as a relevant source of data and as relevant place to apply findings." In the case of classroom based research, only those aspects of a teacher's behavior which are quantifiable seem to have been taken into account by researchers. Such research reflects a quantitative approach to the study of teaching.

Qualitative and quantitative approaches to research are both important for ESL/EFL research studies. It is also important to note that qualitative research studies are interpretive in nature and researchers are in need of them in many

cases. As Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 2) claim "qualitative studies… are not set up as experiments; the data cannot be easily quantifiable… and the analysis is interpretive rather than statistical." Arriving at successful and effective decisions for teaching grammar is the main goal of the present study, which reports on a series of observations and interviews with an effective EFL grammar teacher.

II. THE PRESENT STUDY

The main goals of the present study were to use observation and interview techniques in order to learn more about EFL grammar teaching and develop a profile of an effective teacher. For Berliner (1984) and Blum (1984), the concept of effective teaching is a familiar topic in research on mainstream instruction. They define effective teachers as teachers whose learners achieve higher than expected levels of performance on standardized achievement tests. Moreover, reports of colleagues, supervisors, and faculty deans are utilized for selection of an effective teacher. In this study, there were a number of reasons for focusing on this particular teacher's class for about five sessions, some of which were:

1. The supervisors had a positive report on his teaching.
2. Compared with his colleagues who had taught grammar in university, he had a highly positive impression.
3. Students were all eager to participate in his classes.
4. The head of the department also regarded him as one of the successful teachers.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

Given the above mentioned issues on the purpose and significance of this study, the study sought to answer the following research question: What are the qualities of an effective EFL grammar teacher and how can an effective EFL grammar teacher help his or her students improve their grammar?

IV. METHOD

An EFL grammar teacher agreed to be observed on a regular schedule, to have some of his classes audio-taped, and to be interviewed. The objective behind the observations and recordings was to identify his techniques and also the underpinning structure of his success. The purpose of the interview was an investigation of his attitude toward grammar teaching and an analysis of his employed teaching strategies.

A. Participants

The teacher who participated in the present study had completed his Master's Degree in teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) at Tarbiat Modarres University in Tehran, Iran[*]. One of the classes he had taught several times was an advanced grammar course for undergraduate students. The class was held two sessions a week, each for about 90 minutes.

B. Procedure

Although the general goals of this course had been set in advance by Iran's Ministry of Science, Research and Technologies, the teacher had his own instructional objectives imparted to the students during the first session of the course. Some of the objectives included:

1. Using correct grammar in writing.
2. Editing sentences/paragraphs for specific grammar errors.
3. Writing original sentences/compositions to illustrate a specific aspect of a grammar point.
4. Providing students with a solid foundation in grammar to succeed in subsequent English courses.

The materials used in this class consisted of two main sections, a grammar book (*Communicate What You Mean: A Concise Advanced Grammar* by Carroll Washington Pollock) as the maincourse book and a book called *Common Mistakes*. It is also important to note that the course book was not the only material for teaching grammar in this class and the teacher himself provided students with additional materials in order to update their knowledge with new trends in grammar teaching.

C. Observation of a Lesson

In this part, one of the teacher's lessons based on an analysis of the audio recording and interviews will be elaborated on. The lesson discussed here occurred about the first few sessions of the semester. There were some activities in this lesson the main criteria of which were based on Ellis's (2002) viewpoints.

Ellis (2002, pp. 30-31) outlines five teaching activities to develop grammatical knowledge of a problematic feature:

1. Listening to comprehend: Students listen to comprehend a text that has been structured to contain several examples of the target form.

2. Listening to notice: Students listen to the same text again, but are given a gap-fill exercise. The target form is missing and the students simply fill it in exactly as they hear it to help them notice the form.

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[*] Note: Special thanks go to Mr. Mansoori, who permitted us to observe his class.

3. Understanding the grammar point: With help from the teacher, the students analyze the data and "discover" the rule.

4. Checking: Students are given a written text containing errors and are asked to correct them.

5. Trying it: Students apply their knowledge in a production activity.

D. Notes on the Lesson

The lesson begins rapidly. The teacher gives a real life conversation to the students and reads it to them loudly. Then one of the students reads it again while the whole class is listening to her attentively. Meanwhile, the teacher asks some questions about the conversation e.g., where are these people? Or what do they do for a living? Simultaneously, the teacher tells students to open their books in which they can find a cloze test on the above mentioned conversation. Afterward, the teacher again reads the conversation and students should fill in the blanks as they hear them. The next step is the handouts in which students in groups should analyze the sample sentences and write a rule that describes the pattern they see. The next step is to discuss the rule with the whole class. Then students write the real rule and compare it with their own inferred rule. After the above steps, the teacher introduces the rule to the students and tells them about the past perfect. He shows them this tense through some charts and graphs while teaching them negative and question forms of this tense. Now it is the time for each student to make a sentence based on the aforementioned rule and for the teacher to write them on the board.

After finishing this section again the whole class starts a discussion and say why some of the sentences are right and some of them are wrong and need further modifications. Here is the script of this part:

T: Please tell me your examples, I mean sample sentences.

S1: by 10 P.M. he had finished his writing section.

T: Thanks. Next one, please.

S2: I had just started my IELTS test when my roommate got 8.5 in that test.

T: Okay, please the next one.

S: The child had eaten his lunch when his mother arrived at home.

This will continue till all students express their sentences and the class decide to eliminate or modify some of the sentences. The final section of this lesson consists of two sections. First the teacher tells students to write three sentences based on the newly learned structure and as the activity progresses, the teacher moves about, checking how they are working and answer any questions they may have. In the last section of the lesson, the teacher gives an authentic material (e.g., a short story, a newspaper editorial, part of a novel, etc.) to students and asks them to find the new tense. They have to work on this piece of text for the next session in order to practice the new structure much more.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The main aim of observing this teacher's class was to attempt to pinpoint the events of the classroom and why the teacher was considered to be a successful one. Description of a lesson is an easy job; however, interpretation and evaluation processes need more effort. The observer tries to avoid being subjective, merely describing his own values and standards. After analyzing the audio recordings of the class and also scrutinizing the written reports of each session, the following principles were taken out as the philosophical orientations and approaches of the teacher and the reasons why he was regarded as an effective EFL grammar teacher.

1. *The teacher is updated on new theories of grammar teaching and refers to them in the process of planning his teaching*. The teacher seems to be an avid reader, and he has enough knowledge about different methods and strategies in grammar teaching. He is experienced enough to follow needs analysis and newly accepted theories of grammar teaching .This issue is very important for all teachers and practitioners in the field of TEFL because the pace of advancement in science is very fast and new experiments are carried out in each day all over the world. It is incumbent upon the teacher to find new ways which can lend themselves to effective teaching, in this case, grammar instruction.

2. *Using authentic materials is a good source for motivating students*. Based on the observation, students are all eager to see what their teacher brings them to class as the new material. These materials include newspaper editorials, short stories, interesting texts retrieved from the Internet, etc. These materials are real life texts and students think that they have to know about them in today's life. There are always some students who like to prepare the required materials for teaching based on their interests. It is always a good idea to speak with students about their interests in order to be used for choosing authentic materials (e.g., in a class whose major is English literature, using Shakespeare's plays, modern short stories, and novels will be very interesting as useful resources for grammar teaching).

3. *Using graphs and charts is beneficial while teaching different tenses*. In a world in which, the pace of technological changes is breathtakingly fast, it seems essential to use computer made charts and figures in English classes. Grammar learning seems to be a boring process for many students, but the teacher can make it enjoyable by motivating them through the use of modern technological facilities. An effective teacher can prepare slide shows for teaching various tenses. In addition to using graphs, the teacher can also use short conversations in order to teach new structures. Students will gain a lot from the use of scripted movies in their grammar classes.

4. *Classroom discussions and debates are two fundamental techniques in consolidating the newly learned lesson.* A good grammar teacher should allocate enough time to classroom debates and discussions. This can facilitate the

learning of new materials because students are engaged in the actual performance of analyzing different samples and examples. A good teacher always asks students why a given sentence is right or wrong. In the following example based on the observation, one can easily see the use of this strategy by the teacher.

T: Neither coffee nor milk are suitable for me right now. Is it okay?

Class: thinking.

S1: we should change suitable because…

T: no, please be careful.

S2: *Are* should change to *is*.

T: Yes, right, *are* should come instead of *is*. So neither coffee nor milk is suitable for me right now.

5. *An effective grammar teacher always makes sure whether the instruction is clear enough for students to solve the problems or not.* The teacher ensures whether the purpose of the activities is clear for students or not. When students move into a new task, the allotted time is mentioned by the teacher to give students a time frame and an ending point. It is crucially important to explain the instructions in a simple way so that students understand what they are going to achieve through the given activity.

6. *Pair work, group work and even role play are supplementary activities for teaching grammar in a communicative way.* By using pair work or small group activities, students will learn the communicative aspects of newly learned structures, in addition to becoming familiar with the use of language in real life situation. Students can role play authentic conversations while the teacher plays the role of a counselor or resource person who answers their questions periodically. This can make the grammar class more motivating and more communicative. Another advantage of this technique is the internalization of the newly learned structure.

7. *Using mother tongue is sometimes necessary.* The use of mother tongue in foreign language classes can be regarded as a very helpful device in grammar teaching. The following example from the observation can highlight this point.

T: Neither money nor success is important to me.

S1: The sentence means that both of them are important?

T: No, this means that both of them are unimportant to me.

S1: but nor…. .

T: Let me ask the class, who can tell me about the translation of this structure?

Class: silent.

T: This can be translated as …. .

8. *A good grammar teacher should always summarize the whole session in the last ten minutes of the class and ask whether students encounter any problems or not.* This strategy can be very useful because it can make a coherent picture of the lesson for students. Most students believe that the summary section is very fruitful for them because in a short time they can review the whole session and they can also add the new knowledge to the old ones.

9. *A good grammar teacher should use an integrative approach toward teaching in different situations.* The teacher should not use a single method of grammar teaching in all his classes. The grammar teacher should be a good needs analyst and should be able to adapt himself/herself with different approaches to teaching.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Regarding the qualities of an effective grammar teacher mentioned above, one should bear in mind that communication can typically be regarded as the main outcome of grammar teaching in ESL/EFL situations. As Sasson (2007) points out, it is always easy for teachers to teach students to learn a set of rules; however, it is much more difficult to encourage them to use those rules for effective communication. Many of them suddenly find themselves unable to produce a meaningful sentence either about themselves or something that interests them.

When we figure out a good teacher, some qualities may promptly cross our minds such as patience and enthusiasm, to name but a few. But when we limit ourselves to only one aspect of teaching, i.e. grammar, there should be some other features which can be added to the general characteristics. Integrating both features can make a successful teacher. It is also important to note that when we limit ourselves to grammar teaching, there are many features and aspects for a good and ideal grammar teacher with regard to different classroom situations. As mentioned previously, the main purpose of the present study was to give a holistic framework about the qualities of a good grammar teacher in general. Hence, there are definitely some other features which may be ignored in this study and can be investigated in future studies.

This study was basically a qualitative research. However, as Dornyei (2007, p. 34) argues quantitative "proponents usually emphasize that at its best quantitative inquiry is systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other concepts." Both kinds of these research methods are crucial and due to the nature of the study, one can use either quantitative method or qualitative method. As Strauss and Corbin (1998, p. 34) point out, "Qualitative and quantitative forms of research both have roles to play in theorizing." Due to the nature of the present study, a qualitative approach is appropriate here because the principles of effective grammar teaching cannot all be conveyed through operational terms but are strictly dependent upon the philosophical orientations behind grammar teaching and theories of second language teaching and learning. Collecting such information requires a qualitative approach, not a quantitative one. The reliability of such data

can be questioned but it can be regarded as a good source for understanding the nature of grammar teaching and learning.

All in all, the present study shows one bit of the whole. Further investigations in this regard seem to be necessary in order to find a coherent and well acceptable definition for an effective grammar teacher. We need to observe more teachers and more time should be designated to observations, attitudes of the teachers and learners. Researchers can also ask attitudes of the teachers toward grammar teaching in order to come up with a more thorough definition of the issue at hand. It is hoped that in near future, other researchers will focus on this issue as an important facet of TEFL.

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Age and Gender Effect in Phonetic Perception and Production

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Abstract—The aim of this study was primarily to find the relationship between age and the perception and production of English speech sounds by Persian speakers. The researcher also tried to find out the relationship between gender and the discrimination and production of English speech sounds. Sixty subjects took part in this study. They were divided in two groups of thirty children and adults, including fifteen males and fifteen females each. Both groups participated in tests of discrimination and production of English sounds. Two ANOVAs were administered, the results of which supported the idea that children and adults have equal aptitude for perception and production of the English sounds, which implies that there is still room for an innate faculty to continue its work in adulthood. Moreover, gender was not found to be an influential factor regarding perception and production of English sounds. The performance of both groups was significantly superior in production rather than discrimination. This result shows that perception of sounds does not necessarily precede their production.

Index Terms—perception, production, discrimination, speech sounds, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Age effect has been one of the topics most frequently considered in second language acquisition (SLA) research. Several books (Birdsong, 1999; Harley, 1986; Singleton & Lengyel, 1995) and numerous articles have dealt with the topic from various theoretical perspectives.

Research findings show opposing results regarding the effect of age on second/foreign language learning. One view states that acquiring a language (native or foreign) is a natural achievement for children and becomes more difficult as one becomes older (Guasti, 2002). This statement is supported by the belief that there exists a critical period during which the ability to acquire the competence reaches its peak, and after which this ability declines. Lenneberg (1967) suggested that full development of language is possible only if it is acquired before puberty. Bickerton (1981) made strong statements in favor of critical period before and after which certain abilities do not develop. Repeated claims have been made for a 'critical period' for speech, usually located around puberty, after which the capacity to acquire native like speech is hypothetically impaired (Patkowski, 1990; Scovel, 1988). Concerning second/foreign language learning, researchers have assumed the possibility of extrapolating the critical period hypothesis to second/foreign language context (Scovel 1988; Long 1990b; Jonson 1992; Flege 1987; Morris et al. 1986; Patkowski 1990). The argument is that a critical point for SLA occurs around puberty, beyond which people seem to be relatively incapable of acquiring a native like accent of the second language (SL). Flege, Yeni-Komshian, & Liu (1999) showed that a foreign accent can already be detected in individuals' first exposure to a foreign language at age 3 and that accents get stronger as age of first exposure increases.

A. Child Advantage

Regarding the relationship between age and pronunciation, several studies give advantage to children. Oyama (1976) found evidence for the advantage of children over adults in second-language learning. He stated that pronunciation is achieved better at earlier ages. Cochrane and Sachs (1979) made a comparison between children and adults on imitation of Spanish words and found children to be superior in imitative tasks and suggested that they may possess some special aptitude for phonological acquisition. Guiora, Brannon, and Dull (1972) believe that children's advantage over adults is due to the fact that they do not consider trying new sounds a risk and are not so worried about social acceptance by peers, while adults feel more at home with their established native language and have stress when trying to speak a foreign language (FL) at the prospect of sounding foolish.

B. Adult Advantage

A number of studies regarding the relationship between age and pronunciation give advantage to adults. Stern (1976) believes that adult cognitive ability to reason is more important than advantages children appear to have in pronunciation. Asher and Price (1967) suggested an advantage for adults believing that the hierarchical nature of process would be more easily understood by mature adults rather than by children. A study conducted by Snow and Hoefnages-Hohle (1978) did not support the "critical age" theory; in fact, the older group performed better than the younger children. Rosenman (1987) concluded in his study that young English speaking adults discriminate and are able

to reproduce Spanish sounds better than children. Neufeld (1979) argued that he was able to teach second language learners to perform like natives on certain tasks after specialized training. A number of studies over the past ten years (Birdsong, 1999; Bongaerts, 1999; Marinova-Todd, Marshall & Snow, 2000) have observed native like attainment among late learners (i.e., people immersed in the second language (L2) in their early teens and beyond,). Hudson (2000) has assumed two main versions of the critical period hypothesis for language learning: the 'maturation' and 'exercise' version. According to the exercise version, he believed, adults should be as able as children, at least biologically, to learn languages.

C. Gender Factor

Regarding females and males, several sociophonetic speech differences have been reported in the literature (Trudgill, 1972; Kramer, 1978; Byrd, 1994). Stolten and Engstrand (2002) state that it is a commonly held belief that older speakers are more dialectal than younger speakers and the clearest difference in dialect strength would be found between older men (most dialectal) and younger women (least dialectal).

D. Perception versus Production

Research concerned with the relationship between the production and perception of the sounds of an L2 has shown that a complex relationship exists between the production and perception of L2 sounds, and that many factors have to be taken into account in describing this interaction. A problem that researchers address is whether production precedes perception or, conversely, perception precedes production in the process of acquiring an L2. The question is: Can learners adequately pronounce sounds which are not well perceived, or is a good perception a prerequisite to accurate pronunciations?

The idea that inaccurate perceptual representations are responsible for non-native productions has been formulated in many of Flege's (1991) contributions stating that foreign accent may result from the development of the L1 phonetic system, which makes it increasingly unlikely that similar sounds in an L2 will evade being equated with sounds in L1. This phenomenon has been defined as "equivalence classification". According to this principle perception of a new phonetic contrast must necessarily precede its production.

Some observations made by Neufeld (1988) and Bri ére (1966) point out that when learning an L2 not all the sounds that are correctly perceived will be correctly produced. Some research point out towards a better differentiation between the two languages in production than in perception. The explanation suggested by Mack (1989) is similar to the one proposed by Sheldon (1985) to account for the same trend in L2 speakers: the social consequences of non-native production are more important than those of non-native perception and, therefore, accurate productions are found whereas perception can be different from monolinguals, whenever comprehension is achieved. It seems then, that in certain cases, the production of L2 sounds might precede their perception.

II.   RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Concerning the contradictory results of the studies mentioned in the literature, this study intends to find out the effects of gender and age on the perception and production of English sounds in an Iranian environment. It specifically intends to shed light on (1) whether the age plays a significant role in learning English language sounds, (2) whether there is a relationship between gender and speech sound acquisition, and (3) whether there is any difference between two aspects of foreign-language skills; namely, auditory discrimination and oral production of sounds.

Based on the abovementioned questions the following null hypotheses can be formulated.

1. There is no difference between children and adults concerning perception and production of speech sounds.

2. There is no difference between males and females concerning perception and production of speech sounds.

3. There is no difference between auditory discrimination and oral production of sounds as two aspects of foreign language skills.

III.   METHOD

A. Participants

Two groups of monolingual Persian children and adults, consisting of 30 people each, took part in phonetic discrimination and production of English sounds. Half of each group were females. The children group were selected from boys and girls participating in summer classes in Isfahan. These children had not been exposed to English language before, and the experimental tests were their first exposure. Their ages ranged from 8 to 10. The adult group consisted of 15 boys and 15 girls selected from a population who had not been exposed to English before taking part in this study either. Their age ranged between 36 and 48 years.

B. Instruments

Two tests were constructed for measuring auditory discrimination and oral production of English sounds. The test of oral production consisted of 45 items. Three initial and two final items were not included in the measurement. These items were one-syllable or two-syllable English words. Some of the sounds used in these words were non-existant in Persian such as the initial sounds of then, and thank and the short vowels in full and bud (Table 1).

TABLE 1
TEST OF ORAL PRODUCTION

Item	C	I	Item	C	I
1.ski			24. well		
2. get			25. man		
3. teacher			26.cod		
4. dentist			27. bud		
5. thank			28. look		
6. then			29. full		
7. sing			30. feel		
8. file			31. tear		
9. ring			32. phone		
10. button			33. boat		
11. bottle			34. tide		
12. went			35. bought		
13. speak			36. tail		
14. cute			37. steam		
15. queen			38. atom		
16. shrink			39. class		
17. school			40. flunk		
18. sheet			41. strong		
19. clap			42. mere		
20. street			43. thinks		
21. student			44. spot		
22. squint			45. book		
23. did					

C = correct, I = incorrect

The test was recorded by a female native American. Each word was followed by a pause. Each subject produced the word during the pause, and the responses were recorded on tape. Judges, who were native American English speakers listened to these recordings later and checked the marked (underlined) English sounds as correct (C), or incorrect (I) depending on the accuracy of pronunciation.

The Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test (1973), which is a standardized test designed to determine the ability of children (ages 5 through 8) to recognize the fine differences between English phonemes, was used as a model for the construction of the auditory discrimination test. The test which was prepared for this study contained a total of 40 one-syllable word pairs. The first three were practice items which were not included in the measurement. Of the remaining 40 word pairs, 30 pairs differed in a single phoneme, but ten pairs did not differ; comparisons were made between thirteen initial consonants (such as ten and den), four medial vowels (such as hot and hut), thirteen final consonants (such as cash and catch), and ten false choices (such as house and house) (Table 2).

TABLE 2
TEST OF AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION

Item	S	D	Item	S	D
1. jam-jam	√		23. sheet – cheat		√
2. lake – sake		√	24. sink – zinc		√
3. house – house	√		25. big – big	√	
4. home – dome		√	26. fool – full		√
5. ten – den		√	27. safe – save		√
6. coat – code		√	28. rouge – rule		√
7. back – bag		√	29. live – live	√	
8. sheep – ship		√	30. choke – joke		√
9. bit – bit	√		31. class – glass		√
10. tin – thin		√	32. sleep – sleep	√	
11. west – vest		√	33. cot – caught		√
12. ring – ring	√		34. place – plays		√
13. thing- think		√	35. close - clothe		√
14. rope - robe		√	36. cup - cup	√	
15. cheep – cheep	√		37. pin – bin		√
16. hot – hut		√	38. red – led		√
17. day – they		√	39. seem – seem	√	
18. fine – vine		√	40. sin – sing		√
19. food – food	√		41. sum – sun		√
20. cash – catch		√	42. lease – leash		√
21. perch – purge		√	43. young – tongue		√
22. care-care	√				

S = same, D= different

Although the effect of L1 on L2 perception and production of speech sounds was not intended to be measured in this

study, some English sounds which are non-existent in Persian were placed in contrast to English sounds existing in Persian, such as tin-thin for consonants and sheep-ship for vowels, in order to sharpen the discriminative power of the test. The test was recorded by the same female native American who recorded the test of oral production. Each pair was followed by a pause. During the pause the subject was to respond "same" or "different", which was recorded on tape. The examiner checked the accuracy of the responses when the testing procedure was finished.

C. Procedure, Data Collection, and Data Analysis

A soundproof language lab was used for data collection so that no extraneous noise could interfere. Subjects took part in the test of oral production individually followed by the test of auditory discrimination. The whole procedure took 20 minutes. Instructions were given in native tongue, first for the test of oral production followed by some practice both in Persian and English. When the examiner was certain that the subjects were quite familiar with the procedure, she started the actual test. The subjects listened to each word and then pronounced the word which was then recorded on the student tape. Following this, the test of auditory discrimination started immediately. The same procedure of explanation, practice, and recording was used for this test. The judges who had shown to agree on 91% of their decisions in a pilot test conducted before grading the actual test were trained to respond to the sounds which were singled out in the script of the recorded words (Table 1). Two ANOVAs were administered to find the relationship between age, gender, and language learning. The first one compared two groups of children and adults. The dependent variables were phonetic discrimination and oral production of English sounds. The two groups compared in the second ANOVA were males versus females and the dependent variables were discrimination and production of English sounds.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study planned to answer some questions regarding the effect of age and gender on perception and production of English speech sounds. The descriptive statistics for two tests of auditory discrimination and oral reproduction of sounds for groups of children, adults, males and females are illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Group	N	Mean	SD
Adults P	30	29.6333	4.1728
Adults D	30	26.0889	5.7502
Children P	30	29.6333	5.1427
Children D	30	27.1043	2.6040
Male P	30	29.7333	5.0030
Male D	30	26.3934	4.5427
Female P	30	29.5333	4.3370
Female D	30	26.7933	4.4328

P = correct production, D = correct discrimination

The first hypothesis in this study stated that there is no difference between children and adults regarding perception and production of speech sounds. Two ANOVAs were performed. The first univariate analysis of variance indicated that neither group performed better than the other one; therefore, the first null hypothesis was accepted. Using an alpha level of .01, we can determine that the difference between performances of children and adults was not significant (p = .544, F= .370) (Table 4).

TABLE 4
RESULTS OF THE ANOVA BETWEEN ADULTS AND CHILDREN

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	7.734	1	7.734	.370	.544
Variable	276.651	1	276.651	13.220	.000
Error	2427.452	116	20.926		
Total	97573.755	120			

This means that children and adults have equal chances for success in production and perception of sounds when just exposed to the English language. The results rejected studies such as those discussed in Guasti (2002), Oyama (1976), Cochrane and Sachs (1979), which indicate that children had an advantage over adults in learning second language sounds because of biological characteristics.

The results did neither confirm the studies such as those of Stern (1976), Asher and Price (1967), Snow and Hoefnagel-Hoble (1978), and Rosenman (1987), who supported the idea that adults, because of their cognitive advantage, are more successful than children. The findings, however, support Stolten and Engstrand (2002) who observed no significant age-related differences in their study.

The second hypothesis was that either males or females would perform better in the assigned tasks. Using an alpha level of .01, we can determine that the difference between performances of males and females was not significant (p= .905, F= .014) (Table 5).

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF THE ANOVA BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	.300	1	.300	.014	.905
Variable	277.245	1	277.245	13.182	.000
Error	2439.638	116	21.031		
Total	97563.079	120			

This shows that gender is not a significant factor regarding perception and production of English sounds and therefore, the second null hypothesis which states that there is no difference between children and adults regarding perception and production of speech sounds is also accepted. This outcome contradicts that of Stolten and Engstrand (2002) who judged younger women as less dialectal than men of the same generation. Within group individual differences can nevertheless, be depicted.

A comparison made between tests of auditory discrimination and oral reproduction revealed that the difference between the two tests was significant. Comparison of the means (Table 3) revealed that children, adults, males, and females all performed significantly better in the production test when compared to the discrimination test in both child/adult and male/female comparisons. Therefore, the third hypothesis stating that there is no difference between auditory discrimination and oral production of sounds as two aspects of foreign language skills was rejected. Levels of significance were p= 000, F= 13.220 for the age-related comparison (Table 4) and p= 000, F=13.182 (Table 5) for the gender-related one. The superior level of production over discrimination is illustrated in Figure 1.
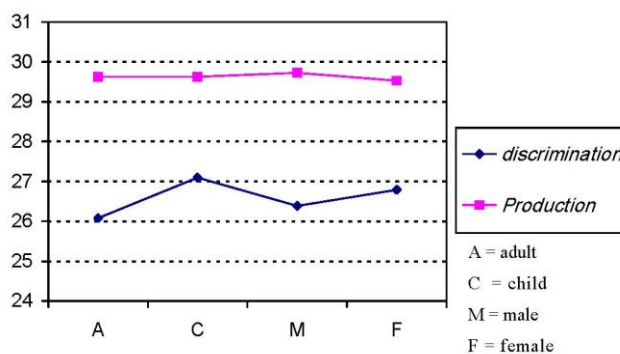

Figure 1. The Comparison between Tests of Production and Discrimination

The superiority of the production test could answer the question regarding the ability of learners to adequately pronounce sounds which are not well perceived. It supports the idea that a good perception is not necessarily a prerequisite to accurate pronunciations. The researcher agrees with Mack (1989) and Sheldon (1985) who believe that the social consequences of non-native production are more important than those of non-native perception and, therefore, accurate productions are found where perception can be different from monolinguals. This finding also supports Llisterri (1995) who concludes that, in certain cases, the production of L2 sounds might precede their perception, Caramazza et al. (1973) who found that bilingual speakers can better adapt their production than their perception in their non-dominant language, and Mack (1989) who found evidence that bilingual production can be more accurate than perception. The superiority of production test, however, contradicts that of Flege (1991) who believes perception of a new phonetic contrast must necessarily precede its production and Polivanov (1931, cited in Llisterri, 1995) who accounts for the L1 effect on SL pronunciation. Works discussing the effects of training based on production vs. training based on perceptual strategies (Catford & Pisoni, 1970; Weiss, 1992) which imply that good production abilities may contribute to a better discrimination of L2 sounds are worth noticing as they may be relevant to the practical implications of the present research.

V.   CONCLUSION

The findings of this study reveal that age is not a significant factor in learning the English language sounds. Persian children and adults showed to have similar chances for success in learning English sounds as they performed equally well in discrimination and production of these sounds. Moreover, no superiority was found regarding the gender factor. Both males and females discriminated and produced English sounds equally well.

One noticeable result was the superiority of production of sounds over their discrimination. All groups of adults, children, males, and females performed better in tests of production of sounds than discrimination (Table 3 & figure 1). This implies that perception of a phonetic contrast does not necessarily precede its production. In other words, different factors including social consequences (Mack, 1989; Sheldon, 1985) may bring about better production of sounds which may not have been well perceived. This is a hypothesis which could be tested in future studies.

VI. THEORETICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of this research have both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the results can expand the scope of the 'age issue' implying that there is no difference between how children and adults learn an SL; more specifically the way they perceive and produce sounds when they are exposed to them. It can, therefore, be stated that there is still room for an innate faculty to continue its work in adulthood.

The practical issue concerns the appropriate time to begin instruction in a second/foreign language environment. The outcomes of this research put no limits on the age of instruction. Foreign language instruction can be introduced at primary school, secondary school, or higher levels assuring success at all ages. Possible unsuccessful cases can be attributed to the learner's individual characteristics. While certain children can perform better than certain adults, the opposite case is quite as probable. Regarding the gender issue, there is no difference between males and females with respect to production and perception of English sounds. However, the training based on production seems to be more fruitful than the one on perception. Finally, it can be stated that teachers may instruct English sounds regardless of age and gender differences. However, individual differences are to be considered. The researcher hopes that this study will be of use to both language planners and instructors.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

This study was limited in the number of subjects; further studies may include larger samples. This study tested only English language as its target; studies including other languages can confirm or reject the findings of this research. This research had only Persian speakers as subjects and did not intend to measure the effect of L1 on L2 perception and production of speech sounds; other researchers may include native speakers of other languages and also consider the effect of L1 on L2 in order to reach at a more conclusive theoretical background. Cross-sectional studies, can be affected by cohort effects, meaning that differences between age groups (cohorts) may result from environmental events (Ateah et. al. 2009); conducting similar studies with different age groups and environmental events may moderate the cohort effects.

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Glocalizing ELT: From Chinglish to China English

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Abstract—In face of the reality that English has germinated into a global language whose hegemonic effect has posed a threat to the existence of many other languages, China should glocalize English language teaching by developing Chinglish into China English - a new English variety that maintains high intelligibility in the global context and incorporates rich local linguistic and cultural characteristics. Only in this way can China prevent its English learners from acquiring a global tongue at the expense of local indigenous languages and cultures. Furthermore, China's English education or EFL education in general, when converted from manufacturing "culture receivers" to nurturing "culture senders", will be more effective in reinforcing English learners' sense of pride in their native cultural identity and increasing their confidence in intercultural communication on the global stage.

Index Terms—China English, Chinglish, glocalization, localization, intercultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

The motto "Think global, act local", originated by Rene Dubos, has nowadays been used in a variety of contexts, including English education pedagogy. This phrase has the implication that being a competitive player in the fast-globalized world requires communication with the world and taking advantage of local resources. With regards to English education, particularly in countries where English is not spoken as a native language, teachers should take the responsibility to consider how to accommodate this world language in the classroom so that it may serve local needs without causing damage to local resources – impairing the development of local indigenous languages and cultures. Grounded on this belief, this paper will commence by reviewing the causes of the global spread of English and its negative effects. Then, it will revisit the concept of language localization, which is seen as an effective means to combat the threat that the world language is casting upon the existence of local indigenous languages. Also, it will discuss the standards for validating localized Englishes as legitimate English varieties. Subsequently, it will describe the general situation of English education in China and propose the progression of Chinglish into China English in the Chinese context, followed by a brief discussion of the potential of China English developing into a new legitimate English variety. It will then end with an examination of the linguistic and cultural contributions of China English, coupled with advice on how teachers in China may materialize the teaching of China English in local classrooms.

The initial spread of English began with British and American colonialism and the migration of English-speaking individuals to other regions of the world during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. As Britain and the United States took turns to become the world's leading economic power through industrial capitalism in the past three centuries, advanced technological and scientific inventions mushroomed in these two countries, which further fueled the spread of English. People who wanted to learn about these innovative technologies needed to learn English so as to understand new terminology and talk to the English-speaking inventors and manufacturers (Crystal, 1997). As for the factors that are accountable for the current spread of English and the macro-acquisition of the language within existing speech communities, controversial voices are heard among linguists and educators. For example, Phillipson (1992) contends that the global spread of English is a matter of deliberate policy on the part of core English-speaking countries to maintain dominance over periphery countries, in many cases, developing countries. Also, he (1992, p.47) coins the term "linguistic imperialism" and posits it as a type of cultural imperialism by claiming that "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages". However, Widdowson (1997), on the grounds of the current uses of English, argues that the global currency of English is attributed to the fact that the language is now central to a wide variety of specific purposes ranging from international relations to popular culture to academia. Moreover, McKay (2002, p.24) refutes Phillipson's "linguistic imperialism" by emphasizing that "the spread of English is … a complex process brought about both by those who actively promote the language and those who consciously choose to learn it", and she further explains that many individuals learn English in order to claim access to such things as scientific and technological information, global economic trade, and higher education, the majority of which are English-based in the fast-globalized world (p.21).

Given that English has successfully sprouted into a vital linguistic tool of international power, the author of this paper believes that the language with its manifold benefits may cause people in non-native English speaking countries to

prioritize English learning and neglect the development of their native tongue. This opinion finds due support from Xu (2007), a well-known expert of Chinese linguistics, who anxiously points out that Chinese people's literacy in Chinese has currently been declining, and the ever worsening situation even extends to well-educated people. To him, the major reason for this phenomenon is that in China English is being considered more valuable than Chinese so that people are willing to devote more time to improving their English competence. In addition, MacPherson and Beckett (2008) offer another example of the Uighurs in Northwestern China coping with great pressure to learn English as well as Mandarin Chinese for their basic survival and making local languages and knowledge irrelevant. Similar cases of language devaluation and replacement have also occurred in Singapore (Gopinathan, 1998) and Nigeria (Schaefer & Egbokhare, 1999).

In order to keep up with the trend of globalization and meanwhile counteract the hegemonic effect of English which can marginalize and impoverish local indigenous languages, non-native English learners/ speakers in Outer Circle countries (the countries where English is an inherited second language) (Kachru, 1985, pp.12-15) have created some new localized varieties of English, such as Singapore English and Indian English, through which they have managed to preserve the phonological, lexical, grammatical and rhetorical traits of their native language and find an expression of their national and cultural identity in the course of speaking the global language (Carter & Nunan, 2001, p.4). However, new Englishes soon give rise to concerns over standards in English as international language. Some linguists refuse to acknowledge Outer-Circle Englishes as Standard English, and some others are worried that allowing for a wide variety of norms would reduce the intelligibility of English as an international language (EIL). Therefore, in order for the new Englishes to gain wider acceptance, it is crucial to consider what is meant by Standard English and whether or not intelligibility would cause an insurmountable problem that narrows the path of English localization.

The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (Richards, Platt & Weber, 1985) defines Standard English as the variety of English that has the highest status in a community or nation and is based on the speech and writing of well-educated people. Besides, it should be: a) used in the news media and in literature; b) described in dictionaries and grammars; c) taught in schools and taught to non-native speakers when they learn English as a foreign language. Grounded on this definition, Singapore English, as an example of Outer-Circle Englishes, can be recognized as a standard English variety, because it is generally spoken by the socially dominant group of the country (the rich and powerful as well as the educated elites), and it is used for governmental administration, taught in schools and used in the mass media (Lick & Alsagoff, 1998, p.282).

In approaching the issue of mutual intelligibility among varieties of EIL, McKay (2002, pp.52-53) proposes a tripartite definition of intelligibility that involves intelligibility (recognizing an expression), comprehensibility (knowing the meaning of the expression), and interpretability (knowing what the expression signifies in a particular sociocultural context), and then she claims that it is usually interpretability that causes the greatest problems in the use of EIL for cross-cultural communication since interpretability entails questions of culture and context. However, she further maintains, "When English is used cross culturally, it is very possible that the speakers will work together to achieve interpretability." Hence, people in Outer Circle countries should not be discouraged from speaking localized Englishes but ought to learn some communicative strategies that can help them accommodate linguistic and cultural differences and repair communication failures.

As indigenized Englishes in Outer Circle countries are gradually claiming their legitimate status, the author of this paper deems that people in China should also launch a revolution of English use in order to offset the negative effect that the powerful global language is inflicting upon local indigenous languages. As a country with a humongous group of English learners and users, China has a great potential of constructing another English variety that reflects and consolidates her unique civilization. Before outlining the Chinese variety of English, it is important to first gain some knowledge of the general situation of English education in this country.

Since China undertook tremendous social reforms and gradually opened herself up to the outside world during the past three decades, English has become the principal medium for the world to know this country and the country to establish communications with the world. Designated as a compulsory school subject that penetrates the whole educational system, English has enabled Chinese learners to help the government establish and maintain healthy international relationships, to conduct profitable international business and trade, and to learn about latest social, scientific and technological advances in the world. With these undeniable benefits, English is rapidly transforming the social conditions of the country as well as people's attitude towards local indigenous language, as noted earlier in this paper, and Chinese traditional culture (Guo and Beckett, 2007, p.124). At schools, western cultural norms and values prevail in almost all English learning textbooks that were either originated in the UK or the US or developed in China in the name of authenticity, leaving very limited room for including the discussion of local cultures and issues. British English and American English are serving as role models for English instruction in all public schools without change. Such practices cause learners to struggle painstakingly to achieve native-like English, which is, however, highly unattainable in an EFL context. What is worse, when foreigners in China hope to learn about some common Chinese cultural/ societal phenomena from these learners, they often fail to offer a sound and in-depth explanation in even plain English, because: first, they have not been taught to express or describe concepts and events that are laden with local culture; second, they have spent a large amount of time learning English and hence weakened the study of Chinese and Chinese culture.

In order to mitigate the exacerbation of this situation, a new model of English must be established in China. And this new English should maintain high intelligibility in the global context and incorporate Chinese elements for celebrating local identity and native cultural values and beliefs.

To obtain this goal, great efforts should be made to channel a widely used Chinese style of English (Chinglish) into the right track. Chinglish, as defined by Pinkham (2000, p.1) is a misshapen and hybrid language that is neither English nor Chinese, for example, "Be cautious to slip." (Caution Wet Floor). Guan (2007) further adds that Chinglish is an interlanguage and its occurrence is the result of negative transfer of the mother tongue. The divergence of Chinglish from the standard norms of Englishes of Inner Circle countries (the countries where English is the first language) (Kachru, 1985, pp.12-15) can cause great confusion and incomprehension on various linguistic levels. On the lexical level, word for word translation (e.g. self walk car instead of bicycle) and literal translation (e.g. free love instead of free choice of marriage partner) may result in unintelligible or imprecise expressions in the target language. On the syntactic level, Chinese ways of constructing sentences, for instance, piling clauses together without using conjunctives, may lead to poor coherence of narration. On the discourse level, confusion may also arise from the indirect manner that ideas and/or theme are presented. In face of this improper use of English among many Chinese, Li (1993) proposes the concept of China English in hopes of steering the development of a legitimate English variety in China. He distinguishes China English from Chinglish by claiming that China English, free from mother tongue's negative interference, is shaped by combining the core linguistic norms of Inner-Circle Englishes and Chinese cultural elements that participate in communication by means of phonetic translation, borrowing and meaning reproduction (p.19). The reason for China English to be bound up with Inner-Circle Englishes for provisions of linguistic norms is that China belongs to Expanding Circle countries (the countries where English is a foreign language) (Kachru, 1985, pp.12-15), so there is no regular internal use of English in the country for linguistic innovations to be established as conventions and further codified as language standards and norms (Kachru, cited in McKay, 2002, p.54). However, this does not hinder Chinese characteristics from permeating the local use of English. Without violating the norms of Inner-Circle Englishes that govern sound, vocabulary, grammar, syntax and discourse, China English can embrace words or phrases like *netizen* (cyber citizen), *taikongnaut* (in contrast with cosmonaut and astronaut), *exam-oriented education*, *association of fellow townsmen*, *grain-for-green* (a government policy to convert farmland into forests or grassland to prevent soil erosion), and it can also incorporate expressions like *a land of fish and rice* (an affluent land, in contrast with a land of honey and milk), "*draw water with a bamboo basket*" (all efforts will be in vain, because water will leak out from an ordinary basket made of bamboo), "*paper cannot wrap up a fire*" (truth will come to light sooner or later), "*he is restless like an ant on a hot pan*" (a cat on hot bricks), "*there cannot be waves without wind*" (things always happen for a reason), "*a swan feather as a gift may look worthless, but it comes from afar and carries with it all the good intentions of the sender*". All these lexical items and syntactic expressions afford a clear demonstration of how Chinese concepts can be phrased and regenerated through English and therefore shed new color on the global language.

The potential for China English to develop into a Standard English variety rests on a couple of positive factors: firstly, some Chinese expressions have been absorbed into Inner-Circle Englishes, for example, *china*, *silk*, *dim sum*, *choy sum*, *lychee, ginseng*, *tea*, *wok*, *chopsticks, kowtow*, *typhoon*, *tycoon*, *brainwash*, *long time no see* (Chinglish); secondly, translation can not always build bridge between two disparate languages, because cultural concepts and items in one setting may find no equivalence in another (Guan, 2007), therefore China needs its own way to express unique things such as *chengguan* (urban management officers, whose main obligation is to ward off street vendors without license and are often involved in some low-level crime and/ or public disorder), *spring transportation* (the heavy traffic load around the time of Chinese New Year), and *skin scraping and fire cupping* (practices of traditional Chinese medicine); thirdly, a number of Chinese words, such as *tofu, soy, gungho*, *kowtow, chop suey, bonsai, taichi*, have been inscribed in dictionaries like *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, and some others have been used in mass media and literature, such as *kung fu* and *sifu* in "Kung Fu Panda", *mahjong* in "The Joy Luck Club" and *guasha* in "Guasha"; fourthly, an increasing number of Chinese linguists and English educators have realized the significance of English localization in China and are committing themselves to the promotion of China English as well as Chinese culture.

The idea of localizing the global language without deforming it (as in Chinglish) may be phrased as the glocalization of English. China English, also known as a glocalized English variety, yields rich benefits for the nation and the world. Firstly, China English enables the rest of the world to better learn about China-related issues or events and learn from the Chinese experience. For instance, *One Country, Two Systems* (a government policy for peaceful reunification implemented on Hong Kong SAR and Macau SAR) may provide a good lesson on international dispute settlement. *Harmonious Society*, a term originated in the 4th Plenary Session of the 16th CPC Central Committee and reflecting the Chinese government's determination to build a new socialist countryside, may shed some light on achieving a balanced urban-rural development. Secondly, China English allows valuable elements of Chinese traditional culture to be better preserved, developed and promoted. For example, words like *fengshui* and *taichi* have successfully brought the ancient Chinese art and life philosophy under spotlight on the global stage, drawing immense attention and ongoing fascination from the whole world. With Chinese culture and traditions growing more and more popular in the world, Chinese English speakers will too be gaining the power of discourse in intercultural communication, because they are no longer passive culture receivers but culture disseminators. This, in return, may reinforce their sense of pride in their native cultural identity and serve as a strong incentive for them to further explore and protect Chinese cultural legacies.

II. TEACHING CHINA ENGLISH: A CHINESE CONTEXT

This section will mainly put forward some suggestions and possible approaches of teaching China English, which can easily be adapted for use in other linguistic and cultural contexts where English is sought to be glocalized.

1. It is essential for teachers to make students aware of the difference between China English and Chinglish. This can often be achieved through compare-and-contrast exercises. Firstly, the teacher should assign students to create a corpus of English use by going to streets, subways and any other public places to take photos of signs in English, or going to restaurants to collect English translation for Chinese dishes, or recording English news broadcast about China from TV, or making copies of each others' written assignments (e.g. essays). After that, the teacher should work with students examining the spoken and/or written discourses within the corpus and identifying what is acceptable (China English) and what is not (Chinglish). Eventually correction will be given to unacceptable expressions. Below are some examples:

1) Chinglish samples from some public signs:

"*Don't throw away your rubbish.*" (Don't litter!)

"*If you are stolen, call the police.*" (Report thefts to the police.)

"*Only for deformed people*" (Disable Only)

2) Chinglish samples from student's essays:

"My mother is one of the most vital people in my life because of her *hobbits*." (hobbies)

"And the memories you leave here will not *fake away* by time." (fade away)

"Therefore, if you know Cantonese, *take out your heart* to help others." (take actions)

3) China English samples from some public signs and billboards:

"*Please cherish the grass.*" (In contrast with "Keep off the grass!")

"*Zhanjiang is our home. Everyone needs to keep it clean.*"

"*It makes no difference if a baby is a boy or a girl.*" (an appeal for change on the traditional "son-preference" ideology)

4) China English samples from student's essays:

"I really like the floating softness of the *cloudy hands* posture." (Taiji posture)

"… the whole class sat by the reservoir and *appreciated the moon.*" (a Mid-autumn Day cultural practice)

"Familial affection is *the needle in my mother's hand that pulls the thread, the fan in my father's hand that drives away mosquitoes, and the bicycle that my brother rides to send me to school*."

2. Students can be assigned to work individually or in groups to collect and compare English and Chinese proverbs or idioms that are equivalent or similar in meaning. Through learning the cultural similarities and differences that abound in proverbial and idiomatic expression of social reality, students may be able to interpret Chinese (traditional) concepts and values more precisely to foreigners. Because when they quote a Chinese saying in English, they can relate it to its foreign counterpart and further explain, if necessary, why the same theme is approached in different ways. For example, "*the grain has been cooked into rice*" or "*the wood has been made into a boat*" can be juxtaposed with "what is done can not be undone".

3. Students can also be required to role play different scenarios of intercultural communication where they need to exchange cultural information. Situational dialogues between a Chinese tourist guide and foreign visitors at a tourist spot, or Chinese sellers and foreign shoppers at a Chinese antique or fabric market, or a Chinese and his/her foreign friends at a tea/ Chinese opera house, for instance, can proffer rich opportunities for students to use China English to initiate intercultural communication and decode Chinese culture.

4. In terms of textbook use, teachers should select the books that incorporate rich Chinese elements or add materials about China that are written by Chinese or international authors, such as novels, essays, travelogues, news articles, investigation reports and translated Chinese classics. Moreover, activities concerning Chinese culture and China English may also be integrated into text learning. For example, following a text introducing how to cook Western food, students can be asked to work in groups to create a blog in English introducing Western and Chinese food culture and providing recipes for some popular Western and Chinese food. This activity may also be used for approaching cultural themes like traditional holidays, marriage, public rituals and folktales.

Last, but not the least, teachers should make efforts to broaden their own knowledge of Chinese and world cultures and find paths for deepening their own intercultural awareness. Only then can they become more capable of presenting and interpreting cultural information as well as commenting on intercultural exchanges in class.

III. CONCLUSION

This paper is mainly intended for exploring what language policy China should follow in coping with the detrimental influence that the global language English has caused on local indigenous languages. It also hopes to provide a solution to other (Expanding Circle) countries where people are struggling with the same issue. The author started the discussion with a brief review of the global expansion of English and its negative repercussions. Then, he moved to focus on the growth of Outer-Circle Englishes, which are able to prevent the speakers from acquiring a global tongue at the expense of local indigenous languages and cultures. Inspired by these new varieties of Englishes, the author proposed regulating the local use of English (Chinglish) in China and developing a legitimate glocalized form of Chinese English (China

English). He further affirmed that the development of China English would gain Chinese people the power of discourse in intercultural communication and consolidate China's unique culture in a world with increasing uniformity. In the end, he offered some teaching methods and techniques for addressing China English in the classroom.

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Flexible Deixis: A Way to Cognitive Flexibility—The Influence of Perception of Centrifugal Force of Deixis on Transferability of Learning

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Abstract—In this article, deictic expressions are approached with a view to introduce a way for the promotion of cognitive flexibility of foreign language learners, proposing that such expressions can enhance the authenticity of language tasks whereby learners can see the realities from the eyes of different selves, and represent these realities in their proper multiplicity. More specifically the study investigated how far perception of EFL learners of Deictic Shift during the process of literary comprehension, correlates with the measure of cognitive flexibility, which is, in turn, the function of transfer of learning to limited, near and far situations or tasks. Then, authors, having considered Petraglia's definition of authentic learning as transferability, proposed that narrative activities with the focus on deixis can provide a ground for designing authentic learning task and environment which can weave the cognitive flexibility of language learners in developing multiple representations, multiple selves, and multiple realities.

Index Terms—authenticity, cognitive flexibility theory, deictic shift theory, transfer of learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The progressive reforms of twentieth century education have at their heart the recognition of the importance of a sense of reality or authenticity_ culminating in the current educational movement called constructivism, in which each student constructs his or her own knowledge of the world. In Psychology also, such tendencies toward reality have led to the current concern for situated cognition, an approach that again emphasizes the individual's perception of and responsiveness to the immediate ambient world and motivating activities that seem personally real.

But constructivism and situated cognition have a hidden kicker. If realities are constructed through individual activities and perceptions, then realities are multiple and we can not rely on any reality we offer students to be authentic prior to their engagement with it.

A constructivist theory of instruction and learning, Cognitive Flexibility Theory (Spiro et al, 1988) provides remedy to these problems. Cognitive Flexibility Theory offers an extension to the idea of the way we process new information, suggesting that we do not simply retrieve packets of old knowledge but we assemble them to form new realities which best relate to the learning of new material. It advocates avoiding oversimplification instruction, providing multiple representations of content, emphasizing case-based instruction, context dependent knowledge, knowledge construction and not transmission, and introducing complexity at an early stage. A central metaphor associated with Cognitive Flexibility Theory is the criss-crossing of a conceptual landscape revisited from different directions in order to master the complexity and fullness of a domain, a metaphor originated from Ludwig Wittgenstein's philosophical work expounded in Philosophical Investigations (Wittgenstein, 1985). By criss-crossing the same area from different perspectives, a web-like form of highly connected knowledge structure is created, allowing for flexibility in the application of knowledge to novel situations (transfer of learning). A shift from single to multiple representations, from rote learning to knowledge assembly, from schema retrieval to situation-specific knowledge assembly should be realised: "information that will need to be used in a lot of different ways needs to be taught in lots of different ways" (Spiro, et al, 1987, p.188).

The method most appropriate to translate the principles of Cognitive Flexibility Theory is hypertext as hypertexts provide non-linear links that allow for multiple dimensions of knowledge representation and multiple interconnections across knowledge components. But, in this article, authors propose that narrative activities with the focus on deixis can also provide a context or ground for designing authentic learning task and environment which can weave the cognitive

flexibility of language learners in developing multiple representations, multiple selves, and multiple realities.

To this end, the study investigated the effects of the perception of Deictic shift on the measure of cognitive flexibility, which is, in turn, the function of transfer of learning to limited, near and far situations or tasks, as measured by achievement, performance and proficiency tests respectively.

Following research questions are addressed in the current study:

1. Is there any relationship between students' perception of deictic shift, and transfer ability of learners of literary comprehension as measured by limited, near and far transfer tests?

2. If yes, perception of which types of Deictic Center shift can best be potential predictors of EFL students' ability in limited, near, and far transfer of literary comprehension?

A present article is the report of a correlational study, conducted to answer the above question. In doing this research, authenticity, narrative-centered learning, deictic shift theory, and transfer of learning, have been considered which are presented briefly in the next section.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Narrative as an Authentic Activity

Petraglia in a thorough review of the concept of authenticity as a goal—what he calls a desideratum—in education, wants to show that the "Western educational tradition has culminated in the contemporary and widespread view that school learning should rightfully, and nontrivially, correspond to the world outside of school"; moreover, this objective is "the result of a confluence of socially and culturally informed choices." Authenticity, he argues, is "not an intrinsic property possessed by an object but rather a judgment, a decision made on the part of the learner constrained by the sociocultural matrix within which he or she operates." That's why Petraglia insists that teachers must argue for the authenticity of their subject matter and their pedagogy. He also investigates teachers' attempts to "pre-authenticate" by designing syllabi, selecting course readings, creating tasks, problems, or contexts that individual students will likely judge to be meaningfully connected to their conceptions of reality. Petraglia cites three conditions of authenticity: the learner feels "ownership" over or "responsibility" for learning; the task must be "project-based," with the parts contributing to a clear "bigger picture"; and the work must encourage the learner to "generate multiple perspectives." "it is one thing," he reminds his readers, "to understand learning in everyday situations and entirely another thing to capture the dynamics of that learning and then set them in motion on cue."---___For Petraglia, therefore, narrative activities can be considered authentic. Narrative-centered learning environments offer significant potential for supporting guided exploratory learning. By taking advantage of the inherent structure of narrative, narrative-centered environments provide students with engaging worlds in which they actively participate in motivating story-based problem solving activities. Narrative could play an important role in discovery learning (Bruner, J. 1961), an approach to learning that emphasizes students' active exploration of a subject matter. In stark contrast to didactic pedagogies that emphasize students' memorization of facts from lectures and reading, discovery learning encourages students to learn by trial-and-error: they pose questions and answer them by conducting experiments, manipulating artifacts in physical or simulated environments, analyzing information, and systematically generating and testing their hypotheses (White, B. and Fredricksen, J. 1998). It is widely believed that discovery learning offers much promise because students actively participate in problem-solving activities (National Research Counsel, 1996). However, it has been demonstrated that "pure" discovery learning in which students receive no guidance in the form of coaching and hints from a teacher or learning environment is ineffective (Mayer, R., 2004). ____For example, one of the central activities in comprehension of literary texts such as narratives is specifying the orientation of the narrative discourse consisting of time setting, spatial setting, as well as characters, which are essential to the literal comprehension of a discourse (Hong-mei, et al., 2009). Generally speaking, the expressions of time, locations and the characters are realized by the use of deictic words and expressions. Consequently, the understanding of these deictic expressions is crucial to the identification of the orientation of the discourse, thus completing the literal comprehension of narratives. For instance, the specification of reference of person deixis like "I", "you", "his", "our", etc. is essential to clarify the characters in the discourse. In addition, in order to specify the location of the events described in the discourse, the reader is supposed to understand such space deixis as "here", "there", "at the place" and so on. Another activity is outlining the storyline of the narrative discourse. In this activity, in addition to person deixis, the understanding of time deixis is equally important to the literal comprehension of a discourse since the outlining of the storyline of a narrative relies largely on the specification of time deixis, the understanding of which will also be impossible without our co-text knowledge.

B. Deictic Shift Theory

Of course, deixis in the story world itself is not structured by either the author's or the reader's actual world. How, then, does the reader comprehend, not just the deictic references in fictional narratives, but the fictional narratives themselves, which, like all human communication, depend for their very coherence on deixis and reference? According to deictic shift theory, the reader creates a mental model of the story world and then projects, or shifts, her deictic center into that model (Bennett, 2005). That is, in the process of reading, the reader responds to the textual cues provided by the author (who has likewise taken up one or more perspectives within the text in the process of creating it) to construct a deictic coordinate system in the world of the narrative. The reader then continues to reconstruct and reorient the

deictic center, as cued by the text, during the course of the narrative. With respect to a particular narrated event, specific morphological, lexical, and syntactic elements of the text direct the reader to an active spatiotemporal location within the mental model when and where the reader witnesses the event (Segal 1990, 1995). One of the particular strengths of deictic shift theory is its identification and classification of these textual elements and their specific effects on the deictic center.

The deictic center of the text—the "window" from which the reader witnesses fictional events or, more generally, the perspective from which the reader experiences the elements of the story world—contains the components of the WHO (the narrative's participant structure), the WHERE (its spatial structure), the WHEN (its temporal structure), and the WHAT (its object structure; Zubin and Hewitt 1995).

C. Cognitive Flexibility and Transfer of Learning

As it was mentioned in the introduction, cognitive flexibility allows for flexibility in the application of knowledge to novel situations. Extending this to classroom learning in general, and foreign language learning, in particular, then, one can expect three types of learning: limited transfer, near transfer, and far transfer learning (Clifford, 2008).

- With limited transfer learning, students…
- Memorize and practice specific responses.
- Focus is on the content of a specific course, textbook, or curriculum.
- Learn only what is taught.
- With near transfer learning, students…
- Go beyond rote responses to rehearsed and semi-rehearsed responses.
- Focus on a predetermined set of tasks or settings.
- Apply what they learn within a range of familiar, predictable settings.
- With learning for far transfer, students…
- Develop the ability to transfer what is learned from one context to another.
- Acquire the knowledge and skills needed to respond spontaneously to new, unknown, or unpredictable situations.
- Learn how to continue learning and to become independent learners.

Aligned with these types of learning, there are three types of testing: achievement, performance and proficiency test.

- Achievement tests measure:
- Practiced, memorized responses.
- What was taught.
- The content of a specific textbook or curriculum.
- Performance tests measure:
- Rehearsed and semi-rehearsed responses.
- Ability to respond in constrained, familiar, and predictable settings.
- Whether learning transfers to similar situations.
- Proficiency tests measure:
- Whether skills are transferable to new tasks.
- Spontaneous, unrehearsed abilities.
- General ability to accomplish tasks across a wide variety of real-world settings.

In the present study, authors tried to test the predictability of limited, near and far transfer ability of learners with perception of deictic shift. To this end, the researchers run a series of multiple regression analyses with Deictic Shift dimensions as possible predictors and the dependent variables (achievement, performance and proficiency test scores) as the criterial variables. They were simultaneously entered by selecting the stepwise entry mode in the analysis process.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The sample of the study involved a cohort of 60 EFL students at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, who registered for the course Simple English Prose. They were both male and female between the ages of 19 and 22. A TOFEL test was used with students as a result of which final group of students included those who scored 550 and above on the TOEFL test. In this study, we presented participants with true-false statements about a narrative that they were in the process of reading. This was done by presenting the text a few sentences at a time and then presenting the true-false statements after each set of sentences. Three versions of the text were constructed in order to compare the movement of the Deictic Centers of the text, as evident in answers to who, where- and when-questions, as a function of the linguistic devices used in the different versions. Score from true false tests, then entered into correlation with participants' scores on an /a 1) achievement test, 2) performance test, and 3) proficiency test respectively which are aligned with limited, near, and far transfer ability.

B. Method

Three versions of the first chapter of The Pearl were composed. Twenty-five sentences differed across the versions in

one of two ways:

1. When a movement of characters in the story from one location to another was described by Steinbeck using the verbs 'came' or 'went', we substituted 'came' for 'went' and 'went' for 'came' in half of the instances selected. The changes were distributed equally over the three versions.

2. When, in the original text, the location of an entity or an event was either deictically identified, identified by the use of a preposed adverbial, or identified by the use of an adverbial elsewhere in the sentence, we sometimes inserted, moved, or deleted adverbials. Each instance selected occurred without an adverbial or with the adverbial in initial or non-initial position. These three possibilities occurred in the three different versions of the text.

In addition to these modifications, several sentences designed to simulate background description were added to the text. These sentences introduced animals to the narrative, with no explicit locatives, in order to see whether the Deictic Center devices under investigation would be used by readers to inferentially determine the animals' locations.

The chapter was broken into 30 units of from 2 to 17 sentences each. There was no attempt to control sentence length or unit length. Subjects were asked to read a unit and then respond to 2 to 6 true-false statements about it. For each version, there were a total of 115 statements. Each statement was to be responded to with a number from 1 (= definitely false) to 6 (= definitely true). Subjects were presented a booklet, each page of which contained one unit of the narrative and the statements associated with that unit. After responding to the statements following one unit, they were asked to turn the page and do the same thing with the next unit. At no time were they to read ahead or to re-read a unit on a previous page.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A.   Predicting limited, near, far transfer ability with perception of Deictic Shift of EFL students

Proficiency test score of students was predicted with three dimensions of their comprehension score. $\{F (3,159) = 15.95, P< .001\}$, which respectively accounted for 12%, 17%, and 23%, respectively, of the total variance in students' achievement score. This indicate that only those EFL students who exhibit higher comprehension score in all three types of deictic shift are able, more likely than their peers, to transfer their comprehension ability to completely new narrative activities.

The performance test score was predicted with the "WHO" and the "WHERE" dimensions of literary comprehension. $\{F (2,160) = 31.05, P< .001\}$.

Students' achievement was predicted with three comprehension dimensions :$\{ F (3,138) = 12.41, P< .001\}$. These dimensions respectively account for 19 %, 16 %, and 13% students' language achievement. This denotes that students who have better perception of all three types of deictic shift can act better on test tasks which are in complete alignment with classroom tasks.

V. CONCLUSION

The proficiency score was found to be significantly correlated with the literary comprehension of deictic shift in the multiple regression analysis. This fact about the predictive value of literary comprehension of function of different types of deixis in narratives indicates the importance that such elements have in enhancing the depth of the learning to the extent that enable the students to transfer what they have learnt to the remote situations or tasks that are of no familiarity to them. And all of these side effects are due to the flexible nature of deixis which in turn renders the learners' cognitive processes a kind of flexibility required for the engagement in the multiplicity of realities outside.

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The Impact of Local and Global Conjunctions on ESL Reading Comprehension: A Systemic Perspective

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Abstract—**This paper investigated the impact of conjunctions on the reading comprehension of ESL learners. To this end, three different versions; original, local-conjunctions-free and global-conjunctions-free, of an IELTS reading test where the logico-semantic relationships had been manipulated were administered to 45 upper-intermediate subjects assigned to three equal groups. The results indicated that the performance of the groups on reading comprehension was significant: the group receiving the unmodified test outperformed the other two; and the group taking the local-conjunctions-free test performed better than the other. It was concluded that conjunctions employed to link and texture the information at the local and global levels across the text affected the reading comprehension of ESL learners, and more importantly that the global conjunctions influenced reading comprehension more than the local conjunctions.**

Index Terms—**local and global conjunctions, logico-semantic relationships, reading comprehension**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is complex and the development of fluent reading abilities by second language students is a challenging undertaking. Grabe and Stoller (2002) assert that reading comprehension is remarkably complex, involving many lower- and higher-level processing skills that are coordinated in very efficient combinations. This is the very point at which ESL and EFL learners confront tremendous problems in the act of reading, because they do not adopt an interactive orientation towards the entire written text (Carrell, 1988; Grabe, 1988; Eskey, 1988). For example, foreign language learners can read in small text units such as clauses and sentences; nonetheless, they need more experience to be able to form the correct global meaning of the written text. This necessitates, for reading comprehension, the ability to work out the relationships at the local and global levels of the text (Lotfipour, 2006). Conjunctions are one of the linguistic resources that provide the ground for the understanding of the local and global relationships between messages, events and sequences of activities throughout the text.

Based on the systemic model (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin, 1992), the present study uses conjunctions to refer to all the linking words that hold logico-semantic relationships at the micro- and macro-levels of the text. Accordingly, any conjunction carries two kinds of meaning: experiential meaning and logical meaning. From the logical point of view, they appear in either a local context or a global context; and from the experiential viewpoint, they establish three semantic relationships; that is, elaboration, extension and enhancement, between clauses (complexes).

Local conjunctions are concerned with the relationships that are restricted to the scope of the clause and clause complex. These conjunctions are encoded by prepositional phrases within the clause and by coordinators or subordinators within the clause complex. The former is beyond the scope of this paper, because prepositions are the marked realizations of the conjunctions (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin, 1992), but the relationships within clause complexes are set by two different types of conjunctions: paratactic and hypotactic.

Paratactic conjunctions give rise to the interdependency relationships between two independent clauses of equal status. For example:

(1) A few days have gone by since Hari Raya, <u>but</u> I have not sent a Selamat Hari Raya card to some of my Muslim colleagues yet.

In the clause complex above, the two equal clauses are linked by means of the conjunction *but*. It is noteworthy that events in the clauses joined paratactically are arranged sequentially, so any change in the order will affect the chronological occurrence of the events.

Hypotactic conjunctions, on the contrary, give rise to the dependency relationships between two clauses of unequal status. That is to say, a conjunction-bearing clause called dependent clause (β) rests on another clause called dominant clause (α). Unlike the paratactic sequencing, the hypotactically-related clauses can appear as either 'α plus β' or 'β plus α'. In English, the former is unmarked (as in Example 2), and the latter is used only when there is an acceptable reason (as in Example 3).

(2) Alice went out for walk <u>because</u> she felt very lonely at home. (α plus β)

(3) <u>Before</u> she leaves the house, she double-checks everything. (β plus α)

Global conjunctions go beyond the scope of the structure of the clause to include the relationships between clause complexes and paragraphs across the text. They typically appear at the beginning of a sentence or a paragraph and presuppose the presence of another semantic element in the preceding text. For example:

(4) The servant was dog-tired. <u>However</u>, he kept on working.

As said earlier, both local and global conjunctions convey three semantic relationships. Elaboration refers to a relationship of restatement of a previous clause, clause complex or paragraph. Therefore, elaborating conjunctions show that what is to follow is a restatement, exemplification or clarification of what has gone before. Examples 5, 6 and 7 below are instances of paratactic, hypotactic and global elaboration respectively. Note that the conjunction is explicit only in Example 7.

(5) Harry left his room in a mess; he scattered all stuffs across the room.

(6) He measured the shadow of the tower, which was equal to its height.

(7) We are on nodding terms. <u>That is to say</u>, we are not close friends.

Extension is a relationship of either addition or variation. Thus, extending conjunctions indicate that what is to follow is an addition or variation in the message contained in the preceding text. Examples 8, 9 and 10 are explicit instances of the extending paratactic, hypotactic and global conjunctions respectively.

(8) Jim teaches at a school <u>and</u> runs a restaurant.

(9) <u>Whereas</u> the director disagreed with the new proposal, all the technicians said yes.

(10) The defendant said he did not know the plaintiff at all. <u>Furthermore</u>, he denies committing an offence.

Enhancement refers to ways by which one clause, sentence or paragraph can extend on the meanings of another. As such, enhancing conjunctions denote that what is to follow provides some information about the Time, Place, Cause, Condition, Matter, or Manner with regard to the preceding text.

(11) He did not turn up for the appointment, <u>for</u> he had forgotten it.

(12) He is coughing <u>as if</u> he was affected with flu.

(13) The American present-elect Barak Obama has promised a revolutionary change for his nation. <u>For this reason</u>, it seems that this relatively young figure will have a very challenging tenure ahead.

In the examples above, *for, as if* and *for this reason* are enhancing paratactic, hypotatic and global conjunctions respectively.

In another classification of conjunctions, Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that when we use conjunctions as a means of creating text, we may exploit either the relations that are inherent in the phenomena or in the communication. To establish the relations between the goings-on, activities, states, thoughts, etc. in the real world, we make advantage of external conjunctions, whereas to link the relations between two or more ideas in the organizing of the discourse, we benefit from internal conjunctions. Martin (1992) believes that the external conjunctions are concerned with sequences of activities and are hypotactic, but the internal conjunctions are concerned with logically organizing discourse and are global. Admittedly, some conjunctions come out in both local and global contexts in reference to the relations between either the happenings in the world or the organization of the ideas in the text. Table 1 in the Appendix A, offers quite a big picture of the local and global conjunctions classified in terms of logico-semantic functions.

Conjunctions, in general sense, have been widely explored in reading, writing and discourse studies under such labels as conjuncts, connectives, conjunctives, logical connectors, discourse markers, textual metadiscourse, and so forth (Fraser, 1999; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Martin, 1992; Quirk et al., 1985; Nippold et al., 1992; Vande Kopple, 1997). As regards reading comprehension, studies have shown that the knowledge of conjunctions is closely related to reading comprehension (Cain, 2003; Geva, 1992; Robertson, 1968). In an attempt to investigate this relationship, Stoodt (1970) came up with this conclusion that there was a significant relationship between the native fourth graders' ability to identify the relationships signaled by conjunctions and reading comprehension. She also found a significant difference in the difficulty of various conjunctions; a significant relationship between comprehension of conjunctions and gender; and a significant difference in comprehension of conjunctions at various socioeconomic levels. To see at what level of proficiency L2 learners handle conjunctions, Geva (1986) and Wu (1994) both realized that the high proficiency ESL learners understood conjunctions at the discourse level better than the intermediate students do; and that low proficiency L2 students could handle logical relationships at the sentence level but not at the extended discourse level. This Implies that the ability to comprehend the logical relations at the clause and sentence levels is necessary but not sufficient, and that the ability to discern logical relations at the discourse level increases with proficiency. Chung (2000) compared four versions of an academic text: a non-signaled text; a text signaled with logical connectives; a text with headings; and a text with signals and headings combined, among poor and good students. The results showed that poor readers relied on explicit logical connectives more than good readers did; and that poor readers made use of logical connectives

as a guidance to relate sentences with the preceding or subsequence sentences. Moreover, in an investigation to compare native students and non-native ESL students on knowledge on connectors and reading comprehension, Goldman and Murray (1992) discovered that native speakers performed significantly better than the non-native learners did, concluding that understanding of meaning relationships between sentences could lead to betterment in ESL proficiency.

Besides the relationship between conjunctions and reading comprehension, research studies have also been carried out as to the effect of conjunctions on reading comprehension (Chung, 2000; Degand, et al., 1999; Loman & Mayer, 1983); however, the results have been contradictory. Some hold that conjunctions facilitate the students' reading comprehension. The results of a study by Geva and Ryan (1985), for example, indicated that fifth and seventh graders benefited from the instruction of conjunctions in their performance on reading comprehension of expository texts. Degand and Sanders (2002) investigated the impact of conjunctions on expository text comprehension in L1 and L2. The results showed that the texts bearing explicit causal connectives led to better performance on reading comprehension than the text with implicit causal connectives in both L1 and L2 contexts, concluding that explicit conjunctions had a positive effect on comprehension. On the other hand, some maintain that the conjunctions do not facilitate the students' reading comprehension and may inhibit it. Crewe et al. (1985), for instance, conducted an experimental study that involved two groups of students each receiving a different version of the same academic text: one with the original conjunctions; and the other with the conjunctions eliminated. The findings of this research indicated that there was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups on the reading comprehension assessed by the same comprehension questions devised in accordance with the text content. In the same fashion, Millis et al, (1993) argue that connectives, used to mark coherence relations linguistically, have a negative effect on the mental text representation and do not improve the comprehension of expository texts.

The existing evidence (Chung, 2000; Degand et al., 1999; Geva, 1986; Geva & Ryan, 1985; Mohammad Salehi, 2005; Stoodt, 1972; Yaghchi, 2000) indicates the conjunctions facilitate reading comprehension of EFL and ESL in some way. However, these studies have either investigated the effect of the explicit instruction of the conjunctions, in general sense, on reading comprehension or looked into the impact of conjunctions on skilled and unskilled students, and have not separately studied the role of the local and global conjunctions in reading comprehension. It is felt necessary to see if a conjunctionally-textured original passage is comprehended as well as the local-conjunctions-free and the global-conjunctions-free versions of the same passage, and if conjunctions affect reading comprehension at the local and/or global level. Thus, this paper attempts to shed more light on the previous findings about the facilitative role of conjunctions, in general, on the reading comprehension of ESL learners, on one hand, and to find out which type of conjunctions, local or global, has more facilitative role on the reading comprehension of the ESL students, on the other hand. To this end, it tries to answer the following research questions.

1) Do conjunctions, in general sense, influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension?

2) To what extent do local conjunctions influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension?

3) To what extent do global conjunctions influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension?

4) Do local conjunctions influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension as much as global conjunctions do?

Based on these research questions, the following null and alternative two-tailed hypotheses are put forward:

H_0: There is no significant difference in the mean reading comprehension scores for those ESL learners who read a conjunctionally-textured passage and those ESL learners who read the conjunctions-free version of the same passage.

H_1: There is a significant difference in the mean reading comprehension scores for those ESL learners who read a conjunctionally-textured passage and those ESL learners who read the conjunctions-free version of the same passage.

II. METHOD

This study compared the mean scores on reading comprehension between and within three independent groups of upper-intermediate ESL learners at Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). The upper-intermediate level was chosen because advanced ESL students, as Geva (1986) holds, are more capable of using the available logical relationships. Each group was given a different version of the same reading comprehension test such that one group received the original modification-free passage; one took a local-conjunctions-free passage; and another received a global-conjunctions-free passage.

A. Subjects

45 Chinese English learners (36 females and 9 males) who had passed the final test of homogeneity designed for the intermediate level by the Center for Languages and Translation and qualified for the upper-intermediate Intensive English Program in the autumn 2008 in the partial fulfillment of the requirements for admission to Universiti Sains Malaysia at the master's degree were chosen as a sample to this research study. To assign the subjects to different groups, the researchers marked every fifteen pieces of paper with one of the numbers 1, 2 and 3 and put them in a box, then asked each subject to pick up a folded piece of paper from among 45 pieces as an indicator of his/her group. All those who came up with number 1 were assigned to a control group, those with number 2 were assigned to treated group 1 (TG1) and those with number 3 were assigned to treated group 2 (TG2).

B. Materials

A reading passage in 404 essential tests for IELTS Academic Module was manipulated such that three different forms of the same passage could be constructed: the original reading passage without any modification in the conjunctions, whether local or global; a version of the same reading passage where all 19 local conjunctions - 9 extending and 10 enhancing hypotaxis - had been removed; and another form of the same original passage from which all 10 global conjunctions - 2 elaborating, 4 extending and 6 enhancing - had been eliminated. All three types of the reading passage were followed up with a set of identical questions. These questions were of three different types. The first sort of the questions was related to a table of information with three slots to be completed; the second type of the questions pertained to the matching of a list of nine headings with six paragraphs; and the third kind of the questions was concerned with five fill-in-the-gap questions to be completed with the information from the text. Altogether, there were thirteen question items, which appeared at the end of all the reading passages.

To test the reading comprehension of the subjects in the CG, TG1 and TG2, three different testing techniques for assessing reading comprehension; that is, table completion, multiple matching, and gapped-information completion, were used. The internal consistency computed through Guttman Split-Half coefficient proved that the reliability of this test was acceptable (r=0.73). To scores the reading comprehension tests, a very simple method was utilized. Accordingly, each question item, of any form, was awarded one point. Therefore, a subject who had 13 correct answers to 13 question items was credited 100 points, and a subject who had no correct answer to 13 question items was awarded with 0 point.

C. Procedure

After the reading passage had been made into three different forms, the original passage with both local and global conjunctions was administered to the CG, the local-conjunctions-free passage was given to the TG1, and the global-conjunctions-free passage was administered to the TG2. The researchers discussed the purpose of the study and how to administer the test with three staffs in the Center for Languages and Translation and asked each of them to supervise one of the three groups during the testing and to address the students' problems and questions, if any. All the three groups were spontaneously handed in the question papers by their respective supervisors and told to read through the passage at issue and write the correct answers to the required comprehension questions on the provided answer sheet in not more than 60 minutes.

D. Analyses

The variables were entered in the SPSS Program; reading comprehension was defined as an interval-scale dependent variable, and conjunction as a nominal-scale independent variable with three different levels coded as 1, 2 and 3 for the CG, TG1 and TG2 respectively. To determine whether the mean scores for more than two groups with one interval-scale dependent variable and one nominal-scale independent variable are too different to attribute to chance, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is an appropriate and effective way (Pallant, 2005). In an effort to check the appropriateness of this parametric statistical technique for this study, it was realized that the assumptions for this statistical test were found to be satisfied: interval-scale dependent variable; normal distribution of the scores (Fig. 1 in Appendix B); and assumed equal variances (Levene's Test value >.05) for the groups (Table 3 in Appendix A). Because there was only one independent variable in the present study, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to reject or accept the null hypothesis of no difference between the groups at the significance level $\alpha < .05$. To check for significance, an F ratio was computed. The value obtained for F Ratio indicated that the performance of the three groups on reading comprehension was significantly different. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected at *p<.01*. Moreover, to determine where this significant difference amongst the three groups originated from, a post-hoc test (Scheffe) was conducted.

III. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics (Table 2 in Appendix A) showed that there was a consistent difference in the mean scores for all the groups; $CG_{M = 71.27} > TG1_{M = 54.86} > TG2_{M = 25.41}$. A one-way ANOVA (Table 4 in Appendix A) run to explore the impact of conjunctions on reading comprehension indicated a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in the reading comprehension Additionally, the calculation of Eta Squared (sum of squares between groups divided by total sum of squares) indicated that the effect size was .61, which is very large in accordance with the guidelines by Cohen (1988 cited in Pallant, 2005). This meant that 61 percent of the variation in the reading comprehension scores of the groups was due to conjunctions, which explained the meaningfulness of the findings of this study. Post-hoc multiple comparisons (Table 5 in Appendix A) using the Scheffe test showed that all three groups significantly differed from one another at the significance level $p < .05$. The CG (M = 71.27, SD = 14.08) was significantly different from both the TG1 (M = 54.86, SD = 20.32) and TG2 (M = 25.11, SD = 11.44), and the TG1 was significantly different from the TG2. The means plot (Fig. 2 in Appendix B), too, shows the CG with the highest score and the TG2 with the lowest score.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of the statistical analysis above revealed that the mean scores for all three groups in the reading comprehension were significantly different from one another. However, to investigate the effect of the local and global

conjunctions on reading comprehension of ESL learners as the purpose of this study, the research questions raised at the end of the review of literature are individually addressed here.

1) Do conjunctions, in general sense, influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension?

The means plot (Fig. 2 in Appendix B) clearly displays the different performance of the CG, TG1 and TG2 on reading comprehension. The CG obtained a mean score greater than both the TG1and the TG2. As the descriptive statistics (Table 2 in Appendix A) illustrates, the CG outperformed the two treated groups in terms of mean score ($CG_{M=71.27} > TG1_{M=54.86} > TG2_{M=25.11}$). Furthermore, the between-groups analysis of variance (Table 4 in Appendix A) indicates that the difference in the performance of the CG, TG1 and TG2 on reading comprehension is significant [$F(2,42)=33.19$, $p<.001$]. That is to say, the ESL learners comprehended the reading text with the ideas explicitly linked to one another through local and global conjunctions better than the reading text with the ideas linked to one another implicitly without the aid of the conjunctions, local or global. This supports the findings of the previous research studies (Chung, 2000; Degand & Sanders, 2002; Geva, 1992; Geva & Ryan, 1985; Loman & Mayer, 1983) that the mere existence of the different types of conjunctions used to signal logico-semantic relations at the local and global levels enables ESL learners to comprehend the reading text more easily. The results of a study by Innajih (2006), who studied the impact of conjunctions on the reading comprehension on 100 Lybian EFL learners, revealed that the group treated with the knowledge of conjunctions outperformed the non-treated group, suggesting that the explicitness of the conjunctions improves reading comprehension.

2) To what extent do local conjunctions influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension?

As Table 2 shows, the TG1 (M=54.86, SD=20.32) has a poorer performance on reading comprehension than the CG (M=71.27, SD=14.08) does. Moreover, the post-hoc multiple comparisons (see Table 5) conducted through Scheffe Test to locate the source of the difference indicates that this mean difference in the performance of the CG and TG1 on reading comprehension is a significant at $p<.05$. Consequently, it can be claimed with 95 percent confidence that ESL learners do not comprehend the reading texts that are not linked through local conjunctions as well as the reading texts that are linked by means of conjunctions, in general sense, and that the conjunctions used to link the clause complexes throughout the text play a crucial role in the reading comprehension of ESL learners. As far as the distinction between the local and global conjunctions is concerned, it seems that no research has been reported with respect to the impact of the local conjunctions only on reading comprehension.

3) To what extent do global conjunctions influence the performance of ESL readers on reading comprehension?

From another angle, the post-hoc multiple comparisons indicate that the source of the significant difference between the variables of the current study is not limited to the CG and the TG1, but is also located between the CG and the TG2. As it is seen in Table 5, the mean scores for the CG (M=71.27, SD=14.08) and CG2 (M=25.11, SD=11.44) is different, and further this difference is significant at the $p <.01$ level. This means that the ESL students have poor performance on comprehending the reading text where the ideas at the discourse level are not signaled by the global conjunctions, but good performance on the reading text where the ideas are linked through conjunctions, in general.

The findings here go in agreement with the results of the previous research (Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007; Geva, 1986; Johnston & Pearson, 1982; Vahidi, 2008; Wu, 1996), claiming that EFL and ESL learners need to be able to form the correct global coherence of the written text by understanding the global conjunctions that texture the messages and paragraphs together at the discourse level. Cohen and Fine (1978), for example, examined the role of conjunctions in discourse comprehension of native and non-native speakers. They realized that the non-native learners did not effectively exploit cohesive textual relations and failed to comprehend adequately expository texts as a result.

4) Do local conjunctions influence the performance of ESL learners on reading comprehension as much as global conjunctions do?

The descriptive analysis indicates that there is a difference in the mean scores for the TG1 (M=54.86, SD=20.32) and TG2 (M=25.11, SD=11.44). What is more, the results of the Scheffe Multiple Comparisons Test show that this mean difference for the two groups is significant at the $p<.01$ level. To put in another way, the ESL students comprehend the local-conjunctions-free reading text better than the global-conjunctions-free reading text. Thus, it can be claimed that the conjunctions, which signal the global coherence of the ideas at the discourse level, facilitate reading comprehension more than the local conjunctions, which signal the local coherence of the ideas in adjacent sentences. In an investigation to find out whether or not the knowledge of conjunctions plays a role in the reading comprehension of academic texts, Vahidi (1996) examined subjects by three conjunction tasks at three different levels; intra-sentential, inter-sentential and discourse, together with a task of reading comprehension. The results showed that knowledge of conjunctions at discourse level is highly effective in academic reading comprehension. Similarly, the results of studies by Geva (1986) and Chung 2000 suggest that the manipulation of the conjunctions at the discourse level has a differential effect on L2 learners with different levels of proficiency. Accordingly, low proficiency students are less likely to infer implicit logical relationships in the extended contexts, but the advanced L2 learners are more able to deduce such global relationships.

All things considered, the findings of the current research with a significant difference [$F (2, 42) = 33.19$, $p <.001$] between the three groups ($CG_M > TG1_M > TG2_M$) rejects the null hypothesis that the ESL learners who read a passage textured by means of conjunctions do not perform better in reading comprehension than the ESL learners who read the same passage with the conjunctions missing and accepts the alternative hypothesis that the ESL learners who read a

passage textured by means of conjunctions perform better in reading comprehension than the ESL learners who read the same passage with the conjunctions missing.

V. CONCLUSION

In an attempt to recognize and tackle the factors that hinder the reading comprehension of ESL learners, the present research aims to investigate, from a systemic perspective, the effect of the local and global conjunctions, used as linguistic resources in the texturing of the written texts, on the reading comprehension of ESL learners. The statistical analysis of the data gathered from one control and two treated groups revealed that conjunctions, in general sense, had a decisive role in the reading comprehension of ESL learners. The local conjunctions used at the local level of the written texts to link clauses together within the scope of the clause complex significantly enhance the understanding of ESL learners. This is advocated by Lotfipour (2006), who affirms that such connectors signaling the type of meaning relationship between two parts of a sentence would facilitate the comprehension process and shorten the computation time. Likewise, the global conjunctions employed to create texture and coherence among the messages, paragraphs and sequences of activities at the global level of the written text effectively influence the reading comprehension of ESL learners. The findings (Jalilifar and Alipour, 2007) show that the removal of the textual connectives from the reading passage affects the reading comprehension ability due to incohesion in the text. Last but not least, the global conjunctions, which concern the internal texturing and organizing of the text information, influence the reading comprehension of ESL learners more than the local conjunctions, which deal with the sequencing of the external events within the sentence. This implies that readers' need to understand conjunctions at the text level is prior to the conjunctions used to link the clauses since readers with sufficient knowledge of discourse patterns use clues for coherence and focus on markers bringing logical relationships to the comprehension of the text (Vahidi, 2006).

Notwithstanding, this research had two noticeable limitations; failure to investigate the role of the three logico-semantic relationships on the reading comprehension, and secondly failure to compare the performance of males and females in the CG and the TGs, which can be of the focal attention in future research.

APPENDIX A

TABLE 1:
LOCAL AND GLOBAL CONJUNCTIONS IN ENGLISH

Type of Conjunctions	Global	Local		
	Between Clause Complexes	Between Clauses		Within Clause
		Means of Realization		
		Unmarked		Marked
Logico-semantic Relations	Global Conjunctions	Paratactic Conjunctions	Hypotactic Conjunctions	Prepositions
Elaboration	in other words,	that is,	which, who	as
	for example,	for example		like
	to be precise, by the way, in short, in particular, etc	at least		
Extension	also	and	while	with
	neither	nor		
	however	but	whereas	without
	on the contrary		besides	instead of
	otherwise	only	except that	except for
	alternatively	or	if not…then	
Enhancement	there	there	wherever	at/in
	throughout		while	for
	previously	before/until	before/until	before
	next	then	after	after
	at once		as soon as	during
	thus			by/with
	likewise	so	as if	like
	therefore	so/for	because	because of
	consequently	thus	so that	
	to that end		in order that	for
	in that case	then	if	in case of
	otherwise	otherwise	unless	without
	nevertheless	though	although	despite
	in this respect			about

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Reading Comprehension

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
CG	15	71.27	14.08	3.63	63.47	79.07	46.15	92.30
TG1	15	54.86	20.32	5.24	43.61	66.12	23.07	92.30
TG2	15	25.11	11.44	2.95	18.77	31.45	7.69	46.15
Total	45	50.41	24.68	3.68	43.00	57.83	7.69	92.30

TABLE 3:
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES

Reading Comprehension

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.696	2	42	.079

TABLE 4:
ANOVA

Reading Comprehension

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16427.50	2	8213.75	33.19	.000
Within Groups	10393.27	42	247.45		
Total	26820.77	44			

TABLE 5:
POST HOC TESTS: MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

Reading Comprehension
Scheffe

(I) Conjunction	(J) Conjunction	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CG	TG1	16.41[*]	5.74	.02	1.83	30.98
	TG2	46.16[**]	5.74	.00	31.58	60.73
TG1	CG	-16.41[*]	5.74	.02	-30.98	-1.83
	TG2	29.75[**]	5.74	.00	15.17	44.32
TG2	CG	-46.16[**]	5.74	.00	-60.73	-31.58
	TG1	-29.75[**]	5.74	.00	-44.32	-15.17

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
**. The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

TABLE 6:
HOMOGENEOUS SUBSETS

Scheffe

Conjunction	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
TG2	15	25.11		
TG1	15		54.86	
CG	15			71.27
Sig.		1.00	1.00	1.00

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

APPENDIX B
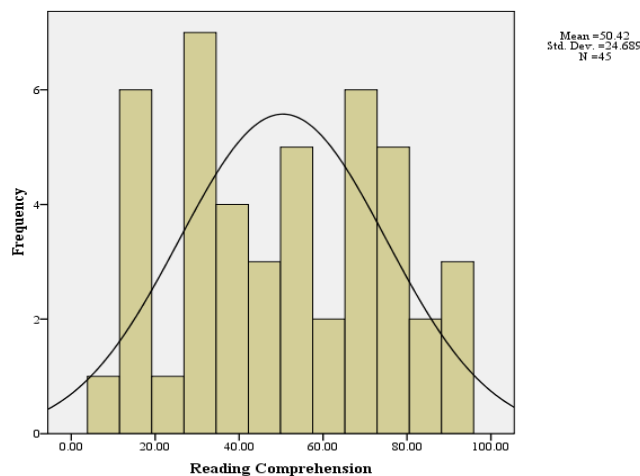
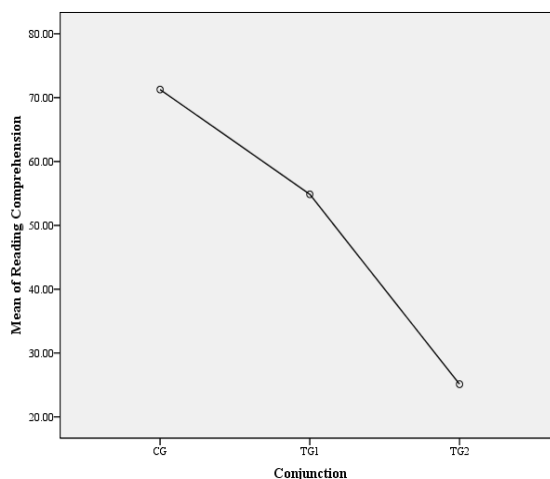Figure 1: Normal Distribution of Reading Comprehension Scores

Figure 2: Means Plots

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The Application of Chomsky's Syntactic Theory in Translation Study

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Abstract—**Noam Chomsky is a famous American linguist. Since he put forward his Transformational-generative Grammar (TG), many scholars have tried to use the concepts of deep structure (D-structure) and surface structure (S-structure) to provide a theoretical basis for translation studies. It is true that the theory of D- / S-structure is of great importance in analyzing the syntactic structure of sentences in source language and target language. However, in the author's opinion, the function of D- / S-structure cannot be exaggerated in translation study as translation is not just a syntactic process but a combination of many aspects.**

Index Terms—**Chomsky, Syntactic Theory, translation**

I. CHOMSKY AND HIS SYNTACTIC THEORY

Chomsky is one of the most popular linguists in modern linguistic studies. His Transformational-generative Grammar (TG) has a revolutionary influence in this field since he published his first book *Syntactic Structures* in 1957(Chomsky, 1957). In his theory, Chomsky points out that there are two levels of syntactic structure in every sentence. The first is called deep structure or D-structure, which is formed by the XP rule. Deep structure plays an important role in the interpretation of sentences. The second is called surface structure or S-structure, which is formed by applying appropriate transformations for the deep structure of sentence in question. The following figure may explain clearly the relationship between them:

The XP Rule
↓
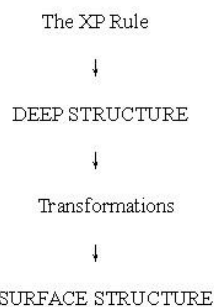DEEP STRUCTURE
↓
Transformations
↓
SURFACE STRUCTURE

Figure 1 Deep Structure and Surface Structure

The XP rules generate an underlying deep structure which is transformed by transformational rules to produce a final surface structure. The surface structure itself is subject to phonological and morphemic rules. We can use tree diagram to analyze the organization and relationship of different components of a sentence. To some structurally ambiguous sentences, two or more deep structures are possible for one surface structure (Gong Xiaobin, 2004).

II. INFLUENCE OF CHOMSKY'S THEORY ON TRANSLATION THEORY

Generally speaking, translation is an activity of expressing something in another language without changing its original meaning. The greatest problem in translation study is the lack of a systematic theory to direct the translation activities. A lot of discussions have been around whether translation is a science or not. If it is a science, then what is the general principle of translation? What is the standard to distinguish good and bad translations? Translators and theorists have long been working for establishing a scientific basis for translation studies. They made great effort from different angles. Linguistics is where they have paid most attention as both linguistics and translations are the study of language. Therefore, as soon as Chomsky's TG theory came into being, scholars have been interested in applying this theory to the scientific research of translation. American translator Eugene Nida is one of the most famous figures in this attempt.

Nida's theory took form in two major works in the 1960s. The first is *Toward a Science of Translating* published in 1964 (Nida, 1964). The second is The *Theory and Practice of Translation*, co-authored with Taber in 1969 (Nida and

Taber, 1969). In his theory, Nida incorporates key features of Chomsky's model into his 'science' of translation. He sees that it provides the translator with a technique to decode the Source Text (ST) and a procedure to encode the Target Text (TT). Thus, the surface structure of the ST is analyzed into the basic elements of the deep structure. These are 'transferred' in the translation process and then restructured semantically and stylistically into the surface structure of the TT (Nida and Taber, 1969). This three-stage system of translation (analysis, transfer and restructuring) is presented in the following figure.
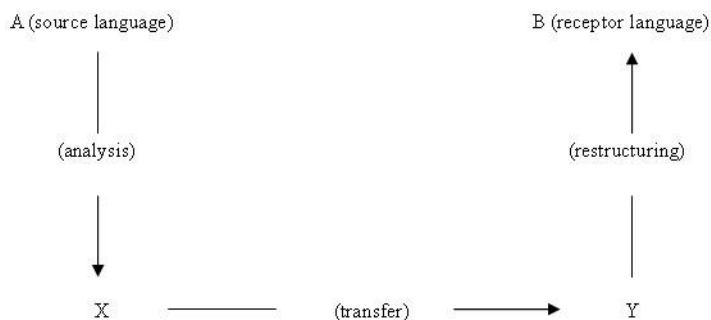
```
A (source language)                        B (receptor language)
       |                                            ↑
       |                                            |
   (analysis)                                 (restructuring)
       |                                            |
       ↓                                            |
       X  ————————  (transfer)  ————————→  Y
```

Figure 2 Nida's Translation Model

It can be seen clearly from the figure that Nida reverses Chomsky's model in the stage of analysis. As Chomsky focuses on the generation of a surface structure through transformation, Nida aims at analyzing the ST surface structure by a reductive process of back-transformation. 'Kernel' is a key term in this model just as kernel sentences were the most basic structural elements in the early works of Chomsky. Kernels are obtained from the ST surface structure by back-transformation analysis. They are the basic elements in deep structure. This involves the four types of functional class in transformational-generative grammar (Jeremy, 2001).

- events (often but not always performed by verbs);
- objects (often but not always performed by nouns);
- abstracts (quantities and qualities, including adjectives);
- relationals (including gender, prepositions and conjunctions).

Nida claims that all languages have about six to a dozen basic kernel structures and they agree more on the level of kernels than on the level of more elaborate structures. Nida's statement is actually under the influence of Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG), which believes that all human languages have a shared system of categories, mechanisms and constraints. It needs to be clarified that UG is not a grammar system that suits every human language, but the mechanism or architecture of all grammars. In a word, it's the grammar of grammars. If the existence of UG can be justified, then the translatability between different languages can be proved scientifically. That is to say, all languages can be transferred in their deep structures because they share the 'kernels'.

III. LIMITATION OF THE SYNTACTIC THEORY IN TRANSLATION

Just as we have mentioned, Chomsky's syntactic theory may help to prove the translatability between human languages. However, in the author's opinion, TG theory alone is not enough to prove that translation as a whole is a science. TG theory or D- / S-structure theory in particular is mainly on the study of syntax. It's true that they help a lot in sentence analysis, especially for some complicated and structurally ambiguous sentences, but many other translation problems cannot be solved only with TG theory.

A. Syntax and Sentence Meaning

Some scholars believe that deep structure is the source of sentence meaning. Some even say that deep structure determines the meaning of sentence and surface structure is the phonological and morphemic expression of deep structure (Lefevere, 1993). However, in the author's opinion, TG theory is mainly on the analysis of sentence structure. It focuses on the rules of the generation and transformation of sentences. Deep structure as a syntactic concept can only determine part of the sentence meaning, the part that is caused by the organization of words or phrases, for example, the subject, object etc. As sentence meaning is also determined by the context, culture or even some psychological factors of speaker, it should not be equaled with the deep structure (van den Broeck, 1978: 40). As for translation study, it's impractical to only depend on kernels in deep structure to transfer the meaning of a sentence. For example, in translating idioms or set phrases, the analysis of deep structure may be helpless. The following example is about translating an English idiom into Chinese.

ST: Someone will have to break the ice.

TT1: 有人一定会把冰敲破的。

TT2: 总得有人先开口说话。

(ST: Source Text, TT: Target Text)

The deep structure of the source text is not difficult to analyze. 'break the ice' is a verbal phrase, and 'ice' is the direct object of verb 'break'. However, does the syntactic analysis provide enough information for translation? Definitely not. If we are English beginners and have little background knowledge of English idioms or cultures, we will most likely translate it as TT1. If we know that 'break the ice' in most cases is a set phrase and means 'break the silence' or 'start to talk', we will certainly make a different translation like TT2. Of course, as we have no context here, we cannot decide which translation, TT1 or TT2, is the correct one. On some special occasion, 'break the ice' may be used as a pun to have both meanings. Anyway, this example is enough to illustrate that syntactic analysis alone is not enough to determine the sentence meaning. Therefore, it's cannot act as the only information source of translation.

B. TG Theory is Insufficient to Prove the Scientificity of Translation

As have been mentioned in part 2, scholars in translation study employ Chomsky's TG theory to try to provide a scientific basis for translation. Eugene Nida uses kernels as the minimum translation units and has proved the translatability between different languages. However, in the author's view, it's far from saying that translation is a science, or translation activity can be conducted in a scientific way. To be a science, it needs at least an objective standard or principle to judge what is right and what is wrong. If according to some scholars, deep structure can serve as the principle, then how can we explain problems in the following pair of sentences?

ST1: She sings beautifully.

TT1:她唱得很美。

ST2: Her singing is beautiful.

TT2: 她的歌声很美。

There seems to be no problem if ST1 is translated to TT1 and ST2 to TT2. According to TG theory, it is clear that ST1 and ST2 have different deep structures because they have different syntactic relationships. Therefore, according to Nida's theory, they should have different deep structures in Chinese respectively, and TT1 is undoubtedly a correct translation of ST1 and TT2 of ST2. However, if we make a small change and translate ST1 into TT2 or ST2 into TT1, will there be a mistake? With common sense, we may find it acceptable as well, or at least, it makes sense. We can hardly say it is a wrong translation. Then, if it is also a correct translation, it means one deep structure in one language may correspond to two or even more different deep structures in another language. How can this be a science?

Somebody may argue that it is because ST1 and ST2 have the same meaning in their deep structures. Then there comes two different deep structures with the same meaning, and we will come back to our discussion in 3.1, that is deep structure or syntax is not the only decisive factor of sentence meaning, or it cannot contain all the factors concerned with meaning. As for translation, TG theory on syntax is not sufficient to serve as the objective principle to distinguish the correct from the wrong. Therefore, the scientificity of translation study is still need to be proved.

IV. PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF TG THEORY IN TRANSLATION

Although presently it is hard to say translation is a science, it doesn't mean there is nothing scientific in translation activity or the application of TG theory in translation study is meaningless. Nowadays, TG theory and some other methods such as corpus technique are widely used in machine translation. Researches are making great effort to imitate the translation process of human being in computers. Though not sufficient to solve all the problems in translation, TG theory and Nida's model are practical in most routine translation activities. To understand it better, it is necessary to distinguish literature translation from non-literature translation in our translation studies. According to Nida (1969), literature translation only accounts for no more than 5% of all translation activities. Compared with literature translation, non-literature translation covers much more fields from politics, economics, legislation to science, technology and many other areas. It has less aesthetic requirement and is more systematic in sentence structure than literature translation. For some less strict non-literature translation tasks, computer may help us a lot and save our time and energy to a great extent. Undoubtedly, the development in linguistics especially in TG theory will provide powerful support for the development of machine translation.

V. CONCLUSION

The translation study is by its nature an interdisciplinary subject. It concerns knowledge of languages, linguistics, communication studies, philosophy and a range of types of cultural studies. The developing history of translation studies is actually a process of looking for a systematic theory for translation activities. However, the diversity in its nature determines the difficulty of this process. From generation to generation, great efforts have been made from different aspects of translation, especially from linguistics. The influence of Chomsky's TG theory to Nida's translation model is a good example of this combination. Of course, as we have analyzed, many translation problems cannot be solved in this model yet, but I'm sure the development in translation studies will soon give us a better answer.

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The Effect of Listening Mode on the Choice of Cognitive Strategies in Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—This paper aimed to investigate the effect of listening mode on the choice of cognitive strategies in listening comprehension. Eighty six intermediate students from Islamic Azad university (Najafabad branch) were administrated the audio-visual and only-audio versions of a test. Scores on the two test modes indicated no significant differences between the two groups. Moreover, this paper tried to see the use of cognitive strategies and tactics between the audio- visual and only-audio groups. The mean frequency of "the strategy inferencing" in only-audio group was 14 which was higher than the audio- visual group while the mean frequency of other strategies was higher in audio-visual group. The results of Chi- square tests for tactics indicate that there is a statistical difference between the two groups in terms of "other surrounding key words" and "information from pictures or the speakers' tactics.

Index Terms—audio-visual, only-audio, cognitive strategies, tactics

I. INTRODUCTION

Understanding and comprehending spoken language is fundamentally an inferential process (Rost, 2002). Listeners apply both linguistic knowledge and world knowledge to create a mental representation of what they have heard (Hulstijn, 2003). For applying these knowledge sources listeners use top-down and bottom-up processes (Lynch & Mendelsohn, 2002; Rost, 2002; Flowerdew & Miller 2005). Listeners favor bottom up process when they construct the meaning from the smallest unit of spoken language to the largest one in a linear mode (Nunan 1998). Thus, learners try to decode a number of sounds to form words, words are joined to form phrases and phrases are joined to make up sentences. These sentences make a complete text, whose meaning is constructed by listeners. Besides grammatical relations, other features such as stress, rhythm and intonation contribute to this data- driving processing (Van Duzer, 1997). Listeners favor top- down processes when they interpret meaning as intended by speakers by means of schemata or structures of knowledge in the mind (Nunan, 1998). Top-down processing highlights the importance of prior knowledge used by learners in comprehension of what they hear. While there is belief that these processes interact in some form of parallel distributed processing (Bechtel & Abrahamsen 1991), the degree of using one process more than the other will depend on purpose for listening, learner characteristics such as level of language proficiency, and the context of the listening event. A listener who is looking for details engage in more bottom-up processing than a listener who is interested in comprehending the main point of a text. The degree of L2 learners' ability in processing spoken language can influence the speed and effectiveness of these processes. (Segalowitz, 2003).

Nowadays videos play an important and common role in teaching listening and its use of video has been recommended in English language teaching for a number of reasons. (McGovern, 1983; Lonergan, 1984; Allan, 1985). As a pedagogical tool, video offers a considerable enhancement over simple audio alone. Some of these benefits relate to context and discourse (Geddes and White, 1978), paralinguistic features (Stempleski and Arcario, 1992), as well as aspects of culture (Phillips, 1995). Altman (1990) suggests that video enhances the listening process because it enables listeners to get clues from what speakers say or may be going to say often before the utterance is heard. Secules et al. (1992) suggest that video gives second language learners this chance to observe the dynamics of interaction as they see native speakers in authentic settings speaking and using different accents, registers, and paralinguistic cues (such as posture, gestures).

In spite of the importance of nonverbal communication in L2 production (e.g., McCafferty, 2002), little research has been done on the effects of visual cues on EFL learners' listening comprehension. Whether visual information generally increases comprehension is still open to doubt. Moreover, Successful listening can be looked at in terms of the strategies the listener makes use of when listening. Does the learner focus mainly on the content of a text, or does he or she also consider how to listen? A focus on how to listen raises the issues of listening strategies. Accordingly, the main objective of this study was to answer the following questions:

1. Are EFL learners better at comprehending audio-visual materials than an only-audio material?
2. Do EFL learners use the same cognitive strategies and sub-strategies for audio-visual listening and only audio listening comprehension?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Definitions for "learning strategies" are filled with much disagreement of exactly what learning strategies are or if they really exist. In the Concise Encyclopedia of Educational Linguistics (1999), Oxford suggests this definition: Learning strategies for second or foreign language learners are "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language" (p. 518).

There is no definite list of learning strategies although hundreds of strategies used by language learners may exist (Oxford, 1996); Different types of learning strategies have been offered in response to different research projects. Macaro (2006) mentioned that the main difficulty in the study of learning strategies centers on a lack of clarity in both definition and classification of learning strategies. Vandergrift, (2003) suggested three types of strategies, metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective. Another very popular and frequently used strategy inventory was developed by Oxford (1990) who proposed six different categories of learning strategies. Oxford used factor analysis to group strategies into the following: Cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social strategies. Macaro (2001) classified strategies on a multi-level continuum with, cognitive strategies at one end and metacognitive/social/affective at the other. In his more recent work, Macaro (2006) preferred to classify learning strategies as either cognitive or metacognitive, claiming that metacognitive subsumes the socio-affective domains. In an attempt to bring many of the categorizations of strategies together, Dörnyei (2006) proposed a typology with four types of strategies:

1) Cognitive strategies, involving the manipulation or transformation of the learning materials/input (e.g., repetition, summarizing, using images).

2) Metacognitive strategies, involving higher-order strategies aimed at analyzing, monitoring, evaluating, planning, and organizing ones' own learning process.

3) Social strategies, involving interpersonal behaviors aimed at increasing the amount of L2 communication and practice the learner undertakes (e.g., initiating interaction with native speakers, cooperating with peers).

4) Affective strategies, involving taking control of the emotional (affective) conditions and experiences that shape one's subjective involvement in learning. (p. 169).

Some research makes the distinction between general and specific strategies. This distinction, however, does not sufficiently differentiate a general strategy from its operationalisation. The term "tactic" is used to refer to individual techniques through which general strategy is operationalised (following Snowman, 1986; Schmeck, 1988). For example, we may say that a strategy such as "inferencing" can be operationalised through tactics such as "other surrounding key words, experience and knowledge about the topic, knowledge about the English language, information from pictures or speaker's expression and knowledge about the situation.

Asking learners what strategies they are using or have just used and observing learners to determine what they are doing at any given time are the methods for assessing strategy use which provide useful feedback. (Macaro, 2001). These methods are the prevalent ones used in recent research studies and the best way invented to date (Chamot, 2005).

Research on the mode of input for listening assessment is getting more attention with the increased availability of multimedia and digital technology. Test developers are interested in discovering the relevance and usefulness of visual support in the assessment of L2 listening. Coniam (2001)) did a case study in which a group of pre-service and in-service English language teachers were administered audio and video versions of the same test. Scores on the two test modes showed no significant differences between the two groups. Further, although some of the test takers from the audio test-taking group said they would have preferred to have taken the test via video, the video test-taking group felt that not only had they gained no advantage from the video mode, they felt they might have done better had they not been distracted by the visual images, and by having to look up and down from question paper to screen. In contrast to the listeners in the Coniam's study, the listeners in Wagner's study (2007) supported the use of videotext in listening assessment and did not find video distracting. Similar findings were reported by Feak & Salehzadeh (2001) concerning the development and validation of a listening placement test using video. Ginther (2002) investigated the relative effect of two kinds of visuals on the comprehension of mini-talks in the computerized TOEFL test. Content visuals (pictures related to the actual content of the verbal exchange) slightly enhanced comprehension; however, context visuals (pictures that set the scene for the upcoming verbal exchange) were found to be less useful. Tina Lynn Ware (1999) did a research titled "a comparison of audio- only versus audio – visual second language instruction in first year university-level Spanish". In her study, she tried to investigate whether the traditionally used audio-only or the more modern audio- visual language learning laboratory activities would be more effective in helping students build skills in listening comprehension, reading comprehension and listening /reading comprehension in Spanish. The results of the study demonstrated that there was no significant difference between the two groups in listening comprehension. Lund, 1990; Chung, 1994; Secudes, Herron, Tomasello& Meunier-Cinko 1992 found that students who used the French in Action video tapes had higher test scores in the area of listening comprehension and with the questions that involved main ideas, details, and inferences than had those who did not use the videos.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Initially 120 sophomore students from Najafabad Islamic Azada University majoring in TEFL were selected for this study. All the participants took part in an Oxford Placement Test. Those students who scored one standard deviation

below and one standard deviation above the mean were selected for the main study. Only 86 students at the intermediate level of language proficiency were selected. Of these 86 students who were at different age levels, 50 students were female and 16 were male.

B. Materials

Oxford Placement Test: This test has two subtests. The first subtest is a listening test with 100 items. Each item has two choices and students were asked to tick the word they hear. The second subtest is a grammar test including 100 items each having three choices for each item. The test naturally starts with some examples which help students to do the test.

"How Do You Do" video and cassette: Initially several educational movies which were available in the market were selected. After talking to the instructors of the course, the decision was made to choose "How Do You Do" because some instructors had already provided their students with the other two movies in their classes so students were familiar with two of them and they could not be used. Moreover, some of movies were too short or too long and some of them were difficult in administrating. Finally, according to the instructors' suggestions, ease of administration and appropriateness, "How Do You Do" was chosen. In this movie, Dr Frankie Stone and her robot invention, CHIPS, can help newcomers learn English or improve their ability in learning English. "How Do You Do" movie has 24 sections and each section focuses on a theme (such as, food, clothing, employment) and consists of segments that provide documentary information, vocabulary, interviews with English speakers from many cultures and ideas for applying the material learned. In this study, section 'Workplace' (22) was randomly chosen in which CHIPS learns about working conditions, employee benefits, and how to read a pay check.

Questionnaire: To collect information concerning the type of cognitive strategies used by EFL learners, the participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire. This questionnaire was a modified version of Goh's (2002) TELL (Techniques for Learning to Listen) questionnaire.

C. Procedures

All the materials including OPT test, "How Do You Do" comprehension questions, and questionnaire were piloted before the main study. The pilot study subjects were all sophomore students majoring in TEFL in Islamic Azad University (Najafabad branch). The aim of piloting OPT was to know about the instructions of the test, that is, whether they are clear or need a pre- explanation before test implementation. The purpose for piloting "How Do You Do" comprehension questions was to check both the stem and the choices. Before watching the movie or listening to the cassette, the subjects were allowed to look at the questions and ask wherever they could not understand. Then, they were asked to answer the questions while they were watching or listening to "How Do You Do". After collecting the data, item facility and item difficulty of each question was calculated and too easy and too difficult items were removed and new items were replaced. Moreover, the adopted Goh's questionnaire was administered and piloted. It was translated in to the participants' native language and subjects were allowed to ask any question during the filling of the questionnaire.

For the main study, 120 sophomore students majoring in TEFL in Najafabad Islamic Azad University were administered OPT. This test includes two parts. The first part consists of 100 listening questions which have two choices. Students were asked to listen and tick the word they hear. The tape was neither stopped nor repeated. It took 10 minutes to finish this section. The second section is the grammar section which includes 100 items with three choices. Students completed this part of test in fifty minuets and they simply answered by ticking the boxes. By referring to OPT scores, 86 intermediate students were selected for "How Do You Do" test. Students were randomly divided in to two groups of 43 each. The first group was provided with an only audio Cassette of "How Do You Do" and the second group was provided with an audio- visual tape of the movie. Then both groups were asked to answer 20 multiple-choice comprehension questions while they were listening or watching "How Do You Do". After finishing this part, they were given the questionnaire to choose among those 18 cognitive strategies and tactics when they were listening or watching. These two parts took about 45 minutes.

IV. RESULTS

The first research hypothesis was: "There is no difference between the students' comprehension of the audio-visual materials and only- audio materials."

In order to investigate the after-mentioned hypothesis, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare "How Do You Do" listening scores for audio- visual and only audio group. The descriptive statistics of the scores are shown in table 1:

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR AUDIO-VISUAL AND ONLY AUDIO GROUPS

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Audio-visual	43	12.6279	3.57254	0.54481
Only -audio	43	11.2558	4.00650	0.61099

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR AUDIO-VISUAL AND ONLY AUDIO GROUPS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
score	Equal variances assumed	.439	.510	1.676	84	.097
	Equal variances not assumed			1.676	82.920	.097

The result indicates that there was no statistically significant difference between the performances of the audio-visual ($\underline{M}$=12.62, $\underline{SD}$=3.57) or only audio ($\underline{M}$=11.25, $\underline{SD}$=4) groups regarding "How Do You Do" listening comprehension scores.

The second research hypothesis was: "There is no difference between the cognitive strategies and tactics that EFL learners use for audio-visual and onl audio materials in listening comprehension".

In order to test the second hypothesis, the mean frequency scores of five strategies (inferencing, prediction, translation, visualization, fixation, and contextualization) which were used by both groups were calculated. The results are shown in the following figures:

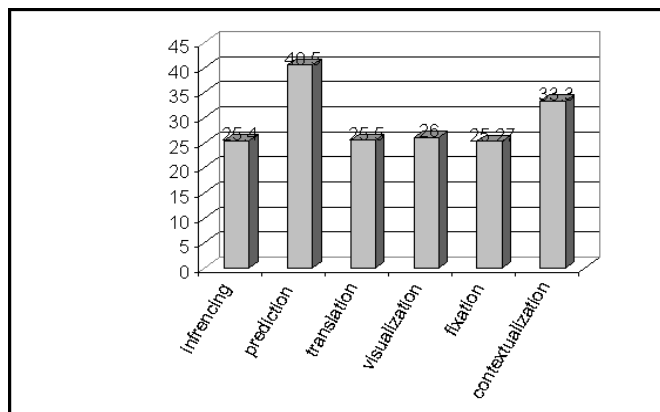Figure 1. The mean frequency of cognitive strategies used by EFL learners in audio visual and audio groups

As figure 1 shows, "prediction (with the mean frequency of 40.5) and contextualization (with the mean frequency of 33.3) were the cognitive strategies which had the highest mean frequency and had been used by most of the participants.
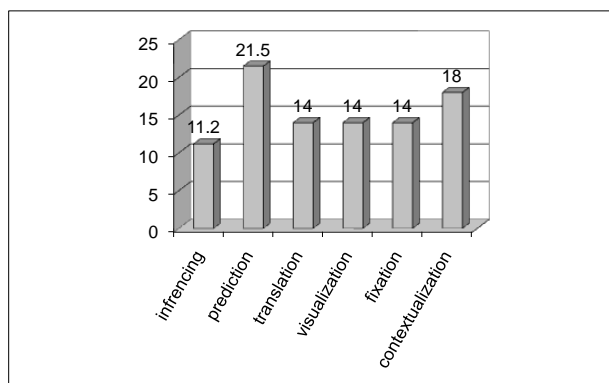

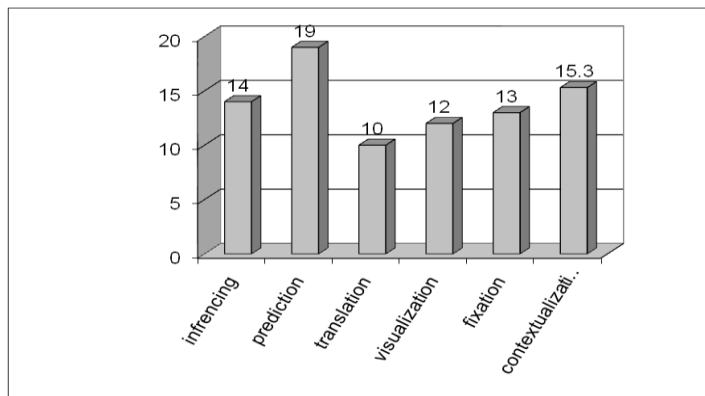Figure 2. The mean frequency of strategies for audio-visual group

Figure 3. The mean frequency of strategies for audio group

According to the mean frequency of cognitive strategies which are shown individually in figures 2 and 3, the audio visual group used prediction (21.50), translation (14), visualization (14), fixation (14) and contextualization (18) strategies more than the audio group. However, the audio group used inferencing (14) strategy more than the audio visual group.

In order to see the difference between the two groups in terms of tactics, a Chi- square test was run for each tactic. The results of two tactics which were statistically significant are shown in tables 3 and 4:

TABLE 3:
CHI- SQUARE TEST FOR THE FIRST TACTIC IN BOTH GROUPS.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.878[b]	1	.005		
Continuity Correction[a]	6.712	1	.010		
Likelihood Ratio	8.004	1	.005		
Fisher's Exact Test				.009	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.786	1	.005		
N of Valid Cases	86				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.50.

The first tactic was "other surrounding key words". According to table 3 the significant value is 0.005 which is smaller than 0.05. Thus, it is statistically significant.

TABLE 4:
CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR THE FOURTH TACTIC IN BOTH GROUPS.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.568[b]	1	.033		
Continuity Correction[a]	3.609	1	.057		
Likelihood Ratio	4.647	1	.031		
Fisher's Exact Test				.056	.028
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.515	1	.034		
N of Valid Cases	86				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.50.

The fourth tactic was "information from pictures or the speakers' expressions". According to the findings in table 4 the significant value is 0.03 which is smaller that 0.05. So, there is a statistically significant difference between these two groups regarding this tactic.

TABLE 5:
PERCENTAGE OF PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES FOR EIGHTEEN TACTICS IN BOTH GROUPS

Tactics	Audio-visual	Only-audio	Total
Tactic 1	37.2%	67.4%	52.3%
Tactic 2	16.3%	25.6%	20.9%
Tactic 3	16.3%	18.6%	17.4%
Tactic 4	39.5%	18.6%	29.1%
Tactic 5	20.9%	32.6%	26.7%
Tactic 6	23.3%	11.6%	17.4%
Tactic 7	76.7%	76.7%	76.6%
Tactic 8	44.2%	41.9%	43.0%
Tactic 9	20.9%	11.6%	16.3%
Tactic 10	60.5%	46.5%	53.5%
Tactic 11	4.7%	9.3%	7.0%
Tactic 12	0%	2.3%	1.2%
Tactic 13	46.5%	34.9%	40.7%
Tactic14	7.0%	2.3%	4.7%
Tactic 15	65.1%	81.4%	73.3%
Tactic 16	51.2 %	51.2%	51.2%
Tactic 17	34.9 %	23.3%	29.1%
Tactic 18	39.5 %	32.6%	36.0%

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of listening mode on the choice of cognitive strategies in listening comprehension. The first question addressed the difference between the audio–visual and the only-audio material. In response to this question, a t-test was used to analyze the data. The results showed no statistically significant difference between the audio- visual and the only -audio groups.

The finding of this research is in line with Tina Lynn Ware (1999) and Coniam's (2001) findings. Tina Lynn Ware and Coniam did not come across any statistical significant difference between the scores in the audio visual and the only -audio groups.

The researches that have been done in listening comprehension and strategy use are mostly in the area of meta-cognitive strategies and there is not enough research in the area of cognitive strategies. This study tried to discover the cognitive strategies that learners use in different mode of listening comprehension.

As it is shown in figure1, prediction and contextualization were the most frequent strategies which were used by most of the participants. In terms of tactics, 76% of the participants used tactic 7: "I use what I have heard to guess what the next part is".

"Memorizing the pronunciation to check the meaning later" (tactic number 15: 73.3 %), imagining a picture of what they hear (tactic number 10: 53.5 %), other surrounding key words (tactic number 1: 52.3 %) and placing input in a social or linguistic context (tactic number 16: 51.2 %) were the tactics which had respectively the highest level of use.

Goh (2002) did a research titled "Learners' self report on comprehension and learning strategies for listening". The result of Goh's Study showed that inferencing and contextualization strategies had the highest level of use. More than 75% of his respondents used Visual clues, contextual clues and familiar context words to help them bridge gaps in their understanding. In Goh's study, inferencing and contextualization were the most frequent cognitive strategies while in this research study, prediction and contextualization were the two most frequent strategies used by participants of the two groups.The result of this study was some how in agreement with Goh's study. Contextualization was one of the most frequent strategies used by the majority of Chinese and Iranian Learners. As Skehan (1998) pointed out, learners who lack knowledge of the target language will most likely use their "schematic and contextual knowledge to overcome their systematic limitations." (p. 15).

In terms of differences between the two groups in tactics, as figures 2 and 3 show, the audio group used inferencing strategy more than audio- visual group while visualization, fixation, translation and contextualization were the strategies more frequently used in the audio-visual group. Moreover, there is statistical significant difference between the two groups in using these two tactics: "using other surrounding words" and "information from the pictures or the speakers' expression."

VI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study aimed to discover the influence of listening mode on the choice of cognitive strategies in listening comprehension. The findings indicate that there is no significant difference between the audio-visual and the only audio materials. The findings imply that teachers should provide their students with both the audio- visual and the only audio materials in their laboratory courses to help their students increase their listening comprehension in foreign or second language in different modes. Each mode has its own characteristics. For example, in audio-visual materials there is a combination of pictures, sound and text and students can fill the incomprehensible parts through available pictures

moreover, it assists teachers to bring the outside world to the class. Providing learners with the only audio materials increases learners' concentration as there is no picture to distract learners' attention.

The results obtained from the Techniques for Learning to Listen Questionnaire (TELL) responses in cognitive strategies and tactics can be valuable and practical in teaching. Students can use the TELL for self-evaluation purposes to discover their current level of cognitive awareness. Moreover, the TELL can be specifically useful to positively affect students' attitudes and their perceptions of the listening process so that they can become skilled listeners who manage their own cognitive comprehension processes automatically.

The TELL can also be used as consciousness-raising tool for teachers. Teachers can discover the most frequent used cognitive strategies by administrating TELL to all the students. When teachers discover, for example, that the class as a whole is under using a particular strategy or set of strategies (such as prediction or inferencing), instruction can be adjusted to place greater emphasis on predicting or using available information to guess meaning of new items before beginning a listening task and teachers find this chance to teach cognitive strategies explicitly. Therefore, explicit teaching of strategies in different modes can help students to overcome their difficulties in listening comprehension and it can raises students' awareness of the process of listening.

APPENDIX A TECHNIQUES FOR LEARNING TO LISTEN QUESTIONNAIRE (TELL) (GOH 2002)

Inferencing (When I do not understand something, I guess the meaning by using the following)
1. other surrounding key words
2. experience and knowledge about the topic
3. knowledge about the English language
4. information fro pictures or the speaker's expression
5. knowledge about the situation
Prediction (I do this to help my comprehension)
6. Before I hear anything, I try to guess what will be said
7. I use what I have just heard to guess what the next part is
Translation (Before trying to understand everything)
8. I first translate some difficult words in to my mother tongue
9. I first translate the whole sentence in to my mother tongue
Visualization (When I am listening)
10: I imagine a picture of what I hear
11. I picture in my mind the spelling of some words
Fixation (When I hear words I do not recognize)
12. I stop to think about the spelling of unfamiliar words
13. I try to repeat the sound of unfamiliar words
14. I stop to think hard what unfamiliar words mean
15. I try to memorize the pronunciation so as to check the meaning later
Contextualization (I do this to help my comprehension)
16. when I hear something new, I think about the other information related to it
17. I relate what I hear to other things the speaker has just said
18. I use my experience and knowledge to expand the meaning of what I get

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Promoting University English Majors' Learner Autonomy in the Chinese Context

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Abstract—**According to a survey conducted among some local colleges and universities, the author found that the current English teaching in Chinese colleges and universities is mostly "teacher-centered". The "teacher-centered" teaching mode poses problems to students, especially to their learner autonomy. The students may see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by themselves. They, therefore, are less autonomous, more dependent on authority figure. It reduces the student from an autonomous learner, creative and critical thinker, as they should be, to a mechanical recipient of knowledge. Not only is this result at odds with our country's educational goal, but it will hamper students' improvement in the long run. There is saying that learner autonomy is not suitable to the Chinese context. This paper mainly discusses one question—Is it really true that learner autonomy is not suitable to the Chinese context and gives a negtive answer to this question from theoretical element and data analysis.**

Index Terms—**teacher-centered teaching mode, learner autonomy, Chinese context**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching has developed so quickly and the main stream is from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness. With the main stream, the concept of "learner autonomy" has been raised. In other words, there is growing interest in defining how learners themselves make conscious efforts in mastering a foreign language. In China, to help a language learner become autonomous one is one of the leading educational goals.

On the one hand, Chinese learners lack the ability of learner autonomy; on the other hand, there is saying that learner autonomy is not suitable to the Chinese context. This paper mainly researches this question: Is it really true that learner autonomy is unsuited to the Chinese context?

II. CURRENT "TEACHER-CENTERED" MODE IN CHINESE LANGUAGE CLASSES

This chapter begins with a survey, according to which problems of current language teaching in China have been found. Analyzing causes of this teacher-centered teaching mode, the author raised the hypothesis of promoting learner autonomy in the Chinese cultural context.

A. A Survey

This survey was carried out among a hundred and fifty university English majors. Among the students investigated, sixty from Liao Ning Normal University, forty from Northeastern Finance and Economics University, thirty from Da Lian Maritime University and the rest from other local universities.

One same question was designed for these students: "What's the percentage of the teacher's prelection in class?"

Table 1 shows the result with the university students.

TABLE 1

Items	Number of the students	Total number	Percentage
21-40%	7	150	4.7%
41-60%	32	150	21.3%
61-80%	69	150	46%
Over80%	42	150	28%

In this table, "Item" in the first column lists the percentage of teacher's prelection during a comprehensive period. "Number of the students" in the second column refers to the respective number of the students who chose the percentage in the same row. "Total number" in the third column is the total number of students investigated. "Percentage" in the fourth column lists the respective statistical percentage of the students who chose the corresponding prelection percentage.

It can be easily seen from the table that at present, English teaching in Chinese colleges and universities is mostly "teacher-centered". The students admit that although there are some language activities in class, the teacher's prelection takes the most of the time.

B. Problems of the Teacher-centered Teaching Mode

This teacher-centered teaching style is often based on the assumption that the teacher is the "knower" and has the task of passing over this knowledge to the students. It is sometimes characterized as "jug and mug"—the knowledge being poured from one receptacle into another empty one. This is probably done mainly by teacher explanations with occasional questions to or from the learners. There seems to be an assumption that having something explained or demonstrated to you will lead to learning. After these explanations, the students will often do some practice exercises to test whether they have understood what they have been told. Throughout the lesson the teacher keeps controls of the subject matter, makes decisions about what work is needed and orchestrates what the students do. In this kind of classroom, the teacher probably does most of the talking and is by far the most active person. Gradually, both the teacher and students will get used to this teaching mode and the students, ultimately, tend to rely on the teacher solely. For example, in class, since the teacher explains either the grammar or the content of the text for most of the time, students get used to it and regard it as the teacher's responsibility to tell and explain everything. When the teacher occasionally asks questions, those need either profound thinking or very simple ones. Many students, instead of exerting their brains thinking, just sit and wait for the easy answers from the teacher or other students. Few students take the risks to express their own opinions and doubts. The process is rather mechanical, and the classroom atmosphere is dull and tense. On the whole, students' oral proficiency is rather weak and they lack motivation, or authority in learning.

So most students see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners. They regard the teacher as the authority and are disturbed if this does not happen.

But the question is: If they have the teacher as their authority at school, what if the class is over? What if they graduate from the school?

Obviously, the learning of a foreign language is not completed upon graduation, but is a life-long process. If the learner has got used to the teacher-centered mode at school, where the teacher gives instructions and arranges everything for him, he may feel frustrated without the presence of a teacher, he may even feel confused at what and how he should learn, such a learner is unlikely to succeed in his future improvement.

Therefore, the teacher-centered method cannot serve as a satisfactory way to achieve the teaching goal. Rather than facilitate student's learning, it reduces the learner from an autonomous learner, a creative and critical thinker, who they are supposed to be, to a mechanical recipient of knowledge. Not only is this result at odds with our country's educational goal, but it will hamper students' improvement of language and take its toll on their learning process because of a want of autonomy. In view of the defects brought about by the teacher-centered method, a new method must be called upon to solve, at least ameliorate, the current problems of Chinese English teaching and promote learner autonomy.

C.   Hypothesis of Promoting Learner Autonomy in the Chinese Context

Based on the above discussion, i.e. the negative aspects of China's English education, the importance of learner autonomy for language learners which we will discuss in detail in the following parts, the author presents the hypothesis of promoting university English majors' learner autonomy in the Chinese context, with the aim of helping them know how to "fish" for their whole lifetime. In that case, even if the class is over, if they graduate from school, the language learners in China will still do a good job all by themselves, i.e. from teacher dependence to autonomy. And also they are likely to succeed in their future improvement.

III.   THE SIGNIFICANCE OF AUTONOMY

The importance of autonomy is sometimes explained in terms of a positive relation between present and future learning. Learners who accept responsibility for their learning are more likely to form a virtuous circle to achieve their learning targets. When they achieve their learning targets, they are more likely to maintain a positive attitude to learning in the future. If not properly trained in the capacity to learn for themselves, students have little incentive to undertake learning outside their studies (Lee, 1998). In school, Chinese students tend to demand more direct input from teachers as to what to be learned, what to be done. They show a strong belief in the importance of repetition, memorization and systematic error correction, which is a ubiquitous phenomenon in the Chinese educational system. This kind of passive learning attitude makes learners ill-adapted to the learning environment further up the education ladder or when they have to depend on themselves for individual pursuit of language use outside the classroom. So it has never been more significant to advocate autonomy at the college level. Both teachers and students should be aware of the goal of language education, that is, to develop student autonomy in learning. Language learning, as Thomson (1996) puts it, is "a lifelong endeavor". But, for anyone to be capable of learning life-long, he/she has to be an autonomous learner first, which means that he/she should develop the capacity to learn independently if there is not a teacher around. That's why it is important for students to become aware of its value, to acquire the habit of learning continuously, and maintain it after they have completed their formal studies.

A.   Social Demand

We foster and promote the goal of language education--learner autonomy because of two demands--social and personal--set on learners when they step into society. On the one hand, it is specified in the College English Teaching Syllabus (1999) that students should become autonomous learners with the help of teachers to cultivate language sense,

to acquire good language learning methods and to improve their self-learning abilities. On the other hand, it is the requirement of the world we live in today, which needs new knowledge constantly rather than the ability to repeat old knowledge. In a time when the world is undergoing amazingly fast changes in the field of culture, economy, science and technology, new things keep coming up. If one does not keep abreast with the development of society by continuing learning upon completion of his/her formal education, he/she will surely be left behind. In this world of changes, the successful learner is increasingly seen as a person who is able to construct knowledge directly from experience of the world, rather than one who responds well to class instruction. Thus there are needs for people to learn skills to deal with the globalization and mobility of economic and political life with evident implications for language learning. In addition, with our country's opening policy to the outside world, and its entry into the WTO, people have an ever-growing demand to learn about foreign languages and cultures either in their daily life or in their work. Rogers (1983) states the needs boldly: "The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security." And it is because of these demands in society that a learner must develop the capacity.

B.   Personal Demand

Besides social demands, there is the demand for personal and career development. Independent learning at university is preparation for learning after university. Since a one-time "dose" of study skills in educational institutions will not serve the learner for life, he/she needs to experience new things and learn constantly to perfect himself/herself, for example, further education abroad, job promotion, migration and tourism, etc. It is thus necessary for people to have a parallel development in specialist skills together with new patterns of work and life. So if the learner has the growing awareness of learning by himself or herself when the teacher is not around, he/she will be better qualified on the job or as a social being. For example, if someone ventures to invest in shares, he/she will need to find out what he/she needs to learn first (needs analysis), plans what to learn (planning), studies the stock market and the causes of rises and falls in share prices (studying), then practices by buying and selling shares, then reviews his/her performances and the profit or loss (monitoring), and finally decides what to learn next to improve his/her performance (further planning). This is exactly what an autonomous learner does as he/she is learning in school. He/she can transfer this ability to study to learning new things. Those empowered with this capacity to take charge of his/her own learning will turn out to be a well-organized, self-managing learner and a highly efficient person. Therefore, whatever work they will do in future, they are likely to succeed in their lifelong learning process and bound to refine themselves in the overall quality required both internally and externally.

IV.   PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY IN THE CHINESE CULTURAL CONTEXT

A.   Theoretical Element

Learner autonomy is not restricted to the Western context and is also suitable to the Chinese cultural context because of its internationality. The following parts back this point from the aspect of theory.

1. Autonomy: in Search of a Culture-free Definition

As what the paper discussed above, many researchers have defined learner autonomy in different aspects. The concept of autonomy has associations with independence, self-fulfillment, freedom from external constraints and authoring one's own world without being subject to the will of others. It is primarily these associations which have caused many writers to suggest that autonomy may have little relevance outside the "individualistic" Western contexts in which it first rose to prominence.

Actually, if people define autonomy in educational terms as involving students "capacity to use their learning independently of teachers, this is a culture-free definition for autonomy. And from it, autonomy would appear to be an incontrovertible goal for learners everywhere, since it is obvious that no students, anywhere, will have their teachers to accompany them throughout life. If people take autonomy to include not only autonomy as a communicator but also autonomy as a learner, it seems uncontroversial to say that the demands of a changing world will impose on learners of all cultures the need to learn without the help of teachers. Indeed, the need for students to develop greater capacity to think independently and ask questions rather than conform is one of the most frequent messages heard in keynote papers at conferences in East Asia (e.g. Gandart 1997 in Malaysia; Kirtikara 1996 in Thailand). And as one part of East Asia, China is of course beyond the exception.

2. The Nature of Learners

From the part of the desirability of learner autonomy, learners are intelligent, fully functioning humans, not simply receptacles for passed-on knowledge. So learning is not simply a one-dimensional intellectual activity, but involves the whole person. There is a key phrase here—the whole person.

Recent approaches in EFL have increasingly acknowledged the importance of the "whole person" in the learner (as opposed to only their mental processes such as thinking, remembering, analyzing, etc). Teachers can no longer be content with the image of the student as a blank slate. Students may bring pen and paper to the lesson. But they also bring a whole range of others, less visible things to the class: their needs, their wishes, their life experience, their home background, their memories, their worries, their day so far, their dreams, their anger, their toothache, their fears, their moods, etc. Given the opportunities, they will be able to make important decisions for themselves, to take responsibility

for their learning and to move forward. So does it seem different that learners in all learning cultural contexts (western concept as well as eastern concept) share the same characteristic as a "whole person"? So from this point, autonomy in language learning is also suited to the Chinese context.

3. Conclusion

There appears to be little evidence that autonomy is "more appropriate" in some cultures or "unsuitable" for other cultures. Rather, the requirement to take into account the specific backgrounds of teachers and learners is common to all teaching-learning settings. Although the eastern and western learners come from different ideological and pedagogical backgrounds, underlying both sets of value systems are strong similarities. These are the importance of creating self-esteem and self-reliance, cooperation, freedom of choice and mutual respect of the individual.

B.   Research Design of Applicability of Learner Autonomy in the Chinese Cultural Context

People may acquire a clearer idea about the question that whether Chinese students are passive learners, unwilling to manage their own learning and believing in rote way of language learning only in Chinese learning culture by a rough study.

1. Subjects

The same subjects are selected randomly among university English majors from Liao Ning Normal University, Northeast Finance and Economics University, Da Lian Maritime University and other local universities. Among them, 25 had passed Graded Test for English Majors-8 (TEM-8), 54 had passed TEM-4. Among the rest who hadn't yet passed TEM-4, 39 had passed College English Test-6 (CET-6) and 32 had passed CET-4.

2. Instruments

The instrument used in the study was one questionnaire. The English Learner Belief Questionnaire consists of two parts (Appendix I provides a description of the Learner Belief Questionnaire). Part A concerns personal details (including name, sex, grade, date of birth and personal English proficiency). Part B consists of statements of beliefs about language learning. The students indicated their opinions in terms of a five-point scale from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree".

In the process of designing the items in the questionnaire, Chinese cultural factors were taken into fully consideration. Two questionnaires were taken as reference. There are Wen Qiufang's *The Learner Strategy Questionnaire* (1995) and Littlewood's *East Asian Students' Autonomy Questionnaire* (1999).

3. Data Collection and Data Analysis

The author let classmates from different universities in Da Lian make subjects answer the English Learner Belief Questionnaire. The response rate was 100 percent. There are altogether 6 variables listed in Table 2, all with multiple indicators. The alpha value indicates the internal consistency within the multiple items.

4. Discussion of Findings (Chinese students' English Learning Beliefs)

TABLE 2
THE ALPHA VALUE OF STUDENTS' LEARNING BELIEF

Variable Names	Alpha Value
Management Belief	0.58
Cooperative Belief	0.42
Form-focused Belief	0.49
Meaning-focused Belief	0.69
Vocabulary Belief	0.55
Tolerating-ambiguity Belief	0.53

5. Conclusion

By investigating Chinese university English majors' English learning belief, two basic facts about Chinese students learning behaviors related to Chinese learning culture have been demonstrated. The first is that Chinese students do not wish to be passive language learners. Instead, they strongly desire to take charge of their own language learning. They have firm beliefs in managing their own learning. So there is a need for us to reconcile ideas about the influence of Chinese culture with the recognition individual differences of Chinese students, as what have discussed in theoretical sheet. Although Chinese students are brought up under Chinese culture, which does not mean that they have been passively moulded by it or that all individuals will conform to the common pattern. The second is that Chinese traditional ways of language learning are as important as, if not more important than, untraditional ones in the Chinese context where there is no English-speaking community. The findings have significant implications to English teaching in the Chinese context.

V.   CONCLUSION

This paper mainly concerns about promoting learner autonomy in the Chinese cultural context. Analyzing theoretical element and collection of data, this paper proves that learner autonomy is also suitable to the Chinese cultural context.

The author presents the hypothesis of promoting university English majors' learner autonomy in the Chinese context, with the aim of helping them know how to "fish" for their whole lifetime.

APPENDIX THE ENGLISH LEARNER BELIEF QUESTIONNAIRE

Part A: Personal Details
Name: __   Sex:__   Grade:__   Date of birth:__
Your present English proficiency: _Below CET-4   _CET-4   _CET-6   _TEM-4

Part B: Beliefs about language learning
Below are beliefs that some people have about learning a foreign language. Read each statement and then decide if you:
  1=strongly disagree
  2=disagree
  3=neither agree nor disagree
  4=agree
  5=strongly agree

There are no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your opinions. Please according to the meaning represented by each number, choose and write down one number in the bracket at the end of each sentence.
  Remember: the number you choose must represent your true opinions.
  1. English knowledge is something to be "transmitted" by the teacher rather than "discovered" by the learner. (   )
  2. Teachers, rather than learners themselves, are responsible for evaluating how well learner learn English. (   )
  3. Students can learn English well simply by following teachers' instructions. (   )
  4. It's important for students to set short-term and long-term goals in order to learn English well. (   )
  5. It's important for students to evaluate their progress and find out their problems in learning English in order to learn it well. (   )
  6. It's important to study in groups in order to learn English well. (   )
  7. Students can learn English better by studying alone than by working with others. (   )
  8. Individual learners should pay attention to the whole group's opinions and attitude when forming their own ones. (   )
  9. It's important to support group goals and expectations. (   )
  10. Memorizing sentence patterns is important for English study. (   )

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English Language Teachers' Knowledge and their Self-efficacy

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Abstract—**The present research aims at exploring the relationship between novice English teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy. A teacher knowledge test and an efficacy questionnaire were administered to 55 novice English teachers. The data were gathered from male and female novice teachers teaching at language institutes in Tehran with ages between 20 and 25. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between English Teachers Knowledge Test (TKT) and their self-efficacy. The results are discussed in the light of previous findings.**

Index Terms—**teacher knowledge, self-efficacy, novice teachers**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the field of English teaching, teacher's knowledge is a neglected construct (Freeman, 2002). The study of teacher knowledge is nearly two decades old, and the nature and development of that knowledge, according to Munby et al. (2001), is only beginning to be understood by researchers in teaching and teacher education. Although teacher's knowledge has been the subject of debates since Dewey (1944), defining teacher's knowledge is still a difficult task because of the different aspects it embraces. Concerning the importance of teachers' knowledge, researchers have found that there is a high correlation between what teachers know and what they teach (Wilson et al., 1987). The contention is that the ability to teach effectively depends on the teachers' knowledge, and that teacher effectiveness is impeded if the teacher is unfamiliar with the body of knowledge taught.

The current view is that the way teachers teach is not only affected by the training they have received, it is also a result of an interaction among received, personal, experiential, and local types knowledge (Mann, 2005, p. 106). Researchers (e.g. Freeman, 2002; Mullock, 2006) have thought of teachers' actions in the classroom as grounded in some form of thinking which is shaped by teachers' knowledge, attitudes, and values. Hence, research into the nature of teachers' knowledge needs to investigate many facets of teacher thinking and beliefs.

While numerous studies have investigated the knowledge of L1 teachers (e.g., Hillocks, 1999), not much research has been conducted in the area of EFL teacher knowledge (see, however, Day, 1993; Andrews, 2003). The present study aims at bridging a part of this gap by investigating the relationship between English teachers knowledge and teacher self-efficacy as well as the relationship between the modules of English teachers' knowledge and the components of teachers' self-efficacy.

Evidence points to powerful effects of teachers' sense of efficacy concerning their instructional activities as well as student attitudes and achievements (Atay, 2007). The construct of teacher efficacy was derived from Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (1977) and is defined as ''the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context'' (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 22). A teacher's sense of efficacy has been found to be associated with student characteristics such as motivation, achievement, and efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Many studies have demonstrated the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their instructional behaviors (e.g., Pajares, 1992). To the best of the researchrs' knowledge, much research has been conducted on teacher knowledge (e.g., Shulman 1987) and on self-efficacy (e.g., Ross, 1994; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), but little has been carried out on the relationship between these two constructs. Thus, the main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between teacher knowledge and teacher self-efficacy.

II. THE CURRENT STUDY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 55 novice English teachers teaching at language institutes in Tehran. They were male and female with ages between 20 and 25. The participants were guaranteed anonymity and received credit of some sort at their workplace. The criterion for selecting novice teachers was six months of teaching experience or less.

B. Instruments

In this study, a questionnaire, i.e., the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and a teacher knowledge test, i.e., the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) developed by Cambridge ESOL were used. The items in the questionnaire were answered on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (i.e., nothing) to 9 (i.e., a great deal). In the following section, these two instruments are introduced in more details.

Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)

The Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) is a test for teachers developed by Cambridge ESOL, a department in the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES). The TKT consists of three modules. The first module which consists of three parts addresses language and background to learning and teaching. Part 1 of Module 1 tests respondents' knowledge of terms common in ELT. Part 2 of Module 1 tests their knowledge of factors basic to the learning of English by speakers of other languages. Part 3 of Module 1 tests respondents' knowledge of the range, function and appropriacy of the pedagogic choices available to the teacher to account for learner differences and the differences between L1 and L2 learning.

Module 2 which consists of two parts is related to planning lessons and using resources for language teaching. Although the TKT does not assume that respondents have knowledge of any particular book, it focuses on what teachers consider and do while planning their teaching of a lesson. It also assesses respondents' knowledge of how to employ resources, materials and aids in their lesson planning, how to translate teaching aims into lessons or series of lessons, how to sequence activities within lessons in a manner appropriate to particular groups of students, and how to select appropriate assessment activities.

Finally, Module 3 which consists of two parts is related to managing the teaching and learning process and focuses on what happens in the classroom in terms of the language used in it by the teacher or learners, and the teacher's ability to manage and make the most out of classroom language and interaction. This module assesses respondents' understanding of the functions of classroom language, adapting teacher language with regard to learner characteristics and learning purpose, and recognition of learner error. It also tests teachers' knowledge of the range and function of the strategies available to them for effectively managing classes. Table 1 below presents the outline of TKT.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTION AND CONTENT OF TKT

Module	Description	Content	Timing
1	Language and background to language learning and teaching	Describing language and language skills	80 minutes
		Background to language learning	
		Background to language teaching	
2	Lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching	Planning and preparing a lesson or sequence of lessons	80 minutes
		Selection and use of resources and materials	
3	Managing the teaching and learning process	Teachers' and learners' language in the classroom	80 minutes
		Classroom management	

Teacher Self-efficacy Scale

The scale used in the present study is the short version of the TSES (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) adapted to fit the context of ELT (English Language Teaching) by adding or substituting *"English" or "learning English"* for *"school work"* in items 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, and 12. For example, the schoolwork in *"How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork* was replaced with learning English, and the question was posed as *"How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English".* The reason behind choosing the short form was because the participants had to fill out both the questionnaire and the TKT, and it was predicted that filling out the long version of the questionnaire might be tedious and boring so that the participants might reply to the items inattentively and so the outcomes of the study would be negatively affected.

The TSES consists of 12 items which were answered on a 9-point scale ranging from 1 nothing to 9 a great deal. Four items of the TSES were related to each of the three subscales: efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for instructional strategies. It should be noted that the Cronbach's alpha of 0.88 assured the researchers that this questionnaire was highly reliable for assessing the participants' attitudes toward their self-efficacy.

C. Procedure

The TKT was administered to 55 novice English language teachers. Also, the questionnaire tapping into teacher self-efficacy was administered to these teachers. The participants were guaranteed anonymity.

III. RESULTS

In Table 2, descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations for the participants' answers to the items of the TKT based on the responses of 55 English instructors are presented. As the table illustrates, the mean of the participants' answers to the items of the TKT was 142, with the standard deviation of 37.66. Also, according to the table,

the means of the participants' answers to the items of the three modules of the TKT (i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process) are 53.25, 44.31, 44.58, respectively.

As Table 2 shows, the standard deviation for language and background to language learning and teaching is 12.09, and for lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, the figure is 16.60. For the last subscale, namely managing the teaching and learning process, the standard deviation is 14.88. As it can be observed, the respondents performed better on language and background to language learning and teaching, compared to the other two subscales. Moreover, they performed equally well on lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PERFORMANCE ON THE TKT AND ITS MODULES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TKT	55	47.00	202.00	142	37.66
Module 1	55	16	74	53.25	12.09
Module 2	55	8	71	44.31	16.60
Module 3	55	13	80	44.58	14.88

The Self-efficacy questionnaire used in this study consisted of 12 questions that aimed to examine three constructs, i.e. self-efficacy for learners' engagement, self-efficacy for classroom management, and self-efficacy for instructional strategies. In Table 3, descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations for the participants' answers to the items of the self-efficacy questionnaire based on the responses of 55 English instructors are presented. As the table shows, the mean of the participants' answers to the items of the self-efficacy questionnaire was 6.74, with the standard deviation of 1.13.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PERFORMANCE ON THE SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self-efficacy	55	3.75	8.33	6.74	1.13

Also, according to Table 4, the means of the participants' answers to the items of the three subscales of the self-efficacy questionnaire (i.e., efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for class management, and efficacy for instructional strategies) are 6.62, 6.89, 6.67, respectively. As this table shows, the standard deviation for efficacy for student engagement is 1.48, and for efficacy for class management, the figure is 1.18. For the last subscale, namely *managing the efficacy for instructional strategies*, the standard deviation is 1.32. As it can be observed, the respondents performed slightly better on efficacy for class management, followed by efficacy for instructional strategies and efficacy for student engagement.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PERFORMANCE ON THE SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE AND ITS COMPONENTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Efficacy for Student Engagement	55	2.50	9.00	6.62	1.48
Efficacy for Class Management	55	4.00	8.50	6.89	1.18
Efficacy for Instructional Strategies	55	3.50	8.75	6.67	1.32
Valid N (listwise)	55				

The present study aimed at determining the degree of relationship between teacher knowledge and teacher self-efficacy. Correlation analyses were conducted to determine the extent to which scores on one Teacher Knowledge Test are associated with the participants' self-efficacy. After examining the scatter plots for the variables involved in each question and assuring the linearity of the relationship, Pearson product-moment correlations were performed to explore whether a relationship exists between teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy. The secondary purpose of the stud was to determine whether there is a relationship between the subscales of teacher self-efficacy and the three modules of TKT.

In order to test the first research question concerning the relationship between teacher knowledge and teacher self-efficacy, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to measure the degree of relationship between English instructors' level of knowledge and their sense of self-efficacy.

As displayed in Table 5, the r-observed value is 0.33 with a significance level of 0.012. Since this probability is smaller than the 0.05 significance level, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between English instructors' knowledge and their self-efficacy.

TABLE 5
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN ENGLISH TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE AND THEIR SELF-EFFICACY

		Self-efficacy
	Pearson Correlation	0.337[*]
TKT	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.012
	N	55

Further analysis was run to determine the relationship between English instructors' knowledge and the three subscales of self-efficacy, i.e., efficacy for classroom management, efficacy for students' engagement, and efficacy for instructional efficacy. Table 6 presents the result of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis to examine whether there is a relationship between the participants' knowledge and the subscales of self-efficacy. As displayed in this table, the r-observed value for the relationship between the participants' knowledge and their efficacy for student engagement is 0.218 with a significance level of 0.110. Since this probability is greater than the 0.05 significance level, it can be concluded that there is not a significant relationship between English instructors' knowledge and their efficacy for student engagement.

As the table shows, the r-observed value for the relationship between the participants' knowledge and their efficacy for class management is 0.293 with a significance level of 0.030. Since this probability is smaller than the 0.05 significance level, it means that there is a significant relationship between English instructors' knowledge and their efficacy for class management.

As for the relationship between the participants' knowledge and their efficacy for instructional strategies, as the table shows, the r-observed value is 0.377 with a significance level of 0.005. Since this probability is smaller than the 0.05 significance level, it follows that relationship between English instructors' knowledge and their efficacy for instructional strategies is significant. Thus, the table indicates that the highest relationship is between the teachers' knowledge and their efficacy for instructional strategies followed by the relationship between the teachers' knowledge and their efficacy for class management, while there is no relationship between their knowledge and their efficacy for student engagement.

TABLE 6
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHER'S KNOWLEDGE AND THE SUBSCALES OF SELF-EFFICACY

		Efficacy for Student Engagement	Efficacy for Class Management	Efficacy for Instructional Strategies
TKT	Pearson Correlation	0.218	0.293[*]	0.377[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.110	0.030	0.005
	N	55	55	55

Further analysis was run to determine the relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the three modules of teachers' knowledge, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process. Table 7 presents the result of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis to examine whether there is a relationship between the participants' self-efficacy and the three subscales of TKT. As displayed in this table, the r-observed value for the relationship between the participants' self-efficacy and the first module of TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching is 0.384 with a significance level of 0.004. Since this probability is smaller than the 0.05 significance level, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the first module of the TKT.

As the table shows, the r-observed value for the relationship between the participants' self-efficacy and the second module of the TKT, i.e., lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching is 0.257 with a significance level of 0.059. Since this probability is not smaller than the 0.05 significance level, it means that there is not a significant relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the second module of the TKT.

As for the relationship between the participants' self-efficacy and the third module of the TKT, i.e., managing the teaching and learning process, as the table shows, the r-observed value is 0.253 with a significance level of 0.062. Since this probability is greater than the 0.05 significance level, it follows that relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the third module of the TKT is not significant. Thus, the table indicates that there is a relationship only between the teachers' self-efficacy and the first module of the TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, with no relationship between the teachers' self-efficacy and the second and the third TKT subscales, i.e., lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process.

TABLE 7
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND THE MODULES OF TKT

		Module 1	Module 2	Module 3
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	0.384**	0.257	0.253
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0.059	0.062
	N	55	55	55

The second research question raised in the present study concerned the relationship between the three modules of the TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process, and the three subscales of teachers' self-efficacy, i.e., efficacy for classroom management, efficacy for students' engagement, and efficacy for instructional efficacy.

As the results of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis, summarized in Table 8, show, the first module of the TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, has a positive significant relationship with the efficacy for classroom management (r-observed = 0.390, $p < 0.01$) and efficacy for instructional efficacy (r-observed = 0.396, $p < 0.01$) but not with efficacy for students' engagement. The table also shows that the second module of the TKT, i.e., lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, has a significant relationship only with the third subscale of the self-efficacy scale, i.e., efficacy for instructional efficacy (r-observed = 0.297, p < 0.05). Finally, the third module of the TKT, i.e., managing the teaching and learning process has a positive significant relationship only with the third subscale of the self-efficacy scale, i.e., efficacy for instructional efficacy (r-observed = 0.299, p < 0.05), but not with the first two self-efficacy subscales, i.e., efficacy for classroom management and efficacy for students' engagement.

TABLE 8
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE SUBSCALES OF SELF-EFFICACY AND THE MODULES OF TKT

		Efficacy for Student Engagement	Efficacy for Class Management	Efficacy for Instructional Strategies
M1	Pearson Correlation	.256	.390**	.396**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.060	.003	.003
	N	55	55	55
M2	Pearson Correlation	.177	.220	.297*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.197	.107	.028
	N	55	55	55
M3	Pearson Correlation	.147	.179	.299*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.285	.191	.027
	N	55	55	55

In the following section a general discussion of the findings with regard to the hypotheses tested will be put forward. Finally, the implications of the findings of the study for teacher knowledge and efficacy will be presented.

IV. DISCUSSION

Concerning TKT, as the results showed, the respondents performed better on language and background to language learning and teaching, compared to the other two subscales. This may be justified by the fact that the novice teachers participating in the study enjoyed a good level of knowledge of the language learning process. However, they lacked the necessary skills for devising lesson plans and managing the classroom. Moreover, they performed equally well on lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process. This may imply that the participants performed equally well on the practical and demonstrative aspects of the teaching profession. As for self-efficacy, the participants performed slightly better on efficacy for class management than on efficacy for instructional strategies and efficacy for student engagement. This preliminary result shows that instructional strategies and student engagement are domains that require strengthening in teacher education. Accordingly, efforts at enhancing teacher self-efficacy of novice teachers in terms of instructional strategies and student engagement in teacher education programs may be stressed.

As the results showed, there was a significant, though low, relationship between English teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy. This finding is in line with studies which found a positive relationship between teachers' knowledge of the language skills and their sense of efficacy (Atay, 2007; Wilson et al., 1987). It seems that English teachers' confidence about their capabilities to teach English affects their efficacy. Lack of competency in English influences teachers' self-efficacy because in analyzing the teaching tasks, teachers will make judgments based on their teaching competence to teach students speaking, listening, reading, and writing in English. Thus, lower efficacy in teaching English would lead teachers to put less effort in motivating students to learn and value English learning. Conversely, if teachers' perceived knowledge of English is high, they will be more likely to engage students in mastery experiences

leading to the use of English as a means to communicate. The more proficient the participants judged themselves across the four skills, the higher their sense of efficacy.

The results of the study are in line with those of Chacon (2005) who found that teachers' perceived efficacy was correlated with self-reported English proficiency. However, it was observed in our study that the respondents performed slightly better on efficacy for class management, followed by efficacy for instructional strategies and efficacy for student engagement, while Chacon (2005) found that teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies was higher than efficacy for management and engagement. This calls for further research in this regard. This finding of the current study, however, is in contrast with the finding of a study by Chan (2008) who studied self-efficacy beliefs among 273 Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong and observed the least confidence in classroom management.

In the light of Bandura's (1977) theory, this finding is important because teachers' judgments about their teaching competence influence EFL teachers' practice in terms of efforts, goals, and challenges they set up for themselves and for their students. Evidence in this study about the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and English language proficiency highlights the importance of preparing teachers who are competent across language skills.

Also no significant relationship was found between English instructors' knowledge and their self-efficacy for student engagement. However, a significant relationship was found between English instructors' knowledge and their self-efficacy for class management and instructional strategies. Thus, the results indicate that the highest relationship is between the teachers' knowledge and their efficacy for instructional strategies followed by the relationship between the teachers' knowledge and their efficacy for class management, with no relationship between knowledge and efficacy for student engagement. This may imply that the level of novice teachers' knowledge does not, by any means, guarantee their success in engaging the learners in the process of language learning and classroom activities.

With regard to the relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the three modules of teachers' knowledge, the results point to a significant relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the first module of the TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, with no significant relationship between English instructors' self-efficacy and the second module of the TKT, i.e., lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching. As for the relationship between the participants' self-efficacy and the third module of the TKT, i.e., managing the teaching and learning process, as the results showed, the relationship is not significant. Thus, there is a relationship only between the teachers' self-efficacy and the first module of the TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, with no relationship between the teachers' self-efficacy and the second and the third TKT subscales, i.e., lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process. This finding can be justified on the grounds that those teachers who perceived themselves as efficacious only enjoyed a high level of knowledge in the theoretical dimensions of language learning and teaching but lacked an acceptable level of skills with respect to lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process.

The second research question raised in the present study concerned the relationship between the three modules of the TKT and the three subscales of teachers' self-efficacy. As the results showed, the first module of the TKT, i.e., language and background to language learning and teaching, had a positive and significant relationship with the efficacy for classroom management and efficacy for instructional strategies but not with efficacy for students' engagement. The results also showed that the second module of the TKT, i.e., lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching, had a significant relationship only with the third subscale of the self-efficacy scale, i.e., efficacy for instructional strategies. This is an interesting finding because those novice teachers who performed highly on lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching are expected to have a high level of skills in devising creative strategies to share their knowledge. Finally, the third module of the TKT, i.e., managing the teaching and learning process had a positive and significant relationship only with the third subscale of the self-efficacy scale, i.e., efficacy for instructional strategies, but not with the first two self-efficacy subscales, i.e., efficacy for classroom management and efficacy for students' engagement. This shows that an ability to manage the teaching and learning process can be an indication of the ability to utilize instructional strategies in the classroom.

Concerning the modules of TKT which can account for most of the variance observed in the self-efficacy questionnaire, the results indicate that only the first module of the TKT accounts for a significant proportion of the variance observed in self-efficacy scale. The results indicate that the three TKT modules can predict about 15 percent of the self-efficacy scale.

The results advocate more inquiry with regard to teacher knowledge. Delving into teacher thinking might raise several questions related to the conceptual framework and the appropriate research methodologies to address language teachers' knowledge base, although, there are still many unsolved questions about this issue (Freeman, 2002).

In essence, the results of the current study lead to the conclusion that enhancing teachers' knowledge tends to have a positive influence on their sense of efficacy. This, in turn, may lead to effective teaching and accordingly to high student achievement since a strong sense of teacher efficacy has been found to be associated with teachers' pedagogical success and student characteristics such as motivation, achievement, and efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Previous studies have also pointed to the role of teacher efficacy in shaping students' attitudes toward school and subject matter, i.e., the higher the teaching efficacy of a teacher, the greater the students' interest in school and learning materials (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Hence, it is expected that encouraging and assisting teachers to improve their

knowledge may create greater student satisfaction with teachers and schools.

In the light of the results, we can justify exploiting and developing courses for EFL teachers, focusing on teachers' knowledge base. The findings of the current study, however, must be treated with caution. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first attempt to explore the relationship between EFL teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy in an institutional context. Thus, this study should be replicated to find out whether similar results can be obtained elsewhere. In addition, since this study was conducted only in private language institutes, further research needs to be carried out at other educational settings in order to compare the results.

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Self, Ideal and Salvation: A Comparative Study of Jane Austen's Elizabeth and Cao Xueqin's Lin Daiyu

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Abstract—**Elizabeth and Lin Daiyu, the two typical enchanting heroines, though created by different authors, set in the different countries and cultural backgrounds, bear a significantly close resemblance to one another in their personality: they all possess the ideals that they should get the true love and have a happy life. However, there are some distinct differences between their ideals and ways of realizing them.**

Index Terms—**Elizabeth, Lin Daiyu, heroines, comparative study**

I. Introduction

Elizabeth and Lin Daiyu were created in different backgrounds of 18th century. One was at the time of the Enlightenment in Britain while the other was in the Ching Dynasty, the declining period of feudalism in China. The two heroines strived for their ideals, which appeared rather progressive at their time.

Elizabeth was the second daughter in the Bennet family, a middle-class family of Longbourn, near London. She received a good education at home and lived an uneventful life with her parents and other four sisters. Lin Daiyu also spent her early childhood in a well-to-do family. She could read and write, too. But unfortunately, due to the early death of her mother, she had to move to her grandmother's residence and lived there without parental love.

However, both of them possessed their own ideals for love and happiness, though shown in different ways.

II. Comparison between Elizabeth & Lin Daiyu

A. Different Characters of Two Fair Ladies

1. Elizabeth: independent and take the initiative in her own hands

Elizabeth was the protagonist of Pride and Prejudice and one of the most well-known feminine characters in English literature. She had charming personality and was adored by the audience greatly. Her honesty, virtue, and lively wit enabled her to rise above the other girls in the family. She was intelligent and playful, unafraid to let her opinions known by others, and at the same time polite and good-mannered. She was always the first to recognize the reality of a situation, and was able to understand people very well. Unlike her elder sister Jane, she did not see the absolute best in everyone and every situation.

She refused marriage proposals two times. One is that she turned down her cousin Collins' court, because she did not like him at all. In her eyes, Collins was a vulgar man and was not the type she wanted. Therefore, she was not persuaded into marrying him. The other is that she rejected Mr. Darcy, a handsome and extremely wealthy aristocrat, because of his arrogance. Afterwards, the misunderstanding was cleared up between Elizabeth and Darcy and they fell into love. But Darcy's haughty aunt Lady Catherine did not approve of this marriage. Elizabeth did not yield and finally got the true love she longed for. All this shows that Elizabeth had her own judgments, own thought and own understanding about love and marriage.

2. Lin Daiyu: bashful, whiny but versatile and straightforward

Lin Daiyu was the protagonist of Dream of the Red Mansion. She was one of the fair ladies with poetic temperament in Daguan Garden of Jia family. Although she was whiny now and then, she was not calculating. On the contrary, the young lady was sincere and serious to others, especially to Zijuan and Xiangling. For example, once Xinagling wanted to learn how to write poems, Xue Baochai, who was considered kind and graceful, refused to teach her. Then Xiangling turned to consult Daiyu. Daiyu taught her very patiently and borrowed her some great collections of poems.

Lin was a sentimental lady. For instance, she had a special feeling towards flowers. Seeing flowers fading, she could not help her sorrow and wrapped the fallen petals with a hop-pocket, and then put them in the earth for fear that the

petals would drift into river or get trampled. She also associated her own fate with the flower, which was in full bloom only for a short time before withering. What a pessimistic girl she was. However, she had strong self-esteem and was afraid of ridicule from others and always cautious in doing everything.

But deeply in her heart there was a passion for love, which could be easily found in the way she treated Jia Baoyu-- the direct heir of Jia family. Although she was sensitive, whiny, unsocial and sharp-tongued to others on the surface, she was frank, naive and emotional. In her mind the true love calls for wholehearted devotion between the two. Therefore she cared about Baoyu's attitude toward her, because Baoyu was her entire hope. Although there were some defects in her characters, they could not cover up her charm. To this straightforward and helpless lady, she had to use some ways to stop her from being hurt. When her hope was strangled by harsh reality, she died soon, which was a straight way to express her resistance.

B. Two Ladies' Rosy Ideals about Love and Marriage

Elizabeth and Lin Daiyu had some similarities in resisting the unfairness imposed on them from the society, the freedom of love and marriage. They were both unwilling to yield to fate. But they had some differences in their views of marriage.

1. Elizabeth's ego and ideal

Marrying a rich aristocrat bachelor was the dream of young ladies at Elizabethan time. Just as it goes: "It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife". Therefore all the young ladies grasped any opportunity to show themselves in front of the rich noble bachelors in order to attract their eyes. However, Elizabeth did not follow the trend blindly. She considered that a marriage based on property, money, and status was unwise. A marriage should not simply depend on material things; instead, it should seek the foundation in mutual understanding and appreciation.

Elizabeth refused Darcy at first because she did not like his arrogance. What's more, some misunderstandings led to their estrangement. And they held strong prejudice against each other initially, which resulted in the discrepancy between them. But with time going on, the arrogance disappeared and the prejudice was cleared up, Elizabeth and Darcy fell in love and got married in the end.

2. Lin Daiyu's ideal of love

In contrast, Lin Daiyu, the Chinese classical tragic heroine, lived in the 18th century during the reign of Emperor Qian-long of the Ching Dynasty, the last feudal dynasty in China. At that time, women were supposed to be inferior to men in every respect. Striving for freedom of love from women was remarked ridiculous. However, some enlightened concepts that advocate equality among love and marriage evoked Lin Daiyu's consciousness of progressive thought. Finally, this inflexible lady struggled for her ideal till she died.

Daiyu and Baoyu grew up together since their adolescence. As time went on, they understood each other better and the two had much in common. Daiyu loved Bayou deeply; meanwhile she expected she was special in his heart. In her opinion, love was pure without impurity; love was unique without being unfaithful; love was earnest without falseness. And the most important was that the lovers should love each other heart and soul. Only in this way could the love be eternal. But the freedom of love could not be accepted in feudal society. Her fancy ideal faded away gradually, which was inevitable under that circumstance.

C. Differences in Self-salvation of Two Heroines

Both in Britain and in China of 18th century, the social status of men and women were not equal. In Britain, the laws deprived women of the right of inheritance if there were male descendants in the family. And the right of governing property belonged to their husbands once they got married. In China, women were faced with worsened situation: they should adhere to "three obediences", i.e. one should obey her father when at home and her husband after getting married and her son after the husband died. Their marriage was decided by their parents, so young ladies had no right to choose their spouses on their own. Therefore, the two heroines' bears much resemblance in their rebelling consciousness. Still, there are some differences between their self-consciousness and self-salvation.

1. Elizabeth's rebelling consciousness and self-salvation

According to Elizabeth, a marriage should base on the material guarantee and love. The two factors were indispensable. Meanwhile, the future husband should be chosen by herself instead of others. She refused two suitors resolutely. The former was her cousin Collins, although he possessed considerable property and was considered an ideal son-in-law by her mother. The latter was the aristocrat Mr. Darcy, who was accepted by Elizabeth until all the misunderstanding melted between them. Elizabeth's unflinchingness and wit made her gain happiness in the end.

i) Middle-class family background and good education

Elizabeth was a fair lady who belonged to the middle-class. Her family was in Longbourn, which was a small town and never disturbed by class conflicts. When Elizabeth was young, she received good education at home and read plenty of books. Therefore, she could absorb lots of enlightened thoughts. And she was adored and influenced greatly by her father, another wise person in the Bennet family.

The uneventful life and good education fostered her elegant, quick-witted, intelligent characters. She was not like her elder sister Jane who was so delicate and easy to believe in everyone, nor was she like her shallow and ignorant younger sisters. When she met some tough problems, she would keep cool-headed and thought by herself. The intelligent and

quick-witted fair lady could recognize the essence of the matter. This was her distinctive difference from others.

In her mind, a marriage should be equal between men and women. Marriage could not be ideal without true love. She adhered to such principle all the time. And she maintained independence and kept the initiative in her own hands. At the critical moment, she said "no" bravely, using her own ways to achieve her ideal. All this showed that she had strong self-consciousness.

ii) Strive for equality; uphold self-esteem

In Elizabeth's mind, women should gain the respect from men especially in marriage. She expected the ideal marriage with true love, which was beyond pride and prejudice. When Darcy's aunt Lady Catherine stopped her from marrying Darcy, her reaction revealed her distinct concept of love: "You are not entitled to know mine. Nor will such behavior as this ever induce me to be explicit." "And if I am that choice, why may not I accept him?" "In marrying your nephew, I should not consider myself as quitting that sphere. He is a gentleman; I am a gentleman's daughter; so far we are equal." The response showed Elizabeth's earnest love to Darcy, and her unwavering resolution broke Catherine's vicious plan. Meanwhile, her self-esteem was well upheld.

Lady Catherine's supercilious attitude did not made Elizabeth withdraw. On the contrary, it provided a great chance for Darcy to propose to Elizabeth for the second time.

2. Lin Daiyu's rebelling consciousness

Lin Daiyu is a typical tragic heroine in Chinese literature. She was naive, pure and not hypocritical. She loved Baoyu earnestly, and even expected to marry Baoyu someday. Although she eventually failed in marrying him, her high self-dignity impresses the audience deeply.

i) Feudal landlord family and good education

Lin Daiyu was a feudal officer's daughter; she received a good education at home when she was young. As the only child in Lin's family, she was the apple of her parents' eyes. Her parents treated her like a boy without much discipline. And she was not influenced by some orthodox ideas. Therefore, she had a carefree childhood. But unfortunately, her parents died early. She had to move to her grandmother's residence, which was a big and brilliant feudal landlord mansion. It provided her an extremely luxurious life, and there she and Baoyu had many chances to communicate with each other. Daiyu's naive, elegant, rebellious and witty characters attracted Baoyu deeply. They found that they had much in common so they gradually fell in love. Their love based on the common ideal which resisted the traditional ideas and pursued the freedom of true love. They became soul mates who held the same ethical and aesthetic code. Although they quarreled over trifles, it could not stop them loving each other.

ii) Dream of love; uphold self-esteem

Lin Daiyu was a progressive lady who pursued pure love and expected to escape from traditional dogmas' bandage. She sought love perseveringly and cherished it carefully. She held the secret love dear to herself, and often said one thing but meant another. She was sensitive, emotional and sometimes even considered hard to deal with by the servants. Though literate and intelligent, some traditional ideas lingered in her mind, which hindered her in speaking out herself. She hoped her grandmother, the hostess of Jia family, stand out to help her to attain her dream of marring Baoyu. Unfortunately, her grandmother did not do so although she was fond of her. When the last hope was gone, this delicate lady had to yield to destiny. Her fragile physical condition deteriorated quickly and died soon. In some degree Daiyu used her life to protest against the unfair treatment of the patriarchal feudal society.

Daiyu's high sense of self-consciousness was very impressive. During that time, Daiyu's action was not approved, even considered ridiculous by others, but to those women who had the same consciousness was an amazing deed. However, her actions were different from Elizabeth's. Generally speaking, she was passive to accept the arrangement of fate while Elizabeth pursued what she wanted in a more active way. Therefore, different family backgrounds, different rebelling consciousness led to their different fates -- one was happy while the other was tragic.

D.   Different Fates, Different Endings

1. Elizabeth: All shall be well, and Jack has his Jill

Love is magic. It always makes fun of lovers. Later, Elizabeth through many ways realized that Darcy was not a haughty and impolite man and gradually, changed her attitude to him. Meanwhile Darcy also altered his views to Elizabeth. So the pride and prejudice disappeared between them. Darcy proposed to Elizabeth for a second time, Elizabeth accepted it agreeably.

Indeed, Elizabeth and Darcy was a couple who were admired by others. They overcame lots of obstacles and achieved their ideal. Elizabeth was a fortunate and happy lady. Her persistence, independence and bravery led her to true love.

2. Lin Daiyu: pretty woman suffers unhappy end

Lin Daiyu was a clever, versatile and emotional lady. But such a delicate lady could not free herself from tragic fate. As Chinese saying goes: "pretty women ofen suffer unhappy fates." She struggled for her ideal all her life. However, women were not allowed to resist in the feudal society. To Daiyu, she did not have the right to choose her life partner and nobody gave a hand to her. The old tradition was like the ocean and she was a sailing boat against the wind in the ocean, and was finally turned over by the rough sea. She was too weak to change her destiny. Praiseworthy, she preferred to die rather than compromise with antis on love of freedom. She and Baoyu were separated by the patriarchal system. This was not only their personal tragedy, but also the tragedy of that time.

III. Conclusion

Elizabeth and Lin Daiyu, the two charming heroines in Western literature and Chinese literature, were both created in a mingled social background in the same century, when a new social order as well as a new intellectual order were going to be set up, which evoked the profound consideration of self, ideals and salvation among some progressive minds. The two ladies hold fast to true love and marriage. However, the different social environment, different family backgrounds and different characters of the two heroines resulted in different ends. The former, gained the true love and had a happy ending, while the latter, vanished and died miserably in despair.

Elizabeth succeeded in winning her love, not only because of her firm, wise and independent characters, but also owning to the enlightened social environment which was different from that of China. This British lady was luckier than the Chinese one, because she had the chance to choose what she wanted. Fortunately her future was controlled by herself. Yet, Daiyu was unlucky. Although she resisted the unfair treatment to her, she could not change anything in the end. She had no ability to change her fate, even had no chance to choose her happiness. She was just the victim of feudal system of Qing Dynasty. Daiyu's tragic fate reflected the injustice imposed on women in the ancient China.

As to their similarities and differences, there will be a lot of work to do. This article may shed some light on future research in this concern.

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Males' and Females' Language in Jordanian Society

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Abstract—The paper analyzes the difference between the language of male and female speakers, in terms of gender in Jordan in some fields. The paper answers the following question: -Do men and women talk differently, in terms of gender in Jordan by occasion of the gladness, consolation, thankful after banquet and farewell? Thus, the paper aims to find the causes of the differences between male and female in language. The paper indicates that the differences are attributable to the followings: 1.Desire of females to attract attention and get out of the traditional way some words are used. 2. Females' use certain words because they believe that these words are more modern and civilized.3.The tendency to use words which are prestigious. On the basis of this paper, further studies could explore other areas. For example, there could be a comparative study between two groups of males and females. The first group consists of members their ages are between 20 to 30 years. The second group consists of members their ages are between 50 to 60 years. So, we can know the changes of words which happen over a period of time.

Index Terms—English language, Jordan, males' and females' language, Jordanian society, university

I. RELATED LITERATURE (THEORETICAL BACKGROUND)

In several communities, sociolinguistic results clearly show than woman use fewer of the literary Arabic forms than men (Chambers, 1995).

According to Coates (1993), in the case of gender, it was established that in many speech communities female speakers will use a higher proportion of prestige form than male speakers. In other words, the prestige norms seem to exert a stronger influence on women than on men. In addition, (Coates, 1993) quoted from (Lakoff, 1975), the men use stronger expletives (damn, shit) more than women (oh dear, goodness). He found that women use interrogative forms than men. He talked about that men address themselves in public to traditionally male topics more than women: business, politics, and economics. The word chatter, which is nearly always used of women rather than men, has two semantic components: verbosity and triviality. The idea that women discuss topics which are essentially trivial has probably contributed to the myth of women's verbosity, since talk on trivial topics can more easily be labeled too much. Such, as child-rearing and personal relationships are labeled trivial is simply a reflection of social values which define what do as important, and conversely what women do as less important (Coates, 1993) quoted from (Aries, 1976).

Women tended to use prestige language forms more than men. Women use overt, standard prestige norms, but men use convert, vernacular prestige norms. Overt prestige attaches to refined qualities, as associated with the cosmopolitan marketplace and its standard language, where covert prestige attaches to masculine, rough and tough qualities (Coupland, 1997) quoted from (Trudge, 1975).

The women are not expected to use strong expletives such as damn or shit, but are encouraged to substitute weaker ones like oh dear or fudge. This difference in linguistic acculturation between men and women permits men the opportunity to express strong emotions with impunity, an opportunity that women are denied (Fasold, 1990) quoted from (Lakoff, 1973).

The women regularly employ the use of more socially prestigious speech than men. The men use more forceful or decisive speech than women (Scherer, 1979). The informal studies by students which show that women use more reduplicated adjectival forms like itsy-bitsy and teeny-weeny (Scherer, 1979) quoted from (Key, 1975). The women are the hereditary guardians of old fashioned sayings and the meaning of proverbs (Scherer, 1979) quoted from (Jayawardena, 1977).

II. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Sociolinguistics has been defined as the study of language in its social context. The study of language in its social context means crucially the study of linguistic variation. In different social contexts an individual will speak in different ways, this is called stylistic variation. Moreover, speakers who differ from each other in terms of age, gender, social class, ethnic group, for example, will differ from each other in their speech, this is called social variation.

Sociolinguistics is principally interested in the vernacular, that is speech used spontaneously among people know each other well.

This paper will restrict itself to linguistic variation related to the gender for speaker. It will describe differences found in the speech of men and women in Irbid city in Jordan.

As far as I know, no one writes about the difference speech between men and women in Jordan. Obviously, the paper defines this difference between males and females in speech.

One of the aims of this paper to provide coherent work to be intended both for those with an interest in sociolinguistics who want to study one aspect of variation in depth, and also for those interested in gender differences in general. It will concentrate on sociolinguistic work carried out on Irbid city and throughout will focus primarily on the vernacular Arabic language.

More specifically, the paper will try to answer the following question: Do men and women talk differently, in terms of gender in Jordan by occasion of gladness, consolation, thankful after banquet and farewell?

III. METHODOLOGY

In this paper, the author attempts to answer the following question: Do men and women talk differently, in terms of gender in the city of Irbid in Jordan by occasion of the gladness, consolation, thankful after banquet and farewell?

A questionnaire is used as a neutral tool so as to find out the differences in speech between male and female in Irbid.

The language which is used in the questionnaire is Arabic and as such it was straightforward for respondents to answer the questions in the questionnaire. For purpose of the paper the author distributed the questionnaire among respondents in the city of Irbid. There are 60 respondents. Thirty respondents are males and the other thirty are females. Ages of the members of the sample study are between the ages of 20 to 30 years. The social and economical levels of members of the sample is somewhat is similar.

Recently for the purpose of this paper, the author translated the questionnaire from the Arabic to English language.

The questionnaire was designed to find out in particular about differences in speech between men and women. It is the central instrument in the systematic collection of dialect.

It may seem an innocent tool of research, but besides determining in advance what linguistic items are to be scrutinized, it predetermines in other ways what is to be included and what no.

The questionnaire was filled in completely by the researcher to save the time and helping the illiterate people to give the answers.

The questionnaire included information about age, education and gender as it is shown in the appendix.

IV. DISCUSSION AND DATA ANALYSIS

This study clarifies differences in speech between males and females in city of Irbid in Jordan in the following occasion: gladness, consolation, thankful after banquet and farewell.

There are many synonymous which Jordanians use in the mentioned occasions. But the researcher concentrates on the words which are used too much as shown in the appendix.

The researcher uses two types of tables (look to tables' number 1 and 2). The first table clarifies the words which are used in each occasion and are expressed by overt figures. The second table includes the same words which are expressed by percentage.

The researcher analyzes the participants' respondents to the questionnaire to calculate and tabulate the overt figures. The percentages of the words are used by males and females in sample of the study.

We compare the results between males and females respondents in order to discover the differences which might attribute to gender.

TABLE 1
THE DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN IN THE CITY OF IRBID IN JORDAN

The Occasion	Using of The Words According To Gender			Total
Gladness:	Mabrook	Mubarak	Tahanenah	
Males	19	7	4	30
Females	17	13	0	30
Consolation:	El-baqieh bhyatko	Yrham mafaqato	El-omor elko	
Males	13	13	4	30
Females	5	8	17	30
Thankful After Banquet:	Shukran	Daimeh	Bil-afrah	
Males	4	20	6	30
Females	2	15	13	30
Farewell:	Mah assalameh	Be-aman Allah	Bye	
Males	18	6	6	30
Females	17	2	11	30

TABLE 2
THE DIFFERENCES IN SPEECH BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN IN THE CITY OF IRBID IN JORDAN

The Occasion	Using of The Words According To Gender %			Total			
Gladness:	Mabrook	Mubarak	Tahanenah				
Males	64	23	13	100			
Females	57	43	0	100			
Consolation:	El-baqieh bhyatko	Yrham mafaqato	El-omor elko				
Males	43	43	14	100			
Females	17	27	56	100			
Thankful After Banquet:	Shukran	Daimeh	Bil-afrah		Be-aman allah	Bay	
Males	13	67	20	100	6	6	30
Females	7	50	43	100	2	11	30
Farewell:	Mah assalameh	Be-aman Allah	Bye				
Males	60	20	20	100			
Females	57	7	36	100			

From tables' numbers 1 and 2, it is noticed that there are some differences in the using of words by males and females as follows:

First: In gladness occasion, males and females use "mabrook" more than other words. Males use "mabrook" 19 times, "Mubarak" 7 times, and "tahanenah" 4 times out of 30 respondents. On the other hand, females' use 17 times, 13 times and did not use "tahanenah" respectively.

Again, it could be seen from the above data that the two groups (males and females) use different words.

These differences are seen more clearly in situations of the second and third columns as shown in tables 1 and 2, where males use "Mubarak" 23% and "tahanenah" 13%, and females 43% and 0% successively.

In other words, there are no big differences in the use of word "mabrook" by both males and females. The word "mabrook" is used by nineteen respondents of males and seventeen respondents of females out of thirty participants for each category for males and females.

Second: A general look at tables 1 and 2 shows that there are some differences in using the words by two groups in occasion of "consolation". Sample of study from males tends to use "Al-baqieh bhyatko" and "yrham mafaqato" more than females.

The big differences are between using of word "El-omor elko" and using of "El- baqieh bhyatko". Females use this word "El-omor Elko" four times more than males. In my point of view, females tend to use "El-omor Elko" too much in comparison with using of "El-baqieh bhyatko" and "yrham mafaqato" because the belief that these two words are less modern and civilized from "El-omor elko". The reason for this thought that the letter's" in word "El-baqieh bhyatko" and in "yrham mafaqato" are used often by the rural people. So, females avoid using the words which include these letters to give impression that they are more modern and civilized.

Third: The data indicate in tables that using "shukran" to express thankful after banquet is very limited, where males use it by 13% and females by 7%.

We think that using this word very little because it is traditional word and most of people use it in all occasions whatever are little or huge. So, we think that the use of "shukran" after banquet is not an expression of gratitude as "daimeh" and "Bil-afrah".

For this reason, we find that males and females use these two words too much comparative with "shukran".

Fourth: Males use "mah essalameh" 18 times out of 30. They use "Be-aman Allah" and "bye" 6 times respectively. This equal is 20% for each other. Females use "mah essalameh"17 times out of 30 participants. It means that the usage of "mah essalameh" by males and females is similar. In other words, there is no big difference between males and females in using "mah essalameh".

The analysis emphasizes that females' use "Be-aman Allah" only 2 times out of 30 persons (i.e. 7%). This is against of researcher's expectation, where is expected that females use this word more than males because it has great intimate.

According to the data mentioned in the tables, we can say that males and females use "bye" with 20% and 36% successively. Using of word "bye" gives indication that males and females tend to using of prestigious form especially by females.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper has explored the differences in language use based on gender- males and females- in the case of gladness, consolation, thankful after banquet and farewell. The paper found that most of females' respondents like to attract attention by avoiding the use of old and ancient words. Rather, females prefer to use more modern and civilized words. Moreover, males and females tend to use more prestigious words rather than old words.

The author believes that what seems to be old and ancient words are as important as new and modern words. Males and females should not shy away from using old words. These words are important part of the heritage that should preserve over generations.

Further studies could examine the social and cultural logic for the different uses of words between males and females.

APPENDIX A THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

The researcher is conducting a study entitled "Males' and Females' Language in Social Interaction in Jordanian Society". You are kindly requested to answer the items of this questionnaire carefully and accurately. Rest assured that the information obtained in the course of this study will be kept confidential and used only the purposes of academic research.

1. General Information
Name:
Gender: Male   Female
Nationality:
Age:
Level of Education:

2. Please respond to these questions as realistically and honestly as possible.

3. Put (M) under the word which is used by Males and put (F) under the word which is used by Females in the following table:

USING OF THE WORDS ACCORDING TO THE GENDER

Occasion	The Words		
Gladness:	Mabrook	Mubarak	Tahanenah
Consolation:	El-baqieh bhyatko	Yrham mafaqato	El-omor elko
Thankful After Banquet:	Shukran	Daimeh	Bil afrah
Farewell:	Mah essalameh	Be-aman Allah	Bye

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A Brief Comment on Communicative Language Teaching

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Abstract—**Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is more and more popular and becoming the mainstream in the second language teaching classroom. It reviews its development and explores the use in china all around. Via analyzing some hidden problems in second language classroom, some suggestions are promoted.**

Index Terms—**audio-lingual method, CLT, character, problems, second language classroom**

I. Theoretical Foundation and Background

Influenced by the nature of language and language learning, many approaches and methods in language teaching are constantly changing corresponding to the need of era, all of which contribute a lot in the history of mankind, such as the Translation Method, the Situational Language Teaching, the Audio-lingual Method, the Communicative Language Teaching, and other approaches although with less influence which can also give us much inspiration. All of them were once quite the rage, but till now, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is more and more popular and becoming the mainstream in the second language teaching classroom. It spreads widely and constantly develops.

CLT can be dated from the 1960s. At that time, much more communication was required in the European continent among the countries, and the formation of International Association of Applied Linguistics was also promoted. Under these circumstances, the Communicative Method emerged and was quickly welcomed. Besides these, at that time, the *notional syllabus* published in 1976 which was proposed by D. A. Wilkins had a significant impact on the development of CLT. Currently, CLT is also greatly accepted and encouraged in Chinese second language classroom, which actives the class and gain great harvest in a communicative way whereas still some new problems come along.

II. Some Introductions about CLT

CLT has two main theoretical foundations: 1) the theory of language, including British applied linguistics, British functional linguistics and American work in sociolinguistics; 2) the theory of language learning, actually, there isn't any explicit discussion on learning theory, however, three principles might be described here: i. Communicative Principle; ii. Task Principle; iii. Meaningfulness Principle.

A. Syllabus

After one of the first syllabus models to be proposed we mentioned before —*notional syllabus*, till now, CLT does not have a unified syllabus. Different scholars put forward different models. Yalden (1983) listed eight types: 1) structures plus functions (Wilkins 1976); 2) functional spiral around a structural core (Brumfit 1980); 3) structural, functional, instrumental (Allen 1980); 4) functional (Jupp and Hodlin 1975); 5) notional (Wilkins 1976); 6) interactional (Widdowson 1979); 7) task-based (Prabhu 1983); 8) learner generated (Candlin 1976, Henner-Stanchina and Riley 1978). Types1-5 can be ascribed to the proto-syllabus, and a current interest concentrates on the designs of types6-8. But the discussion around syllabus models continues in the CLT literature and it is hard to come to an agreement.

B. Main Character

i. Focus on communicative and contextual factors. CLT pursues authentic communication in life and content-oriented, meaning negotiation is its main purpose.

ii. Involve with learner-centered and experience-based. Different from the traditional teacher-centered class, CLT encourages students learn actively and independently, cultivating their communicative competence.

C. The Understanding of Communicative Competence

In Hyme's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language.

In his book *Teaching Language as Communication* (1978), Widdowson focused on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes.

Canale and Swain (1980) identified four dimensions of communicative competence: grammatical competence, which domains grammatical and lexical capacity; Sociolinguistic competence, an understanding of the social context in which

communication takes places; Discourse competence, the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text; Strategic competence, the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication. And this identification has been widely accepted.

Some scholars believe that the communicative competence combines two kinds of knowledge: the language knowledge and the non-language knowledge, while the latter consists of context knowledge, world knowledge and cross-culture knowledge.

Communicative Competence refers to the ability to use language (oral or written form) and sub-language (body language) to achieve some communicative purpose, including both comprehension and expression. That is to say, the cultivation of students' communicative competence means cultivating all the four skills-listening, speaking, reading and writing. (Dingfang Shu, Zhixiang Zhuang 2008)

III. CLT IN CHINA

A. The Concept of "Strong" Version and "Weak" Version of CLT

Howatt once distinguished between a "strong" and a "weak" version of CLT: The weak version stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purpose and attempts to integrate such activates into a wider program of language teaching, that's "learning to use English". The strong version claims that language is acquired through communication, that's "using English to learn it".

B. The Use of CLT in China

In China, in most second language classrooms, teachers take the former version, which is the weak one. Besides the basic principle of communication, the weak version regards that the grammatical structure cannot be omitted in the use of foreign language. Grammar teaching helps the students to form the ability to participate in the real social communication. Nowadays, most textbooks used in our primary school and middle school can embody the use of the principle of Communicative Method; they are compiled on the structural-notional, functional syllabus. We can find that in these textbooks, no matter the vocabulary, dialogue or reading material are all related to the students' real life, but grammatical language points are also explained and arranged in a logical sequence. We are delightful to see the advancement we have made in English teaching in recent years, more and more people study English actively, students can speak freely when meet with a foreigner etc... In a whole, English teaching in China is moving forward, but if we get down to thinks over, there are also some severe problems facing us. For example, students in primary school can act actively in class, but more and more silent with them growing. Some people even doubt that if it is necessary to teach everyone English and make English learning so permeated. Of course, there are various reasons from the teachers, students, even the whole society. So the major problem in China concentrates not on whether to teach, but how to teach. How to cultivate the students' learning ability? Maybe it is a huge project we have to endeavor together. Besides that, CLT applies more in middle school in China, but less application can be found in college. Wang Zongyan once conducted a research on the use of CLT in Shanghai Foreign Language University and Zhejiang University separately, and the result is much delightful, which can give us much inspiration in the future research.

IV. MY VIEWS ON CLT

Distinguishing features between the Audio-lingual Method and the CLT, some of the main characters of CLT are quite acceptable.

i. Contextualization is a basic premise and authentic material will be sought. Under this circumstance, the teaching content and teaching activities will closely link with students' own experience, which can be helpful to reduce students' attitudes of being boring, more attention will be focused and long-time memory can also be enhanced.

ii. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest. To this point, teachers can arrange their teaching sequence according to their teaching needs and students' response. Besides the sequence, the quantity and quality of different teaching content can also be added or lessened if necessary. All these acquire teachers' observation to the whole class, especially the after-class reflection. That's to say, instead of following the text blindly, teachers should use the teaching material flexibly.

However, with the wide spreading of CLT, problems occur one by one in the teaching classroom, and also some disputes come along.

i. CLT emphasizes learner-centered teaching process and more communication is promoted, which may cause two problems. On the one hand, CLT over stresses the function and meaningfulness of language on the largest scale, meaning is the major object, but it excludes the role played by grammar teaching and ignores the entity of the language system. On the other hand, how to operate these principles effectively is still a problem hard to solve and have some distance with the ideal state. To the first aspect, Michael H. Long gave us a new concept called "Focus on Form" in his article named "Focus on form in Task-Based Language Teaching", which can be helpful to solve this problem. "Focus on form…overtly draw s students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication. (Long, 1991: 45 46)

ii. Not less people mistake that CLT applies only to the listening-speaking class, and when we talk about the ability of communication, people usually emphasize more on the oral aspect, which brings two limitations: 1) the ignorance of the research on written communication; 2) the ignorance of the research on the comprehensible ability. Let's look at the first phenomenon; first, we should make clear that the communicative competence we have mentioned include all the four skills including listening, speaking, reading and writing. In a traditional reading class, "bottom-up approach" is usually adopted. Under this model, students usually ignore the understanding of language meaning and the authors' communicative intention. Of course, Ferdiand de sausure distinguished the difference between langue and parole, here we talk about the language meaning in a broad sense, including the lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, figurative meaning, collocative meaning, modal meaning and the meaning in a language system, especially in the whole context. So, some problems occur, students take the word and structure isolated, the thinking pattern and the reading ability are held back. So, more meaningful communication should also be encouraged when we deal with the reading material, such as the communication between students and the reading material, the communication between students and the author, the communication between students and students, and the communication between students and teacher etc.. The second refers to the comprehensible ability; actually, this aspect is quite important. Krashen's Input Hypothesis emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input. To solve this problem, on the one hand, teacher can help students to form much standard target language; students can also gain input through all round both in and out of the classroom. On the other hand, students can use self-linguistic-feeling to monitor themselves.

iii. In CLT, comprehensible pronunciation is sought. Fluency is more important than accuracy. Compared with CLT, Audio-lingual Method sets great store on the students' pronunciation. Which is reasonable? Different people hold different views. According to Vivian Cook: "Training students to speak swiftly and accurately may have helpful side effects on their working memory and hence on their general ability to process language." In fact, the neglect of pronunciation in recent years has occurred and becomes worse and worse; teachers give less attention to students' pronunciation, even to the beginners. However, the obstruction caused by inaccurate pronunciation can also influence students' listening more or less. In fact, we put the fluency on the first place, which doesn't mean that teachers can neglect the mistakes students made no matter in pronunciation or grammar or expression. So I hold the view from Cook and I think we should pay more attention to pronunciation and take it seriously, especially in our middle school.

V. CONCLUSION

At last, I'd like to quote the four requirements put forward by D.Brown applied in the Communicative Teaching Classroom, and I hope our teachers can get some inspiration and know better about CLT.

i. The purpose of classroom learning completely concentrates on the parts constituted by communicative competence, not limiting to the grammar or language ability.

ii. It is the function not the form to organize or arrange the sequence of the class. The mastery of the form is achieved through the embodiment of function.

iii. Fluency is more important to accuracy. The final purpose of CLT is to make your statement expressive and acceptable.

iv. In a communicative class, students were encouraged to use language creatively in almost real context.

Till now, CLT has been constantly improving and become a much advanced teaching method. But After all, to my view, different teaching objects, different teaching aims, different teaching content and different teaching condition acquire different teaching methods; we should flexibly use these methods.

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Learner Perfectionism and its Role in Foreign Language Learning Success, Academic Achievement, and Learner Anxiety

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Abstract—The major aim of this study was to examine the role of learner perfectionism in foreign language learning success, academic achievement, and learner anxiety. A sample of 300 junior and senior students of English in Mashhad universities completed Ahwaz Perfectionism Scale (2000) and Speilberger's State/Trait Anxiety Inventory (1983). Students' grades of four skills (reading, speaking, listening, writing) and GPA were also obtained through the questionnaires. The results of the correlational analysis indicated a negative significant relationship between skills of reading, speaking, listening, GPA, and perfectionism and also a positive significant relationship between learner perfectionism and learner anxiety. The results did not confirm the researchers` hypothesis with regard to the relationships between age, gender, and learner perfectionism. Further analysis of data was also conducted. Students were divided into successful and unsuccessful groups with regard to their scores in the skills and GPA, and then perfectionism level of successful and unsuccessful groups were compared. The results of t-tests confirmed the results of the correlational analysis except for GPA. Altogether, the findings of this study showed how perfectionistic tendencies in language learners are associated with low academic achievement and poor performance in language skills.

Index Terms—academic achievement, foreign language learning success, learner anxiety, learner perfectionism

I. INTRODUCTION

The idea of the "perfect human" has always been appealing for human beings. In fact, human beings have always liked perfection and admired people in pursuit of perfection. This tendency and its effects on human behavior have attracted the attention of psychologists and theoreticians for long; it has been named as perfectionism and categorized as a psychological construct just in recent decades (Mehrabizadeh, 2003).

In short, perfectionism, in psychology, is a belief that perfection should be strived for; perfectionists are people, who strive to meet very high standards in everything they do, and pursue unrealistically high goals across any domains, be it in the workplace, in sport, cooking, etc (Hewitt & Flett, 1991 a, b). They believe that mistakes must never be made, and see mistakes as evidence of unworthiness. They are preoccupied with fear of failure and disapproval, and if they experience failure and disappointment, become dysfunctionally depressed (Hollender, 1965).

In the past decade, there has been an increasing interest in the perfectionism construct, and it has been associated with many forms of psychopathology including trait anxiety (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a,b), depression, social anxiety (Rosser, Issakidis, & Peters, 2003). Besides the clinical studies, a large body of research on perfectionism has used university students as their subjects. The results of these studies have found perfectionism to be associated with academic procrastination, anxiety, worry (Stober & Joorman, 2001; Chang, Zumberg, Sanna, Girz, Kade, Shair, Hermann, & Srivastaka, 2007), lower academic success (Brown, Heimberg, Frost, Makris, Juster & Leung, 1999).

Different symptoms of perfectionism can be also observed in students. Based on Pacht's (1984) conceptualization, a number of symptoms of perfectionism in students that seem to be counterproductive to learning of any kind include:

[1] performance standards that are impossibly high and unnecessarily rigid;

[2] motivation more from fear of failure than from pursuit of success;

[3] measurement of one's own worth entirely in terms of productivity and accomplishment;

[4] all-or-nothing evaluations that label anything other than perfection as failure;

[5] difficulty in taking credit or pleasure, even when success is achieved, because such achievement is merely what is expected;

[6] procrastination in getting started on work that will be judged, and

[7] long delays in completing assignments, or repeatedly starting over on assignments, because the work must be perfect from the beginning and continue to be perfect as one goes along (p.1, cited in Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

Most of the studies on perfectionism have focused on the relationship between perfectionism and different psychopathologies, that is, the construct of perfectionism has been addressed from a psychological perspective. Few studies have addressed the association between perfectionism and language learning. One of the studies which aimed at such a relationship was that of Gregersen and Horwitz (2002). In their study, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) examined the relationship between perfectionism and language learning with a focus on language anxiety. According to them, the reactions of the students to their oral performance indicated that anxious and non-anxious foreign language learners do differ in terms of their self-reports of perfectionist tendencies. Specifically, anxious learners reported higher standards for their English performance, a greater tendency toward procrastination, greater worry over the opinions of others, and a higher level of concern over their errors than non-anxious learners.

In the educational context of our country, the ideas of "the best" and "the perfect" exist and are valued in its different levels. Foreign language proficiency, for example, is usually defined in terms of a native speaker competence. For example, many English learners believe in the superiority of the British or the American accents and spend their time and energy in strict imitation of either varieties.

However, this view toward language learning, that is, the appeal to native speaker as a model has been abandoned by many authorities in the field (Seildhofer, 2000; Widdowson, 2003). Widdowson's (2003) notion of the "death of native speaker" best illustrates this abandonment of the traditional model. As it is evident, a gap exists between what theory says and what is practiced in our country. In spite of what theory recommends, it is generally assumed that our language learners' competence should correspond as closely as possible to that of native speakers.

Though studies in other countries have uncovered the debilitating effects of perfectionism (Mehrabizadeh, 2003), this construct, to the knowledge of the researchers, has not been addressed in our country in the field of language learning and teaching, so it seems that there is a need to investigate the possible associations between this psychological construct and language learning. Therefore, this study is seeking to answer the following questions:

Q1: Does learner perfectionism play any role in reading?
Q2: Does learner perfectionism play any role in speaking?
Q3: Does learner perfectionism play any role in listening?
Q4: Does learner perfectionism play any role in writing?
Q5: Does learner perfectionism play any role in academic achievement (GPA)?
Q6: Does learner perfectionism play any role in learner anxiety?
Q7: Does sex play any role in learner perfectionism?
Q8: Does age play any role in learner perfectionism?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The original sample, in this study, comprised 360 participants; however, due to not providing the required information in the questionnaire, 60 questionnaires were dropped. Therefore, the study was conducted with 300 students from B.A. English majors in three universities of Mashhad. 96 participants were students of English Language and Literature at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad; 40 were students of TEFL in Azad University of Mashhad, and 164 were students of English Translation and English Language and Literature at Khayyam University of Mashhad.

The age of the respondents ranged from 20 to 25. Since gender was one of the variables in this study, the subjects chosen were both male and female. 47 of the participants were male, and 253 participants were female; the majority of the participants were female (84.33%).

Of the 300 participants 200 (66.6%) were juniors, and 100 (33.3%) were seniors. Juniors and seniors were chosen, because it was important for the researchers that they pass the courses of reading, speaking, listening, and writing.

The participants were not randomly chosen from a larger population, the criteria for choosing them, were their major, and their grades (being juniors or seniors). In fact, selection was based on accessibility.

B. Instrumentation

Participants were required to complete the following instruments: Ahwaz Perfectionism scale (2000), and the Spielberger STAI (1983), which are dealt with in some detail in the following sections.

1. Ahwaz Perfectionism Scale

Ahwaz Perfectionism Scale (APS) is a self-reporting 27-item scale that was developed by Najarian, Attari, and Zargar in Ahwaz University in 2000. It was designed using a sample of 395 students of Ahwaz University by doing a factorial analysis. The items were developed using valid psychological texts such as MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory), Spielberger Anxiety, etc. (Mehrabizadeh, 2003).

As for the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach's alpha for the whole sample (male and female) is 0.90, for female students is 0.90, and for male students is 0.89 (Mehrabizadeh, 2003).

According to Mehrabizadeh (2003), to measure the validity of APS, it was distributed among students along with type A behavior pattern scale, SCL-90 (Sympton checklist 90-Revised) and Cooper-Smith self-esteem scale (1967). The validity coefficient between APS and type A behavior pattern scale is 0.65, between APS and SCL90-R is 0.41 and between APS and Cooper-smith self- esteem scale is 0.39. Other studies have assessed the concurrent validity of APS.

The results of these studies show that APS has an acceptable level of reliability and validity (Mehrabizadeh, 2003). APS is also the only scale which has been developed in Iran and corresponds to Iranian culture and society.

In the present study, an internal reliability check was computed on APS, Cronbach's coefficient alpha for APS computed on 300 participants was 0.88. This result indicates that APS is satisfactorily reliable in terms of its internal consistency.

2. Spielberger STAI

To determine whether there is any relationship between anxiety and learner perfectionism, the researchers employed the Spielberger STAI (1983). The questionnaire is a self-report scale, including 40 items, which measures two constructs of state and trait anxiety, 20 items being devoted to each. The items are of a 4- point Likert type scale continuum from "very seldom" to "very often".

In view of the cultural differences and to avoid any misunderstanding regarding the content of the questionnaire for low-level students, the translated version of the questionnaire was employed (Sheikh rohani, 1999).

The developers of STAI computed a reliability check using both test-retest and internal consistency methods; the average of alpha cronbach was 0.92 for the state anxiety scale and 0.90 for the trait one. The test-test reliability coefficient was 0.33 for the state scale and 0.76 for the trait one (Sheikh rohani, 1999).

The developers of STAI did long and extensive studies to validate the items in STAI. Based on these studies the content of the items has had different changes and as a result, the validity of STAI has raised much; these studies to validate include factor analysis, convergent/divergent, concurrent and construct methods. (Sheikh rohani, 1999).

The reliability of the translated version of STAI was assessed internal reliability check using a sample of 600 subjects; and was found to be 0.91 for the state scale and 0.90 for the trait one, and 0.94 for the whole scale. The results of validation through concurrent method showed significant differences at 0.01 and 0.05 levels between the criterion and normal groups (cited in Sheikh rohani, 1999).

In the present study, an internal reliability check was also computed on Spielberger STAI (1983). Cronbach's alpha for the state anxiety scale was 0.92, and for the trait anxiety scale was 0.93. These results indicate that Spielberger STAI is satisfactorily reliable in terms of its internal consistency.

C. Procedure

1. Data collection

In October (2007), in the second month of the academic year, the participants completed both of the scales, that is, the APS and Spielberger STAI at the same time. The process of data collection took about one month.

Responding to the questionnaires was voluntary, that is, the researchers asked the students whether they would participate in the research or not. Moreover, this process was done with the permission of their teachers at the beginning of the classes.

Each participant needed almost 20 minutes to complete the scales. Before distributing the questionnaires, the researchers gave required instructions on filling out the questionnaires. Prior to responding to the questionnaires the, participants provided the following information at the top of the questionnaires: demographic variables (age, gender), student number, grade point average (GPA), and the course grades of reading1, 2, 3 for the skill of reading; speaking1, 2, oral production of stories1, 2 for the skill of speaking; grammar1, 2, developed writing, letter writing, and essay writing for the skill of writing, and listening1, 2 for the skill of listening.

Since it was not possible to obtain all of the students' scores from the registrar's offices of all universities, completed questionnaires were chosen randomly by the researchers and these students' scores and GPA were obtained from the registrar's offices in order to investigate the possibility of any lack of correspondence between the course grades reported by the participants themselves and the grades obtained from the registrar's offices. The correspondence between the two was 80%.

2. Data analysis

Based on the guidelines provided by the developers of APS the perfectionism scales were scored. The questions in APS are of a Likert-type scale with four possible answers to each of the questions. The scale ranges from 1(Never) to 4 (Very often). All of the positively worded statements, such as "I forget my defeats easily" and "other people live up with my expectations" were reversely scored. These items are numbers 11, 16, 22, 27 in the scale.

The Spielberger STAI (1983) was also scored based on the guidelines laid down by the developer of the questionnaire. The state and trait anxiety scales are Likert-type scales with four possible responses to each of the statements. The scale ranges from 1 (very little) to 4 (very much) in the state anxiety scale. The responses in the trait anxiety scale range from 1(almost never) to 4(almost always). Positively worded statements such as "I feel relaxed" were reversely scored. These items are 1, 2, 5, 8, 10, 11, 15, 16, 19, 20 in state anxiety scale, and items 21, 23, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33, 34, 36, 39 in the trait anxiety scale.

As for the statistical procedures used in this study, the main statistical technique applied to the data was a correlation between two sets of scores to investigate the possibility of any correspondence between them.

Pearson product-moment correlation was calculated between perfectionism scores, state anxiety, trait anxiety and the four skills of reading, speaking, listening, and writing using SPSS software (version 13). Pearson product-moment correlation was calculated, since according to Hatch and Lazerton (1998), it allows us to establish the strength of continuous variables.

To further analyze the data, t-tests were also run, that is, levels of perfectionism were compared in successful and unsuccessful seniors and juniors. Therefore, academic records were used to identify two groups of students: academically successful students (defined as those with a grade point average above 84%), and academically unsuccessful students (defined as those with a grade point average below 84%). These are not arbitrary criteria. For the students who participated in this study these values have important institutional implications: students in the successful group are considered to be top students and can take more courses for the next term to finish their studies sooner; students in the unsuccessful group are "rusticated" and will be asked to withdraw from the university if their GPA will be less than 59% for two more subsequent terms. The same criteria were set, in this study, to compare successful and unsuccessful students in reading, speaking, listening and writing. The following table illustrates the number of successful and unsuccessful groups in four skills and GPA.

TABLE 1:
THE NUMBER OF SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS IN FOUR SKILLS AND GPA

	reading	speaking	listening	writing	GPA
Successful	111	182	186	69	80
Unsuccessful	189	118	114	231	220

III. RESULTS

A. Whole Group

In the following section the results of correlational analyses related to each of the research hypotheses are presented:

H01: There is no relationship between learner perfectionism and reading.

TABLE 2:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERFECTIONISM, SKILLS, GPA, AND STATE/TRAIT ANXIETIES

	reading	speaking	listening	writing	GPA	state anxiety	trait anxiety
perfectionism	-.147*	-.234*	-.207*	-.104	-.128*	.656*	.757*

*p<0.05

As the table of correlations indicate, there is a significant relationship between the skill of reading and perfectionism (r=-0.14, p<0.05). The value of correlation coefficient is -0.14 and since sig is lower than p (0.05), the correlation is significant. Moreover, the value of the correlation coefficient is negative, meaning more perfectionism leads to lower reading skill. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected.

H02: There is no relationship between learner perfectionism and speaking.

As for the relationship between the skill of speaking and perfectionism, table 2 shows that a significant correlation exits (r= -0.23, p<0.05), again like the relationship between reading and perfectionism, here the value of the correlation coefficient is negative which is indicative of the fact that more perfectionist language learners get lower scores in the course of speaking So, the second null hypothesis is also rejected.

H03: There is no relationship between learner perfectionism and listening.

The third skill that is related to the psychological construct of perfectionism is the skill of listening. As table 2 indicates, the correlation coefficient is 0.20 and although small, is significant (r=-0.20, p<0.05). Like the other two skills, the value of correlation coefficient is negative, that is, more perfectionist students get lower scores in the course of listening. So, the third null hypothesis is also rejected.

H04: There is no relationship between learner perfectionism and writing.

As table 2 exhibits, no significant relationship exits between the skill of writing and perfectionism. The correlation coefficient is 0.10 but the relationship is not significant (sig>0.05). In other words, writing and perfectionism do not seem to be related in any meaningful way. So, among the four skills, writing is the only one which is not significantly related to the psychological construct of perfectionism. So, the null hypothesis is retained.

H05: There is no relationship between learner perfectionism and academic achievement (GPA).

The next relationship which is examined in this study is the relationship between students' GPA and their scores on perfectionism scale. Table 2 shows that a significant relationship exists between GPA and perfectionism (r=-0.12, p<0.05). Like the other correlations in this study, the relationship has a negative value meaning that more perfectionist students get lower GPA. So, the fifth null hypothesis is rejected.

H06: There is no relationship between learner perfectionism and state/trait anxieties.

The next relationship examined is that of state anxiety and perfectionism. As table 2 indicates, there is a significant relationship between these two psychological constructs (r=0.65, p<0.05). The value of the correlation coefficient is positive, showing that more perfectionist language students experience higher levels of state anxiety.

The relationship between trait anxiety and perfectionism was also investigated. As evident in table 2 a significant relationship exits between the students' scores on perfectionism scale and their scores on the Spielberger's trait anxiety scale (r=0.75, p<0.05). The positive value of the correlation coefficient is indicative of the fact that more perfectionist students experience higher levels of trait anxiety. So, the sixth null hypothesis is also rejected.

H07: There is no significant difference between gender and perfectionism.

TABLE 3:
T-TEST ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

Gender		N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean	t	Sig(2-tailed)
Perfectionism	Male	47	65.9362	12.33307	1.79896	-1.541	.124
	Female	253	69.0198	12.64172	.79478		

T-test was run to see if any significant difference exists between male and female with regard to their level of perfectionism. As shown in table 3, there is no significant difference between male and female groups in the level of perfectionism (t=-1.54, p>0.05). So, the null hypothesis is retained.

H08: There is no significant difference between learner perfectionism and age.

Different age groups (4 groups) were also compared with regard to their level of perfectionism. As shown in table 4 the result of one way ANOVA indicates that no significant difference exits between different age groups with regard to perfectionism (F= 0.17, p>0.05). So, the null hypothesis is retained.

TABLE 4:
ONE WAY ANOVA ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AGE GROUPS WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

	N	F	Sig
20-21	143		
22-23	108		
24-25	19	.170	.917
25-…	30		
Total	300		

B. Successful vs. Unsuccessful Students

Another statistical test (t-test) was also employed to further analyze the data related to the first four research hypotheses. Students were divided into successful and unsuccessful groups with regard to their scores in the four skills of reading, speaking, listening, and writing, and then t-test was run and levels of perfectionism were compared in successful and unsuccessful students. These statistical analyses yielded the following results.

TABLE 5:
T-TEST ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (IN READING) WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

	Success	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Perfectionism	successful	111	65.5405	12.27991	1.16556	-3.199	.002
	unsuccessful	189	70.2963	12.52177	.99		

As shown in table 5, there is a significant difference between the level of perfectionism of the two groups of successful and unsuccessful students with regard to the skill of reading (t=-3.19, p<0.05). It means that students in the successful group who are less perfectionist (mean=65.54) than unsuccessful students (mean=70.29) outperformed in the skill of reading.

TABLE 6:
T-TEST ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (IN SPEAKING) WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

	Success	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean	t	Sig(2-tailed)
Perfectionism	successful	182	66.5549	11.93744	.88486	-3.437	.001
	unsuccessful	118	71.5932	13.08633	1.20469		

As for the skill of speaking, table 6 indicates that there is a significant difference between successful and unsuccessful students in speaking with regard to their level of perfectionism (t=-3.43, p<0.05). Such a result is indicative of the fact that students in the successful group who are less perfectionist (mean=66.55) than those in unsuccessful group who are more perfect (mean=71.59) outperformed in speaking.

TABLE 7:
T-TEST ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (IN LISTENING) WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

	success	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig(2-tailed)
Perfectionism	successful	186	67.1129	12.08855	.88638	-2517	.012
	unsuccessful	114	70.8596	13.17673	1.23411		

Table 7 demonstrates the results obtained for the skill of listening. As shown in this table, like the other two skills, a significant difference exists between the level of perfectionism of successful and unsuccessful students in listening. It means that the students in the successful group who are less perfectionist (mean=67.11) than the students in the unsuccessful group who are more perfectionist (mean=70.85) did better in the skill of listening.

TABLE 8:
T-TEST ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (IN WRITING) WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

	Success	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean	t	Sig(2-tailed)
Perfectionism	successful	69	66.4783	13.12229	1.57974	-1547	.123
	unsuccessful	231	69.1515	12.43377	.81808		

As exhibited in table 8, there is no significant difference in the level of perfectionism of the two groups of successful and unsuccessful students in writing (t=-1.54, p>0.05).

TABLE 9:
T-TEST ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (IN GPA) WITH REGARD TO PERFECTIONISM

	success	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.ErrorMean	t	Sig(2tailed)
Perfectionism	successful	80	66.3250	12.70879	1.42089	-1.837	.067
	unsuccessful	220	69.3409	12.52458	.84441		

GPA was also another criterion to divide students into successful and unsuccessful groups. As demonstrated in table 9, no significant difference exits between successful and unsuccessful groups with regard to perfectionism (t=-1.83, p>0.05); although the difference between the groups is not statistically significant, the value of sig (0.067) is very near the probability level (0.05).

Altogether, further analyses (t-tests) came up with the same results (except for GPA) as correlational analysis, that is, significant differences obtained in t-tests supported the significant but low value of correlation coefficients of correlational analyses.

IV. DISCUSSION

As the section of results indicates among the four skills of reading, speaking, listening, and writing, the first three were significantly correlated with perfectionism. Since the value of correlation coefficients was negative, this finding is indicative of the fact that more perfectionist students get lower scores in the skills of reading, speaking, and listening.

According to Gregersen & Horwitz (2002), different symptoms of perfectionism in students seem to be counterproductive to any kind of learning, symptoms such as high performance standards, procrastination, long delays in completing assignments, error phobia, fear of negative evaluation, etc. For example fear of committing errors and negative evaluation of others are likely to be manifested in a student's overconcern with evaluation of his/her performance and competence in the target language. Such students would rarely start conversation and interact very little with other students in a speaking class. According to Gregerson and Horwitz (2002), such students tend to sit passively in the classroom, withdraw from activities that could increase their language skills, and may even avoid class entirely; they would want to speak flawlessly, with no grammatical or pronunciation errors, and as easily as a native speaker. Instead of presenting less-than perfect language skills and exposing themselves to the possible negative reactions of others, perfectionist students would prefer to remain silent, waiting until they are certain how to express their thoughts. So, it seems that rather than focusing on learning, perfectionist students spend their energy on avoiding mistakes.

Such excessively high standards for performance accompanied by overly critical self evaluations create the ideal condition for the development of language anxiety in perfectionist students which may be one of the possible factors contributing to lower achievement in language skills of perfectionist students.

According to Gregesen and Horwitz (2002), anxious learners tend to overestimate the number and seriousness of their errors whereas the non-anxious students tend toward underestimation. Moreover, anxious learners view their performance as being constantly evaluated by teachers and peers; whereas the non-anxious learners rely on self evaluation and generally evaluate themselves positively.

Being highly concerned about mistakes, as found by Frost, Turcotte, Heimberg, Mattia, Holt, and Hope (1995), is accompanied by negative affect, lower self confidence, and a greater feeling that they should have performed better on a task, greater distress regarding mistakes, lamenting mistakes to a greater degree, a greater concern over the negative reactions of others, and a greater desire to keep mistakes a secret. Such an array of negative affective reactions may also contribute to the lower achievement of such language learners.

All in all, it should be noted that anxiety and perfectionism make language learning an unpleasant experience and can be one possible contribution to the lower foreign language achievement levels in such students.

Along with the four skills, students' overall academic achievement (GPA) was found to be significantly correlated with their scores on perfectionism scale, and since the value of the correlation coefficient was negative, this result indicates that more perfectionist students have lower academic achievement. This finding of the present study can be interpreted in light of previous studies which examined the relationship between perfectionism and academic performance. The results of these studies consistently confirmed the hypothesis that symptoms of perfectionism in students can cause different problems such as more distress, academic procrastination, (Ferrari, 1992), academic burnout (Zhang et al, 2007), high concerns about mistakes (Frost et al.,1995), experiencing more negative affect around examinations (Brown et al., 1999), and many of other problems. So, maybe the lower academic achievement of more perfectionist students in academic courses can be attributed to such factors found in previous studies.

Consistent with many previous studies (e.g. Blankstein, Flett, Hewitt, & Eng, 1993), on the relationship between the two constructs of perfectionism and anxiety, results of the present study showed a significant positive correlation between perfectionism and both state and trait anxieties among students of English as a foreign language, meaning that more perfectionist students experience higher levels of state and trait anxiety. Such a relationship may be attributed to different features of perfectionism. As mentioned it was mentioned, perfectionists are individuals who believe that they

can and should achieve perfect performance, perceive anything less than perfect performance as unsatisfactory and are highly concerned about their mistakes. Thus, perfectionist individuals are likely to be unsatisfied with their performance and experience more anxiety.

As mentioned in the results section, the statistical analyses revealed that no significant difference exits between different age groups with regard to the construct of perfectionism. This is true of gender, that is, male and female students do not differ significantly in the level of perfectionism. So, the last two hypotheses of the present study are rejected meaning that students of different ages and sexes did not show any significant difference with regard to the scores they got on the perfectionism scale. However, more investigation with other larger groups is needed to see whether such a result is replicated.

V. CONCLUSION

As mentioned in the results section, the results of the correlational analyses and t-tests indicated a negative significant relationship between reading and perfectionism, that is, more perfectionist language learners get lower scores in the course of reading. This finding may be interpreted with reference to factors such as the reading skill, and what happens in our reading classes. Perfectionist students set high performance standards, are not satisfied with anything short of perfection, and are highly critical of mistakes. These characteristics of perfectionist individuals seem to be in contrast to what is involved in the process of reading. In reading a passage, sometimes the whole meaning of a sentence or paragraph cannot be achieved due to some cultural references or unknown words or structures. Therefore, the reader should be able to deal with some degree of certainty, should make the meaning using what he knows, and should sometimes guess to fill the gaps in his/her competence; a perfectionist seem to have difficulty in this regard. Moreover, perfectionist students experience higher levels of anxiety which may cause some difficulty with efficient use of reading strategies.

Besides, unfortunately our reading classes mostly center on translation, pronunciation practice, and detailed analysis of new words and altogether encourage intensive reading. Extensive reading and teaching strategies such as guessing which are overlooked in our classes can help learners to get away with their tendency to look up words they do not know and read for understanding a passage as a whole.

The relationship between perfectionism and speaking may also be interpreted with reference to characteristics of perfectionist individuals and also our speaking classes. Because perfectionist learners set high standards of performance, and are concerned with mistakes, they would not be satisfied with only communicating in a speaking class; they would want to speak without any pronunciation or grammatical errors. Therefore, they may withhold their guesses and prefer to remain silent. This characteristic of these learners will make them not to have enough classroom participation which may both affect their speaking practice and the teacher's overall evaluation of that silent student. Moreover, in some courses of speaking the teacher himself increases the students' error phobia by emphasizing different types of errors when a student starts speaking. Finally, higher degrees of anxiety in perfectionist learners can itself be an important factor contributing to lower speaking performance of such learners.

The association between perfectionism and listening could be attributed to characteristics of a perfectionist learner. Maybe, characteristics such as overconcern with mistakes, higher levels of anxiety, and consequent lower class participation contributes to lower achievement of more perfectionist learners in listening courses.

Writing and perfectionism were not found to be significantly related. This finding may be due to several factors. Perhaps, such courses as letter writing or grammar used as a measure of writing skill should not have been considered in this study, and more direct courses of writing such as paragraph development and advanced writing were more relevant. Another factor may be the subjective process involved in score giving of writing exams which may have affected the data in the present study. Anyhow, testing a larger population of language learners will give us more evidence to either confirm or reject such a result.

The relationship between state/trait anxieties and perfectionism seems to be sensible and logical. Higher levels of anxiety in more perfectionist learners can be attributed to high performance standards they set for themselves that cannot be met satisfactorily. Moreover, concern over mistakes and fear of negative evaluation can both cause perfectionist learners to experience higher levels of anxiety.

The results of this study also highlighted the association between students' GPA and the scores they get on the perfectionism scale. Factors such as procrastination in getting started, long delays in completing assignments, more anxiety for examinations may contribute to the lower overall academic achievement of more perfectionist students.

As another finding, different age groups do not differ in their perfectionism level. It seems that the construct of perfectionism remains fixed in different ages. The results of this study also did not show a difference in the perfectionism level between male and female students. It seems that this personal feature presents itself in both sexes with no difference.

Certain practical points can be discerned from the present study. These implications will be discussed in the following sections in some detail. The present study showed that how perfectionist tendencies in language learners are associated with low academic achievement in general and poor performance in different language skills. These findings can have several pedagogical implications for the authorities in charge of our educational system, for our language learners and teachers.

This study espouses the idea that following the standards or searching for "the best" cannot be much logical. In fact, it supports the ideas and ideals behind postmodern philosophy, a philosophy that along a wide variety of disciplines have influenced the field of English language teaching in western countries (Pishghadam & Mirzaee, in press). This philosophy is a reaction against absolutism and rejects the ideas of "the best" or "the perfect". In fact, relativism, "the better" rather than "the best" is valued in this mode of thought. Reducing individual differences and making students conform to and move toward one unified and global ideal is replaced, in this paradigm, by considering individual differences and each individual's construction of reality (Williams & Burden, 1997).

However, no vestige of this philosophy, which is practiced in academic circles in the western world, is witnessed in different levels of education, including English language teaching, in our country (Pishghadam & Mirzaee, in press). This study highlights this need for a shift from the modern era of education, to a constructivist, postmodern view, along with the shift which has occurred in the western world.

Students should become conscious that setting perfectionist high standards and striving for perfection may have a paralyzing effect on their achievement. As suggested by Ramirez (1999), perfectionists must learn to treat their unrealistic self-beliefs as hypotheses instead of facts. When an individual's underlying self-beliefs are restated as suggestions, the individual is often better able to consider a current situation in conjunction with other evidence, such as past experiences and opinions of others, in order to modify questionable beliefs (Ramirez, 1999).

Language learners should learn to set real goals for learning a language and avoid setting ideal and sometimes far-fetched goals for themselves. They should become aware that the notion of native speaker and defining one's foreign language proficiency in terms of a native speaker competence has been abandoned by the authorities (Widdowson, 2003; Seildhofer, 2000). They should know that we do not have one perfect form of English spoken by native speakers, rather we have different Englishes, and that a small percentage of L2 users can evolve into native speakers of the target language.

Though the focus of the present study was learner perfectionism, and the role of teacher perfectionism was not investigated, it seems likely that part of learner perfectionism, especially socially-prescribed perfectionism, can be shaped by teachers. Therefore, language teachers must be aware of how their personal preferences and beliefs about language learning can shape the students' ideas of what it takes to be a successful language learner.

Language teachers must know their crucial role as a person who carries much weight in the classroom and a model who is sometimes faithfully followed. They should be sensitized toward perfectionism in general as an educational problem that must be fully understood and efficiently handled.

Language teachers should become aware how their immediate and sometimes harsh reactions to an error can make a classroom a site of fear of anxiety, cause error phobia in learners, and make language learning an unpleasant experience for learners.

Teachers should be cautious not to shatter students' self-confidence which is according to Brown (2001) an important factor in what a learner achieves in learning a language. However, this factor is sometimes overlooked by teachers by an overemphasis on seemingly negative points, which, according to Seildhofer (2000), are not justified to be referred to as error, if the majority of the world's L2 English speakers produce and understand it.

So, language teachers should know how to treat errors and provide feedback to the learners. In fact, they should consider different treatment options; they should decide whether to treat or ignore, and if they want to treat, they should decide when to treat, who will treat, and how to treat a deviant form of English, not to cause error phobia, and fear of risk taking, or shatter students' self confidence.

Finally, it should be noted that nagging or criticizing perfectionist students or giving them additional time to complete assignments only encourage more perfectionism. Therefore, teachers are expected to try the following:

[1] building a friendly, supportive learning environment;

[2] establishing the expectation that mistakes are a normal part of the learning process;

[3] presenting themselves as helpful instructors concerned primarily with promoting student learning, rather than as authority figures concerned primarily with evaluating student performance;

[4] articulating expectations that express learning and improvement over perfect performance of assignments;

[5] explaining how perfectionism is counterproductive;

[6] reassuring perfectionist students that they will get the help they need to achieve success;

[7] following through with help, and communicating teacher approval of students' progress and accomplishments. (p.2, cited in Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002)

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A Review of Studies of the Role of Native Language

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Abstract—The role of the native language is a complex one, which influences the second language acquisition to some degree. Famous linguists and psychologists from different schools have got different opinions .The paper reviews and compares their ideas, analyzes the bodily manifestation of transfer as well as various factors influencing transfer.

Index Terms—behaviorist, rationalist, transfer

I. Brief History of Evolution

One of the most striking features that distinguish adult L2 learning from child L1 learning is the fact that prior to L2 learning, L2 learners have already had a fully developed native language system in their mind and don't start the L2 learning task completely new. To what extent L1 knowledge facilitates L2 learning has been a perennial issue in the SLA field. In the 1950s when behaviorism was in its prime, the L1 was considered as the single most important factor influencing L2 learning. Contrastive Analysis (CA) was the predominant tool used to locate surface L1-- L2 similarities and differences. But around 1960, Chomsky severely attacked behaviorist's view of language learning. According to his Creative Construction Hypothesis, L2 learning is guide by universal innate principles and treated as identical to L1 learning. A group of L2 researchers such as Dulay and Burt followed him and made a series of studies. Based on the results of their studies, they claimed that like L1 learning, L2 learners followed a natural order of acquiring L2 structures regardless of L1 influence, and L1 influence was minimized in the 1970s.

In spite of the decline of L1 influence in the 1970s, there has been a renewed interest in L1 transfer in the past 20 years or so. This is because L1 transfer is an omnipresent phenomenon throughout L2 learning, which researchers can't afford to ignore in their endeavor to reveal the cognitive mechanisms underlying L2 learning. According to Gass (1996), It has become clear that an explanatory account of L2 acquisition can't be given on the basis of the target language alone. As empirical research develops, the role of L1 in L2 acquisition is increasingly stressed, about which Linguists and psychologists from different schools such as Skinner, Odlin, Dulay etc have made lots of research and formed their own ideas.

II. Key Ideas from Different Schools

A. Behaviorists' Opinions

According to behaviorist learning theory, old habits get in the way of learning new habits, and SLA is strongly influenced by the learners'L1. There is a popular belief that the role of L1 in SLA is a negative one, that is, L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of L2.Some researchers like Bright and Mcgregor (1970) believed that where SLA is concerned, the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second. The notion of "interference" was the result of what was called "proactive inhibition". This is concerned with the way in which previous learning prevents or inhibits the learning of new habits. Where the first and second language share a meaning but express it in different ways, an error is likely to arise in L2 because the learner will transfer the realization device from his first language into the second. Therefore, the process of SLA is considered as that of overcoming the effect of L1,of slowly replacing the features of L1 that intrude into L2 with those of the target language, just as Marton (1981) has told us "taking a psychological point of view, we can say that there is never peaceful co-existence between two language systems in the learner, but rather constant warfare, and that warfare is not limited to the moment of cognition, but continues during the period of storing newly learnt ideas in memory" (P.150). That is to say, there is a process of automatic, uncontrolled and subconscious use of past learned behavior in the attempt to produce new responses, and this is called "transfer". In order to learn new language, the learner has to overcome the proactive inhibition, in this case, L1 transfer is considered negative. Others also believes that   when L1 and L2 habits are the same, no errors will occur, and the similarities between the first and second language may facilitate rapid and easy learning, in this case, the role of L1 in SLA is positive.

On the basis of Contrastive Analysis, they deal with the conditions under which interference takes place. In their minds, it is not possible to predict or explain the presence or absence of transfer errors solely in terms of linguistic differences between L1 and L2, and another two non-linguistic variables can help to determine whether and when

interference occurs. One possible variable is the setting in which SLA takes place, and the other may be the learner's stage of development.

B.   Rationalists' Opinions

In 1959, another linguists Chomsky reviewed Skinners' *Verbal Behavior*, and started his attack on behaviorists' accounts of language learning. He believes that language is somewhat innate, and that children are born with what he calls a Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which is a unique kind of knowledge that fits them for language learning. According to his "Innateness Hypothesis", he argued that language acquisition was developed in nature, driven as much from the inside as from the outside. He dismissed terms like "stimulus, imitation and reinforcement "etc., therefore, language learning could not be explained only in terms of habit-formation, in this case, the question arose as to what exactly interference consisted of. This belief also gained support from other linguists. Felix (1980) proposed that "…our data on L2 acquisition of syntactic structures in a natural environment suggest that interference does not constitute a major strategy in this area…it seems necessary to me to abandon the notion of interference as a natural and inevitable phenomenon in L2 acquisition' (P. 107). On their studies, Dulay and Burt (1973) argued that children do not organize the L2 on the basis of transfer or comparison with their L1, but rely on their ability to construct the L2 as an independent system, in much the same way as in L1 acquisition. They suggested that interference may be a major factor only in phonology.

C.   Reappraisal of the Role of L1

As time goes on, in recent years there has been a successful reappraisal of the role of the L1 in SLA. Wode (1976) argued that the notion of interference had to be developmentalized if it was to provided any fruitful insights, and he concluded that "certain conditions have to be met for what is commonly called interference to take place at all" (P.27). Empirical evidence showed that interference was more likely to take place when there was some similarity between the first and second language items than when there was total difference, and most important, it was recognized that error was a multi-factor phenomenon and that interference, as one of the factors, interacted in complex ways with other factors. Corder (1978) outlines one way in which "interference" can be recast as a learner "strategy". He suggests that the learner's L1 may facilitate the developmental process of learning a L2, by helping him to progress more rapidly along the universal route when the L1 is similar to the L2. Interference errors result not from negative transfer but from "borrowing". That is, when learners experience difficulty in communicating an idea because they lack the necessary target language resources, they will resort to their L1 to make up the insufficiency. In effect, Corder's proposal reframes the concept of "interference" as "intercession".

It is now widely accepted that the influence of the learners' native language can not be adequately accounted for in terms of habit formation, nor is transfer simply a matter of interference or of falling back on the native language, as other previously acquired second languages can also have an effect. This suggests that the term "transfer" itself is inadequate. Sharwood-Smith and Kellerman (1986) have argued that a superordinate term is needed and they coined the term "crosslinguistic influence". In their opinions, crosslinguistic influence is theory-neutral, allowing one to subsume under one heading phenomena such as 'transfer', 'interference', 'avoidance', 'borrowing' and L2-related aspects of language loss. Another famous linguist Odlin(1989)offers another definition of transfer. He comments that transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired.

III.   BODILY MANIFESTATION

Ellis (1994) argues that no theory of L2 acquisition is complete without an account of L1 transfer. Since the L1 system is highly automatized through repeated activation, L1 transfer occurs inevitably, and both the similarity and difference between L1 and L2 may lead to L1 transfer, which can be shown in the following forms:

A.   Negative Transfer

The 1960s saw a number of studies of linguistic errors produced by L1 learners. According to Richards, errors occurred primarily as a result of interference when learners transferred native language habits into L2. Interference was believed to take place whenever the habits of the native languages differed from those of L2. Lott (1983) distinguished three categories of transfer errors: (a) overextension of analogy occurs when the learner misuses an item because it shares features with an item in L1. (b) transfer of structure arises when the learner utilizes some L1 feature rather than that of the target language. (c) interlingual errors arise when a particular distinction does not exist in L1. Studies show that learners at an elementary level produced more transfer errors than learners at an intermediate or advanced level. In addition, according to Grauberg (1971), they are more common in the phonological and lexical levels of language than in the grammatical level.

B.   Positive Transfer

In some cases, when both the L1 and the L2 have the same form, pattern or rule, the transfer facilitates learning, and this is positive transfer, which results in correct performance, because the new behavior is the same as the old. For example, when Chinese speakers learn English, they learn the word of 'He comes from Beijing' very easily. It is just

because Chinese word order is similar to English word order. Ellis (1994) points out that the facilitative effect of L1 is evident in the early stages of acquisition before the learner is ready to construct a developmental rule. Because facilitation is not as evident as interference, Odlin (1989) argues that the facilitative effect of L1 depends on the reduced number of errors and the rate of learning.

C. Avoidance

Learners also avoid using linguistic structures which they find difficult because of differences between their L1 and L2. In Kellerman's (1992) opinion, avoidance is a complex phenomenon, which can fall into three types: (a) avoidance occurs when learners know or anticipate that there is a problem and have at least some sketchy idea of what the target form is like. This is the minimum condition for avoidance. (b) avoidance arises when learners know what the target is but find it too difficult to use in the particular circumstances. (c) avoidance is evident when learners know what to say and how to say it but are unwilling to actually say it because it will result in them flouting their own norms of behavior. Certainly much more is involved than learners' L1 in all these three cases. Both the extent of learners' knowledge of L2 and the attitudes learners hold toward the native and the target language cultures act as factors that interact with L1 knowledge to determine avoidance behavior.

D. Over-use

The over-use as a result of transfer can be shown in two ways: first, the over-indulgence of certain grammatical forms in L2 acquisition can occur as a result of intralingual processes such as overgeneralization. For example, L2 learners have often been observed to overgeneralize the regular past tense inflection to irregular verbs in L2. Second, over-use is also evident at the discourse level. According to Olshtain (1983), the native speakers of English who learned L2 Hebrew used more direct expressions of apology than native speakers of Hebrew and they tended to transfer this into L2 Hebrew.

IV. FACTORS INFLUENCING TRANSFER

A. Language Factors

Studies have shown that transfer may occur in different levels of language such as phonology, lexis, grammar and discourse etc, among which transfer at the level of phonology is the most obvious. The existence of "foreign accent" in L2 learning may clarify it. "Foreign accent" mainly results from the difference in phonemic inventory and pronunciation between L1 and L2. For example, the pronouncing pattern of Chinese is vowel or consonant-vowel, that is, V/CV pattern, whereas the pronouncing pattern of English word is vowel or vowel-consonant or consonant-vowel-consonant, that is, V/VC/CVC pattern. Consequently, vowel may often be added when Chinese students pronounce such words as /desks/, forming the pronunciation /desə kə s /. Likewise, foreign students can often read "nihào" instead of the correct one "nihǎo".

In grammar, transfer may also occur in word order, clause and negative structures. The position of adverbs is different in English and Chinese when they are used to modify verbs. In Chinese, adverbs are often put in front of verbs, whereas in English, adverbs are often put at the end of a sentence. Therefore, Chinese students may transfer Chinese word order into English, making such sentences as "I very much like beer". Thus it can be seen that the difference between L1 and L2 in different levels of language can result in transfer.

B. Non-language Factors

The purpose of learning L2 is to use it, so the social context and the relationship between speakers may influence L1 transfer. Odlin (1989) suggested there are two kinds of social context: focused context and unfocused context; the former is formal context where speakers constitute a "focused" community and as a consequence treat L1 forms as intrusive and even stigmatized, trying to maintain the standardness of L2; the latter is informal or natural context where speakers comprise an "unfocused" community, and therefore language mixing is freely permitted, thus encouraging negative transfer to take place. In terms of L1 transfer, the possibility of L1 interference in focused context is smaller than in unfocused context. For example, in English classroom, negative transfer is less common than in natural settings. Even if it occurs, it may be corrected in time.

The distance between L1 and L2 can also affect L1 transfer. Ellis points out that language distance can be viewed as both a linguistic phenomenon and a psycholinguistic phenomenon. The former refers to the degree of actual linguistic difference between two languages, the latter means the degree of difference between two languages in learners' opinion, which Kellerman (1979) called "psychotypology". This term reflects learners' perceptions about language distance. If learners perceive that there is a great difference between L1 and L2, then L1 transfer is unlikely to occur, otherwise it may do.

V. CONCLUSION

In sum, the role of the first language is a highly complex one. Although in popular belief SLA is strongly influenced by the learner's L1, there is considerable disagreement among researchers about the extent and nature of the role of the L1.Now it is clearly that the learner's L1 is an important determinant of SLA, but it is not the only determinant, and

may not be the most important. The L1 is a resource of knowledge which learners will use both consciously and subconsciously to help them sift the L2 data in the input and to perform as best as they can in the L2. Precisely when and how this resource is put to use depends on a whole host of factors to do with the formal and pragmatic features of the native and target languages and the learner's stage development and type of language use.

In our English teaching, we may find that most of students think in Chinese first and then translate when they learn English, so L1 transfer is unavoidable. Lado (1957) points out that the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them. Therefore, study on the role of native language is very important for us to know more about L2 acquisition, which must instruct our teaching and then improve our teaching quality.

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Cognitive Task Complexity and L2 Narrative Writing Performance

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Abstract—**The present study was an attempt to chart the effects of two task design features, namely pre-task planning time and immediacy on written narrative performance. This is of pronounced importance since the synergistic effects of these two task features have gone largely unheeded in task-based research except for a smattering of studies (e.g., Gilabert, 2007). Accordingly, 123 participants were assigned to one of the 4 groups in the study, i.e., No planning & Here-and-Now, No planning & There-and-Then, Planning & Here-and-Now, and Planning & There-and-Then to write out a narrative task based on a series of pictures. The participants' output was coded and measured for grammatical accuracy, syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, and fluency. Results showed that only pre-task planning time significantly promoted grammatical accuracy albeit with a small effect size. Pre-task planners complexified their discourse more than no-planners. In addition, displacedness of time and space coupled with pre-task planning led to significantly higher gains in syntactic complexity. However, lexical complexity measures did not yield any significant results across the groups of participants. Finally, both provision of pre-task planning time and immediacy of time and space led to significantly more fluent production.**

Index Terms—**pre-task planning time, immediacy, accuracy, syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, fluency**

I. INTRODUCTION

Roused by the vain quest for finding a nostrum to the mounting need of communication across the world, which has gone partially unfulfilled by the orchestration of both historic and current teaching paradigms, the fields of second language acquisition and language pedagogy in the 1970s were signposted by a flurry of research studies which challenged the choice of traditionally defined formal units of syllabus and alternatively opting for tasks to be capitalized on, developed and sequenced in order to approximate the demands of real world target tasks (Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1998). The resultant task-based craze spurred SLA researchers on to clinically define, experiment with, explore, and sequence the principal units of task-based instruction, tasks, in order to discern if they had any impact on learners' performance and development and if any, how they could be modulated to nudge learners' performance to measure up to the processing demands of real world performance.

This conviction begot a new strand of research into differential effects of modulation of task features on linguistic performance, namely information processing research. In information processing research on tasks, tasks are manipulated along their inherent complexity, their perceived difficulty, or the conditions under which they are completed in order for researchers to measure their effects on learners' comprehension, production, or development.

The role of attention and how it can be allocated to different aspects of production (accuracy, complexity, and fluency) has been a cornerstone of this line of research. Grounding their research in limited attentional capacity model (Huitt, 2003; Skehan, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 2001; VanPatten, 1992, 2002), one camp of researchers are in the conviction that in the wake of learners' limited attentional resources, discourse engendered by L2 learners would favor one area of performance (meaning) at the expense of another (form). This is the perspective which has garnered the most attention among task researchers. Based on empirical evidence for planning studies, Skehan (1998) and Skehan and Foster (1999, 2001) maintain that tradeoffs transpire between accuracy and complexity with fluency unscathed. A corollary of this proposal, which has morphed into a driving force behind task studies in the information processing tradition, is that learners' attention can be selectively channeled to certain aspects of production in which they are lacking so as to strike a balance between the three areas of production, i.e., accuracy, complexity, and fluency.

Pitted against the former proposal is the Cognition Hypothesis, also known as the Triadic Componential Framework, advanced by Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2007) which collapses task design features into three categories of task complexity, task conditions, and task difficulty. Task complexity is taken as a host of cognitive factors which is "the result of attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner" (Robinson, 2001a, p. 29). Task complexity further falls into resource-directing and

resource-dispersing dimensions.

The former pertains to task features, increases along which, according to Robinson, direct attentional resources to specific linguistic items of the language. This is based on Givon's (1985) proposal that greater linguistic complexity is latched onto greater functional complexity. This proposition seems at odds with that of Skehan (1998) in which more cognitively demanding tasks are presumed to take a heavier toll on performance than less cognitively demanding ones. Resource-directing dimensions include +/- few elements, +/- Here-and-Now, and +/- no reasoning demands.

On the other hand, the latter dimensions of task complexity are concerned with task features increments along which puts a cramp on attentional resources and working memory, thus, steering attention away from linguistic forms. Robinson's proposal in this regard chimes that of Skehan (1998). The resource-dispersing dimensions include +/- pre-task planning time, +/- single task, and +/- prior knowledge.

A.   Planning Time Studies

Historically a processing condition, planning time has for long commanded the attention of task researchers. It is a task feature whose findings have been largely stable across studies (Ellis, 2005). Planning studies more often than not have demonstrated that pre-task planning time fosters fluency and complexity of production. On the other hand, within-task planning has been shown to foster different aspects of performance than those of pre-task planning time. Thus, as Pica (1997) puts it, the study of planning time should be deemed a suitable forum for making a nexus between theory, research and pedagogy in SLA, as provision or absence thereof may aid language production and development.

To date, the majority of planning studies have explored the impact of planning on a single task type, a number of other studies, nonetheless, have examined differentials across several task types (Mehnert, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 1997; and Wiggleworth, 2001). Despite the fact that the preponderance of story-retelling in task types used in planning studies is conspicuous, an impressive array of other task types such as picture description, giving instructions, personal information exchange, telephone-answering machine messages, giving directions, general discussion questions, and decision making tasks has also been probed. Languages investigated thus far include English in most studies, Dutch (Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984), German (Mehnert, 1998), Spanish (Ortega, 1999), and Mandarin (Ting, 1996).

As explicated in the foregoing, pre-task planning time has conduced to relatively consistent results across studies. Much of the research to date has heralded gains in fluency (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Rouhi & Marefat, 2006; Mehnert, 1998; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Complexity has also been shown to be aided through strategic planning (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). However, findings with regard to accuracy are mixed.

Yuan and Ellis (2003) bifurcated planning into on-line planning and pre-task planning. It was shown that with respect to fluency, pre-task planners outperformed on-line planners. Regarding complexity measures, both planning groups obtained significantly higher complexified their speech more than no-planners. In terms of lexical variety, pre-task planners significantly outdid on-line planners. Finally, on-line planners generated significantly more accurate discourse than no-planners.

Ellis and Yuan (2004) looked into whether the effects of planning were sustained in narrative writing performance. Fluency results showed that pre-task planning conduced to higher gains in fluency. Planning in both planning groups engendered higher levels of syntactic complexity. In terms of syntactic variety, pre-task planners outdid no planners and on-line planners. In general terms, data gleaned from the questionnaire and interviews indicated that pre-task planners tried to understand the pictures, plan the organization of the narrative, plan its content in the time allocated for planning, and attended to language forms during the period earmarked for the actual performance, while no-planners and on-line planners needed to juggle these four aspects simultaneously.

Delving deeper into the role of different proficiency levels and pre-task planning in oral narrative performance, Kawauchi (2005) investigated three proficiency level groups' performance on narrative tasks. Planning was operationalized using three pre-task activities of rehearsal, reading a related L2 model, and writing a draft, for all of which 10-minute planning time was allowed. Participants first performed an unplanned version of the task. Having done a planning activity prior to the real performance, the participants executed the same task at the end.

It was found that strategic planning had promoted fluency, especially for the high proficiency group. However, the advanced proficiency group's fluency deteriorated by the provision of planning. In terms of complexity, the advanced group did not benefit much from planning. Significant accuracy gains were absent for the advanced group, too. The irregular past forms were the highest scoring accuracy measure for all three groups in the no-planning condition which was significantly promoted for all groups in the planned condition.

Voicing their dissenting view over the foregoing research agenda which has used short-running tasks preceded by the orthodox 10-minute pre-task planning time, Skehan and Foster (2005) examined the sustainability of the effects of strategic planning time during on-line execution of the task. Operationalizing planning at three levels (no planning, 10-minute unguided planning time, and 10-minute guided planning time), they crossed this variable with another task feature, namely introduction of extra information. The researchers found that strategic planning promoted performance in general across all aspects of production. No significant effects were detected for the influence of surprise information on production. In addition, results revealed that enhanced levels of performance could not be maintained for long periods, as learners' performance significantly deteriorated after five minutes of task execution.

In a laboratorial study Rouhi and Marefat (2006) investigated the effect of pre-task planning (three levels of no

planning in the oral mode, pre-task planning in the oral mode, and on-line planning in the written mode) on the performance of Iranian L2 learners in oral and written modes. It was found that pre-task planning conduced to significantly more fluent language than no planning. With regard to complexity, no significant differences were found across the three planning conditions. Finally, both planning groups significantly generated more accurate production compared to the no-planning group.

Gilabert (2007) explored the synergistic impacts of planning (0.50 seconds vs. 10 minutes) and +/- Here-and-Now on L2 oral narratives. The production measure for fluency, pruned speech rate, showed that planned Here-and-Now and Planned There-and-Then tasks conduced to significantly more fluent discourse than the unplanned tasks. As regards syntactic complexity, number of S-nodes per T-unit, no significant differences were registered across the planned and unplanned conditions. Regarding lexical complexity assessed by Guiraud's Index of lexical richness (type/√tokens), significantly more lexicalized language in the planned conditions was generated in comparison to the unplanned ones. Accuracy measures demonstrated slightly higher levels of accuracy for the planned conditions compared to the unplanned ones.

B. Immediacy Studies

The +/- Here-and-Now conditions are advanced anchored in evidence that reference to displaced time and space manifests itself at a later stage in the L1 development, given the conception that reference to events in the There-and-Then summons an array of cognitive operations and linguistic resources that are not at a child's disposal (Givon, 1985). This reference to There-and-Then calls for a certain gambit of conceptual ability to retrieve and to represent displaced events as well as the procedural ability to manage a conversation so as to provide the interlocutor with chances to shape and promote shared pragmatic presuppositions (Robinson, 1992). On the other hand, this presupposes access to a slew of code features, notably tense and aspect, to encode former events at a mutually agreed time (Wenzell, 1989). Hence, a language learner desiring to make displaced reference should be endowed with conceptual, procedural, and code knowledge.

Robinson (1995) concurs Givon's (1985) proposition on the grounds that the context-reduced There-and-Then is deemed to burden the limited attentional capacity of the learner, as the learner strives to infer and retrieve the stored information, whereas the Here-and-Now allows him/her to focus on fluent production.

These conditions can also be conceptualized in terms of memory demands (Ishikawa, 2007). The +/- Here-and-Now conditions are delineated by distinctive memory demands through the access to or absence of context support. This bears on how information is processed in the mind, as in light of the absence of visual support (- Here-and-Now), learners have to commit the plotline to memory; subsequently, they have to make an effort to retrieve the needed information from memory, and cohere the information into a unified narrative. Thus, this extra effort after understanding the narrative expands semantic representations in advance of task performance which may assist deeper semantic processing, hence complexification of the output.

In a seminal work, Robinson (1995), following Givon's (1985) remark that greater structural complexity is hitched to greater functional complexity, homed in on the dichotomy between Here-and-Now and There-and-Then. The Here-and-Now group outperformed the There-and-Then group almost significantly in terms of fluency. The lexical complexity measure demonstrated that more complex tasks (There-and-Then) would elicit more complex language. Accuracy was also encouraged by the There-and-Then task.

Ishikawa (2007) took up +/– Here-and-Now as the independent variable in his narrative writing study. The researcher found significant higher accuracy gains for target-like use of articles in the There-and-Then condition. Syntactic complexity scores were significantly higher in the There-and-Then condition. Lexical variation showed relatively higher use of different word types in the There-and-Then. With regard to fluency, the There-and-Then condition conduced to the generation of less fluent language.

Another Here-and-Now inquiry was conducted by Gilabert (2007) on L2 oral narrative discourse through crossing two task complexity indices (+/– Here-and-Now and +/– planning time). Accuracy was fostered in the – Here-and-Now. Regarding syntactic complexity, the prediction that more complex tasks generate higher syntactic complexity was not borne out. As regards lexical complexity, the participants produced a less lexically complex story in the complex conditions (There-and-Then). Finally, the production measure for fluency exhibited more dysfluent speech in the – There-and-Then conditions.

Rahimpour (2007) in a further study explored the effects of manipulation of +/- Here-and-Now on oral performance of EFL learners. The results indicated that the participants' accuracy improved significantly in the complex task (There-and-Then). However, the Here-and-Now condition gave rise to more fluent and more complex language.

The present study sought to account for the effects of manipulating task complexity along two dimensions of +/- Planning time and +/- Here and Now (Robinson, 2001b) on L2 writing performance in order to test and compare Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2007) and Skehan and Foster's Limited Attentional Capacity Model (Skehan, 1998; Skehan and Foster, 1999, 2001). This inquiry seems to be of consequence since, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no study to date has measured the possible performance differentials of the manipulation of both resource-directing dimensions (+/- Here and Now) and resource-dispersing dimensions (+/- Planning time) of task complexity on L2 written performance.

If the simultaneous manipulation of resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions has different bearings on

performance from what have been previously found investigating each separately, the corresponding proposals should factor in the potential effects of manipulation differentials of both resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions. Secondly, it is sought to see if the predictions made by the Cognition Hypothesis and Limited Attentional Capacity Model hold for the impact of task index differentials on narrative writing tasks, as they have on oral narratives.

The following research questions have led the course of the present investigation:

1. Does simultaneous manipulation of task complexity along planning time and immediacy affect written production in terms of grammatical accuracy?

2. Does simultaneous manipulation of task complexity along planning time and immediacy affect written production in terms of syntactic complexity?

3. Does simultaneous manipulation of task complexity along planning time and immediacy affect written production in terms of lexical complexity?

4. Does simultaneous manipulation of task complexity along planning time and immediacy affect written production in terms of fluency?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

One hundred twenty three Iranian intermediate EFL learners of English, 73 males and 50 females, aged between 18 and 45, from twelve intact mixed sex classes served as the participants in this study. The participants had been selected from a pool of 175 Iranian EFL learners who had been placed in the same level of English class by either an institutional placement test or a final examination composing of a written examination and an oral interview at Farhikhtegane Daneshgah Institute. The participants' experience with English was limited to their instructional setting. At the time of data collection, the participants were studying New Interchange 2.

Following a recommendation in Ellis & Yuan's (2004) study, in order to "ideally" ensure homogeneity of the groups studied in terms of general proficiency, a similar narrative task as the one used in the main study minus planning time and in the + Here-and-Now was administered as a proficiency test and subsequently the participants' written output was rated and further assessed in terms of analytic ratings, grammatical accuracy, structural complexity, and fluency. Hence, the present study used both program level and a writing pre-test to check the homogeneity of the groups of participants. In terms of the latter, the participants were collapsed into four groups for which no significant differences were found across the groups of participants in terms of analytic ratings, grammatical accuracy, syntactic complexity, and fluency.

B. Materials

The structured narrative task used in this study consisting of twelve picture strips was taken from Quino (Salvador, 1985). The reasons behind choosing a narrative task were their being non-interactive and thus openness to greater control (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005) and also comparison with studies of planning and +/- Here-and-Now which have used comparable tasks (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Gilabert, 2007; Rahimpour, 2002, 2007; Robinson, 1995).

C. Procedures

The twelve groups of participants collapsed into four conditions; thereby rendering four groups for data collection (See Table 1).

Condition 1: + Here-and-Now & + Planning
Condition 2: - Here-and-Now & + Planning
Condition 3: + Here-and-Now & - Planning
Condition 4: - Here-and-Now & - Planning

Following Gilabert (2007), Ishikawa (2007), Rahimpour (2002, 2007), and Robinson (1995), the context-supported + Here-and-Now in the present study was the condition in which learners had recourse to picture series throughout task completion so as to prompt the participants to refer to the immediate environment of the narrative and the participants had to narrate the events in the present tense (Appendix A). Conversely, context-reduced – Here-and-Now was when learners had no access to the picture strips after pre-task planning time so as to urge reference to the absent environment and the participants had to narrate the story as if happening in the past (Appendix B).

As regards pre-task planning time, another task feature manipulated, learners in the planning groups had 14 minutes to complete the task, the time of which had been established through a pilot study plus 10 minutes for pre-task planning. In contrast, in the no planning groups, in spite of the fact that learners had 14 minutes to execute the task, they had 50 seconds to look at the picture set to make out the story before writing out the story embedded in the pictures. The time for pre-task planning was selected following Ellis & Yuan (2004), Foster & Skehan (1996), Gilabert (2007), Mehnert (1998), Ortega (1999), and Yuan & Ellis (2003). During pre-task planning, participants were supposed to plan their writing in terms of language, organization, and content, following foregoing research (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996); however, no specific guidance with regard to planning for form, organization, or content was provided. A note sheet was provided for learners to plan their production while looking at the task. The piece of paper was collected upon the completion of 10 minutes of planning, with learners' prior knowledge, so as to preclude any attempts at using the exact lexical items in the writings, following previous research (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004).

TABLE 1
EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Here-and-Now No-planners	Here-and-Now Planners	There-and-Then No-planners	There-and-Then Planners
G1 (n = 30)	G2 (n = 31)	G3 (n = 30)	G4 (n = 32)
50 seconds for planning	10 minutes for planning	50 seconds for planning	10 minutes for planning
14 minutes to perform the task	14 minutes to perform the task	14 minutes to perform the task	14 minutes to perform the task
Picture set accessible during execution	Picture set accessible during execution	Picture set inaccessible during execution	Picture set inaccessible during execution

Accordingly, having been provided with a piece of paper to write notes upon during the pre-task planning stage, the + Here-and-Now planners were supposed to plan for the ensuing performance over a spell of 10 minutes; however, they were told not to write out the whole story. Following Ellis & Yuan (2004), Mehnert (1998), and Yuan & Ellis (2003), the participants in this group had also been notified that their notes would be collected after their pre-task planning time. This procedure was utilized immediately after pre-task planning to ensure that the language produced by the task was produced within the specified time (Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). They were also instructed to write at least 150 words and that the task had to be completed in 14 minutes. Embracing Rouhi and Marefat's (2006) approach, the time limit for task execution was established based on a pilot study in which similar participants had to write out the same narrative as the one used in the main study in at least 150 words. No time limit was fixed. All times were jutted down and then averaged to set a time limit for the study. The resultant mean, and thereby the time limit, was 14 minutes. Following Ellis and Yuan (2004) and Yuan and Ellis (2003), this procedure was implemented so as to curb large scale on-line planning. During task execution, the picture set remained accessible for the participants in this group.

Similarly, the − Here-and-Now planners were allowed to plan their upcoming narratives in 10 minutes with the provision of, and pursuing removal of, sheets of paper for note-taking, while looking at the picture set. However, the notes and the picture set were immediately removed after the pre-task planning stage. The participants in this group had 14 minutes to narrate the story in at least 150 words in written form. The only difference between this group and + Here-and-Now planners was that the former had to retrieve the story from their memory, while the latter had recourse to the picture story during task completion.

The + Here-and-Now no-planners had only 50 seconds to just make out the story in the pictures; no pieces of paper were provided for note-taking. Pursuant to the pre-task planning stage, with the provision of answer sheets, the participants commenced narrating the story while looking at the picture set. The written narratives had to be completed in 14 minutes and had to be at least 150 words.

The − Here-and-Now no-planners were allowed only 50 seconds to make sense of the story narrated by the picture set. No note-taking was done during this stage. Subsequently, the picture sets were removed, forcing the participants to retrieve and narrate the story from their memory. The participants in this group had to write at least 150 words in 14 minutes.

D. Data Analysis

In order to run the measures of production, all the narratives produced were typewritten in MS word documents and then coded by the researchers. In order to assess grammatical accuracy, three production measures were utilized: the percentage of error-free clauses (EFC), the number of errors per 100 words (NER), and target-like use of English articles (TLU). These measures reflected those implemented in previous studies of planning (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004, Foster & Skehan, 1996; Ishikawa, 2007; Sangarun, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2004). The first two indices, EFC and NER, are textbook examples of global grammatical accuracy measures in planning research, whereas the last measure was a specific measure of accuracy. The reason for the inclusion of EFC and NER was the argument made by Foster & Skehan (1996) who recommended global measures over specific measures of accuracy inasmuch as the former deal in all contributory influences on error and correctness, while the latter do not. The third measure of accuracy was target-like use of articles which reflects the assumption that greater linguistic complexity is latched onto greater functional complexity (Givon, 1985) which, due to the absence of shared context, can be captured in the form of greater accuracy of articles (Robinson, 1995). In this regard, misspellings between a and an were ignored. The number of errors per 100 words was initially used by Mehnert (1998) in order to compensate for the shortcoming of error-free clauses which do not differentiate between clauses with one or more errors. T-units were taken as the clauses which encompassed a main clause in addition to any subordinate clauses (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985). Sentence fragments were not regarded as T-units. Clauses were operationalized as those which had finite verbs (Polio, 1997).

An error was operationalized as any deviation in syntax, morphology and lexical choice, but not in punctuation or capitalization following Ellis & Yuan (2004). EFC was assessed through the calculation of the number of error-free clauses divided by the total number of clauses multiplied by 100.

Complexity indices consisted of two production measures: the number of S-nodes per T-unit (S-nodes/T), and the number of clauses divided by the number of T-units (C/T). Following Mehnert (1998), S-nodes included both finite and nonfinite clauses.

Lexical complexity was coded through the percentage of lexical to function words (L/F) and Mean Segmental Type-Token Ratio (MSTTR), capturing Ellis & Yuan (2004), Malvern & Richards (2002), Malvern, Richards, Chipere, & Duran (2004) and Yuan & Ellis's (2003) analyses. Hyphenated words were calculated as a single word and adverbs ending in – ly were considered as a lexical word (Gilabert, 2007; Ishikawa, 2007).

L/F was the percentage of lexical words divided by the number of function words. Type/token ratio (TTR) has been an orthodox lexical complexity measure in task-based studies; however, what a good deal of studies have taken for granted is the fact that TTR is overly sensitive to sample size (Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998). Therefore, one viable measure of lexical variation deemed to be independent of text length was run, namely MSTTR. Following Ellis & Yuan (2004) and Yuan & Ellis (2003), for the calculation of this index of lexical complexity, each narrative was chunked into segments of 40 words and the Type-Token Ratio of each segment was computed by dividing the total number of words by the total number of different words in the segment. Subsequently, the MSTTR (Malvern & Richards, 2002) was calculated by adding the mean score of the segments and dividing the total by the total number of segments in the text for each participant.

Fluency was established through the calculation of the number of dysfluencies and length of text (TXL). Hyphenated words were counted as one word (Gilabert, 2007; Ishikawa, 2007).

After coding of the data was completed by one of the researchers, 15% of the data was coded by a second rater. An interrater reliability coefficient of greater than .82 was achieved for each measure. However, the reliability coefficients for the lexical complexity measures clocked lower. To obviate this problem, after a discussion session between the researchers and the independent rater, the data for these measures were re-coded. This time, the inter-rater reliability reached .84 and .81 for MSTTR and the percentage of lexical to function words, respectively.

As regards the dataset, the normal distribution of the four groups' scores was tested in terms of skewness, kurtosis, the test for normality, namely the Shapiro-Wilk test, and tests of homogeneity of variance. Moreover, boxplots were generated so that outliers could be detected. In cases of normal distribution of scores, two-way between subjects ANOVAs were run for which main effects and partial eta squared (Cohen, 1988) were reported (0.01 = small, 0.06 = medium, 0.14 = large). In cases of nonnormal distribution of scores or of heterogeneity of variance, two-way between subjects ANOVA's nonparametric equivalent, namely the Kruskal-Wallis test was run.

III. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics for the measures of grammatical accuracy, syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, and fluency are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY, SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY, LEXICAL COMPLEXITY, AND FLUENCY ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Dependent variables		No planning		Planning	
		Here-and-Now	There-and-Then	Here-and-Now	There-and-Then
Accuracy					
% of EFC	Mean	69.71	68.92	74.57	72.82
	SD	10.07	9.69	13.05	12.27
NER	Mean	8.73	8.96	7.90	8.00
	SD	2.34	2.17	2.27	1.97
% of TLU	Mean	63.57	70.70	68.53	67.34
	SD	10.64	10.98	9.75	9.80
Syntactic Complexity					
S-nodes per T-unit	Mean	1.40	1.37	1.58	1.67
	SD	.18	.13	.16	.15
Clauses per T-unit	Mean	1.17	1.17	1.22	1.28
	SD	.08	.05	.07	.08
Lexical complexity					
L/F	Mean	75.05	70.26	73.76	74.35
	SD	7.59	8.04	9.21	8.89
MSTTR	Mean	.76	.78	.80	.78
	SD	.05	.07	.06	.04
Fluency					
Dysfluencies	Mean	8.26	9.89	6.15	8.91
	SD	2.70	2.65	1.83	1.68
TXL	Mean	138.93	132.93	157.74	147.90
	SD	22.66	20.78	15.39	18.34

The Shapiro-Wilk test showed that the data for the percentage of error-free clauses, the number of errors per 100 words, the number of S-nodes per T-unit, the number of clauses per T-unit, MSTTR, and the number of dysfluencies in the text were shown to be normal. That leaves the data for percentage of targetlike use of English articles and the percentage of lexical to function words for which data were found to be nonnormal. Hence, with respect to the former, two-way between subjects ANOVAs were conducted (Table 3). As regards the latter, the two-way between subjects ANOVA's equivalent, namely the Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 4) was conducted ensued by the Mann-Whitney U tests

(Table 5).

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF TWO-WAY BETWEEN-SUBJECTS ANOVAS FOR GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY, SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY, LEXICAL COMPLEXITY, AND FLUENCY ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Independent variables	Measures	SS	df	MS	F-Value	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Planning time	% of EFC	589.278	1	589.278	4.539	.035*	.037
	NER	24.663	1	24.663	5.122	.025*	.041
	% of TLU	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	S-nodes per T-unit	1.804	1	1.804	69.748	.000*	.371
	Clauses per T-unit	.188	1	.188	31.568	.000*	.210
	% of L/F	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	MSTTR	.009	1	.009	2.522	.115	.021
	Dysfluencies	73.282	1	73.282	14.421	.000*	.108
	TXL	8766.609	1	8766.609	23.198	.000*	.163
Context	% of EFC	49.900	1	49.900	.384	.536	.003
	NER	.863	1	.863	.179	.673	.002
	% of TLU	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	S-nodes per T-unit	.023	1	.023	.876	.351	.007
	Clauses per T-unit	.019	1	.019	3.103	.081	.025
	% of L/F	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	MSTTR	6.385	1	6.385	.017	.896	.000
	Dysfluencies	147.282	1	147.282	28.984	.000*	.196
	TXL	1926.403	1	1926.403	5.098	.026*	.041
Planning time * Context	% of EFC	7.070	1	7.070	.054	.816	.000
	NER	.133	1	.133	.028	.868	.000
	% of TLU	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	S-nodes per T-unit	.117	1	.117	4.521	.036*	.037
	Clauses per T-unit	.028	1	.028	4.701	.032*	.038
	% of L/F	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
	MSTTR	.008	1	.008	2.230	.138	.018
	Dysfluencies	9.878	1	9.878	1.944	.166	.016
	TXL	113.021	1	113.021	.299	.585	.003

* = Statistically significant at p < .05

TABLE 4
RESULTS OF KRUSKAL-WALLIS TESTS FOR THE PERCENTAGE OF TLU AND THE PERCENTAGE OF L/F ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Dependent variables	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
% of TLU	6.652	3	.084
% of L/F	6.648	3	.084

* = Statistically significant at p < .05

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY U TESTS FOR THE PERCENTAGE OF TLU AND THE PERCENTAGE OF L/F ACROSS THE FOUR GROUPS

Dependent variables	Comparison	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
% of TLU	Planning vs. No planning	1829.000	3659.000	-.309	.758
	Here-and-Now vs. There-and-Then	1555.000	3446.000	-1.700	.089
% of L/F	Planning vs. No planning	1658.000	3488.000	-1.174	.240
	Here-and-Now vs. There-and-Then	1608.500	3561.000	- 1.429	.153

* = Statistically significant at p < .05

As can be seen in Table 3, in terms of the percentage of error-free clauses, provision of pre-task planning time significantly fostered accuracy; nonetheless, the effect was not meaningful owing to the small effect size (F (1, 119) = 4.539, p = .035, $\eta p2$ = .037). However, no significant effect was registered as a function of manipulation of immediacy (F (1, 119) = .384, p = .536). Furthermore, the interaction between the two independent variables was found to be marginal (Planning time * Immediacy: F (1, 119) = .054, p = .816). The same holds as far as the second measure of accuracy, namely the number of errors per 100 words is concerned for planning time, immediacy, and their interaction (F (1, 119) = 5.122, p = .025, $\eta p2$ = .041, F (1, 119) = .179, p = .673, Planning time * Immediacy: F (1, 119) = .028, p = .868, respectively). As regards the last measure of accuracy, the percentage of targetlike use of English articles, there was no significant difference across the groups of participants (x 2 = 6.652, df = 3, p = .084). Furthermore, Mann-Whitney U tests did not show any significant differences in the no-planning vs. planning groups and Here-and-Now vs. There-and-Then groups (z = - .309, p = .758, z = -1.700, p = .089, respectively). In light of the significant effects of manipulation of pre-task planning time found by two of the measures on accuracy, the first null

hypothesis was disconfirmed.

As is clear in Table 3, with respect to the first measure of syntactic complexity, the number of S-nodes per T-unit, the planning groups significantly outperformed their no-planning counterparts, the effect size of which was very large (F (1, 119) = 69.748, p = .000, ηp2 = .371). In spite of the fact that immediacy of time and space did not exert a significant influence (F (1, 119) = .876, p = .351), the interaction between pre-task planning time and immediacy significantly influenced performance; i.e., the effect of planning impinged on immediacy so much so that the planners' output was further promoted by the There-and-Then task (Planning time * Immediacy: F (1, 119) = 4.521, p = .036, ηp2 = .037). The same findings were borne out by the number of clauses per T-unit for planning, immediacy, and their interaction (F (1, 119) = 31.568, p = .000, ηp2 = .210, F (1, 119) = 3.103, p = .081, F (1, 119) = 4.701, p = .032, ηp2 =.038, respectively). In the wake of these findings, the second null hypothesis was rendered untenable.

Concerning the lexical complexity measures, no significant differences were found across the groups of participants in terms of lexical to function words   (x 2   = 6.648, df = 3, p = .084). Furthermore, subsequent Mann-Whitney U tests did not show any significant differences in the planning vs. no planning groups (z = - 1.174, p = .240) and in Here-and-Now vs. There-and-Then groups (z = - 1.429, p = .153). As far as MSTTR is concerned, the difference across the groups of participants did not reach statistical significance for either planning time, immediacy, or their interaction (F (1, 119) = 2.522, p = .115, F (1, 119) = .017, p = .896, F (1, 119) = 2.230, p = .138). Hence, the third null hypothesis was confirmed.

Finally, fluency measures revealed significant main effects for both independent variables. Increments along planning time significantly reduced the number of dysfluencies in the text and encouraged lengthier texts with a moderate effect size for the former and a moderate one for the latter (F (1, 119) = 14.421, p = .000, ηp2 = .108, F (1, 119) = 23.198, p = .000, ηp2 = .163, respectively). Moreover, displacedness of time and space significantly increased dysfluencies in the text and shortened text length which was largely and minimally meaningful, respectively (F (1, 119) = 28.984, p = .000, ηp2 = .196, F (1, 119) = 5.098, p = .026, ηp2 = .041, respectively). No significant interaction was found between the two independent variables in terms of the number of dysfluencies in the text and the length of text (F (1, 119) = 1.944, p = .166, F (1, 119) = .299, p = .585, respectively). Therefore, the last null hypothesis was dispelled.

IV.   DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Findings regarding grammatical accuracy have widely diverged in planning research. In the main, the findings of the present study converged on those which have found a diminutive impact of planning on L2 production in terms of accuracy (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). This may be due to the assumption that pre-task planning does not channel attention toward specific features of the code; hence, it does not facilitate focus on form. Even if it does, as Ortega (2005) has stated the effect of pre-task planning on accuracy is implicated, when higher proficiency levels are targeted.

As accuracy scores of groups of participants showed that those in the planning conditions outperformed those in the no-planning conditions in two of the measures (the percentage of error-free clauses and the number of errors per 100 words), this may be due to the assumption that some monitoring did take place during pre-task planning time; however, the processing load of on-line performance may have circumscribed some of the monitoring transpired. This is further advocated by Wendel (1997, as cited in Sangarun, 2005) who surmised that monitoring of output prior to task performance does not exert an influence on monitoring of output during execution of the task.

However, as the percentage of target-like use of English articles goes, there were no stable results. This finding may spring from the assumption that proper use of the article system may emerge relatively late in language development (Pourreza, 2005). So as the participants in the study were not from an advanced proficiency group, their slippage with regard to accurate use of English articles was evident.

Moreover, findings regarding the effect of manipulation of immediacy on accuracy converged on those of Gilabert (2007) regarding error-free clauses and percentage of target-like use of articles and partially with those of Ishikawa (2007).

Gilabert (2007) questions the sensitivity of general and specific measures of accuracy in registering subtle differences across simple and complex tasks. So he calls for the development of other more sensitive measures like those used by Gilabert (2007), percentage of self-repairs and the ratio of repaired to unrepaired speech.

It can also be argued that by and large Here-and-Now studies have been orally-oriented. Skehan (1998) argues that modality plays an incremental role in the amount of cognitive load and allocation of attention, as the real-time processing demands of spoken language leave little leeway for attention to form, whereas writing may give more space to learners to steer their attention to form. Thus, some monitoring may have taken place in both simple Here-and-Now and complex There-and-Then conditions which induced both groups to do equally well on accuracy measures.

As regards syntactic complexity, the findings of the present investigation aligned with those of previous research regarding syntactic complexity (Ellis & Yuan; 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Ortega, 1999; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 1997, 2005; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). It can be hypothesized that provision of pre-task planning time may give learners some leeway to think about the content and rhetorical organization of their output and encourage them to take risks and demonstrate their newly assimilated cutting-edge language features. On the other hand, manipulation of immediacy per se did not conduce to greater syntacticization which may have come about as the result

of the monologic nature of the tasks that may have lowered the chances of gains in syntactic complexity or their limited proficiency. A surprising finding in the study was that despite the fact that manipulation of immediacy did not influence complexity of discourse, increments in task complexity along immediacy did further solidify the effect of provision of pre-task planning on syntactic complexity. This means that simultaneous manipulation of pre-task planning time and immediacy does impact the quality of language in the sense that the effect of provision of pre-task planning time is heightened by the increments in immediacy (There-and-Then condition).

This finding can be interpreted in terms of memory demands. The There-and-Then task forced differential memory demands on learners from those of the Here-and-Now task, as the participants in the There-and-Then groups had to commit the story to their memory and subsequently retrieve it from their memory so that they were able to generate a coherent narrative. This may have pushed them to ponder on the storyline of the picture set, to infer the liaisons between events, and to make larger pieces of information to ease memory encoding, storage, and retrieval, thereby implicating deeper semantic processing (Robinson, 1995).

In planning research, most studies have opted out of measuring lexical complexity which might be due to its elusive nature. In the present study, lexical complexity measures demonstrated diminutive effects occasioned by manipulation of planning time and immediacy on written performance. This may have transpired as a result of limited proficiency of learners which may have engendered a ceiling effect for lexicalization of output. Another bone of contention is the potential difference between lexical sophistication measures and lexical range measures. Ortega (1999) argues that previous research, which has found significant gains for lexical complexity as the result of planning, has run mostly lexical sophistication measures not lexical range measures. The present study conducted lexical range measures in lieu of lexical sophistication measures. Finally, the storyline of the picture series might have fettered the use of more lexicalized language, as lexical range may be enmeshed with the story narrated by the pictures.

Similarly, manipulation of immediacy did not significantly impact lexical complexity of L2 learners' production. Although the higher memory demands brought to bear by the There-and-Then task may have induced learners to try to retrieve the storyline and to cohere a text together, thereby implicating deeper semantic processing and creating more elaborated semantic representations, this mental effort after understanding meaning seemed to have been more directed at mobilizing more cutting-edge knowledge of grammar than at using more lexical words. A second possibility may be that the picture set did not call for more diverse lexical items.

Finally, the findings of the present study bore out those of earlier research with respect to the effect of pre-task planning on fluency, as fluency was promoted in the present study as a function of planning. The fact that pre-task planners generated longer texts in the present study points to the assumption that they had probably conceptualized their propositional content, rehearsed their message, and written to remember their message. Therefore, over the course of task completion, the planners were less incurred by the cognitive load exacted by task demands and were able to set their mind to producing a more embellished text, which contained more elaboration, details or interpretations. The other measure, the number of dysfluencies in the text, also showed that provided with planning time, learners may come up with newly developed plans through macro- and micro-planning. Then, having identified the problem spots, they either work on them or circumvent them. They may also review, rehearse, and memorize their notes. These strategies are expected to buy them time during on-line performance, as the cognitive load of real-time performance is mitigated. Therefore, dysfluencies during completion of task proper are expected to diminish.

Findings with respect to the effect of manipulation of immediacy on fluency of written production were consonant with those of previous +/- Here-and-Now studies (e.g., Gilabert, 2007; Rahimpour, 2002, 2007; Robinson, 1995). The findings of the present study endorsed the notion that the lesser memory demands triggered by the Here-and-Now task would go a long way in fostering fluency of production in terms of length of text and the number of dysfluencies. In the Here-and-Now task, in light of the conviction that the situational knowledge can be tapped into, memory demands were less taxing and there was no need for the construction of deeper semantic representations; thus, attention could be allocated to the production of a more fluent speech.

In general terms, the present study demonstrated that manipulation of pre-task planning time and immediacy influenced L2 written narrative production in terms of both quantity and quality. Quantitatively, both pre-task planning time and immediacy led to differential fluency gains. Qualitatively, syntactic complexity of written output was influenced by manipulation of pre-task planning time; moreover, although it did not affect syntactic complexity directly, increases in task complexity along immediacy were conducive to a greater propitious effect of pre-task planning time. This was the most interesting finding of the study, as it points up at a key synergistic effect of these two variables, i.e, in terms of syntactic complexity, their effects are contingent upon each other.

The findings of the present study lent strong empirical support for Skehan and Foster's Single Resource Limited Attentional Capacity Model (Skehan, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 2001). Overall, the present investigation found strong empirical support for the former view of attention allocation policies, as higher complexity scores were not met with higher accuracy scores. It seems that learners had available attentional resources to allocate to only syntactic complexity with which accuracy could not keep pace. Therefore, accuracy and syntactic complexity seem to have been in competition for attention with no deteriorating effects for fluency. This runs counter to Robinson's (2001a, 2001b) claim that fluency and accuracy/complexity are in competition for attention.

Given the assumption that in view of their limited attentional resources, L2 learners can fall behind on at least one

area of production (accuracy, complexity, or fluency), teachers should manipulate task features so that they could selectively channel learners' attention to the areas of production in which they fail. This is of import since previous research has shown that learners' limited attentional resources make them prioritize one aspect of production (meaning) over form (VanPatten, 2002). Therefore, if attention is not selectively channeled to strike a balance between the three areas of development (accuracy, complexity, and fluency), learners will progress in some areas at the expense of other areas of development.

From the foregoing, it seems that task-based research studies offer many avenues for research which could be explored so that the effects of different task features can be charted. It is hoped that through this line of research design features of tasks can be identified as much as possible so that tasks can be developed in ways to channel learners' attention to different aspects of production so that a balanced interlanguage could follow.

APPENDIX A   THE HERE-AND-NOW TASK

Prompt for the Here-and-Now conditions (Here-and-Now & No planning and Here-and-Now & Planning):
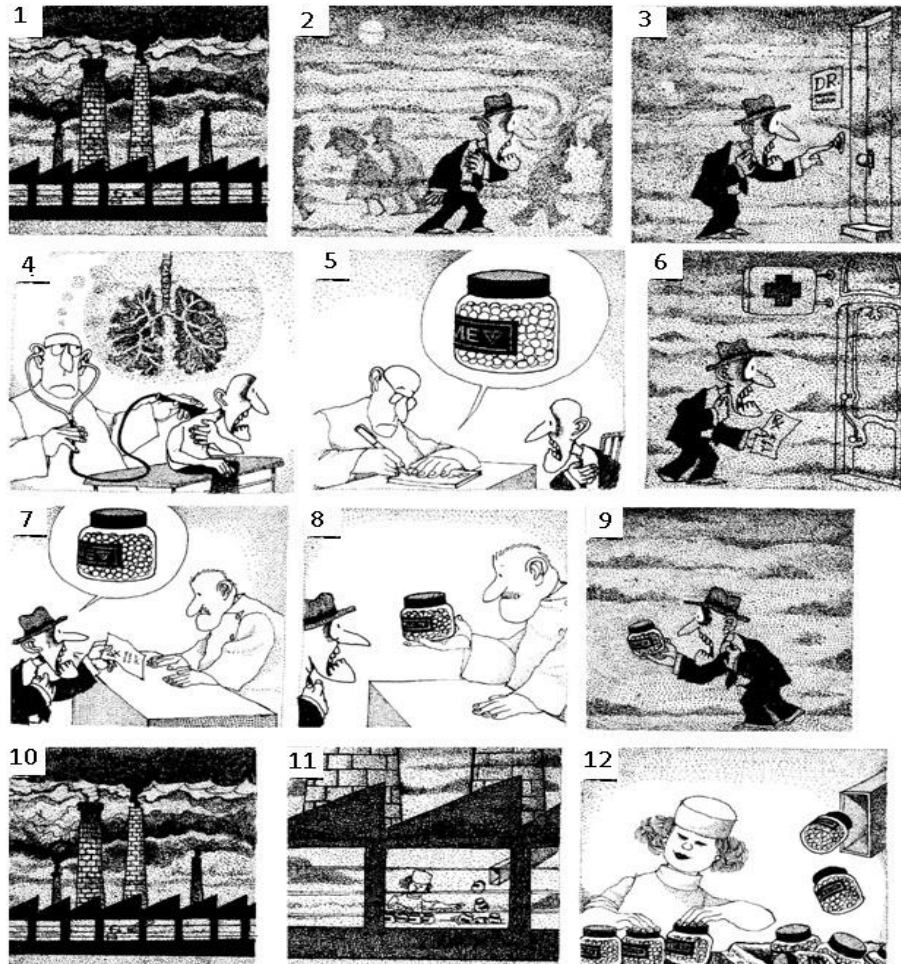Begin the story like this: TODAY, the city is very polluted…
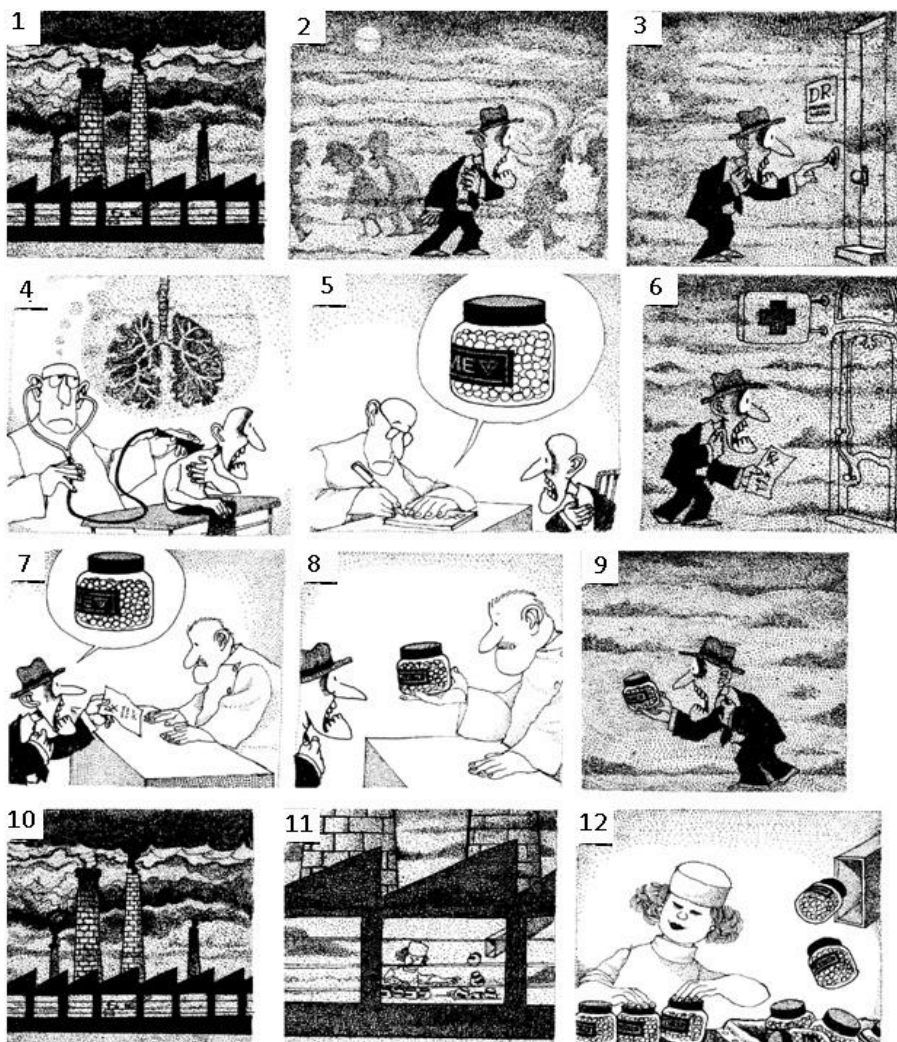
APPENDIX B   THE THERE-AND-THEN TASK

Prompt for the There-and-Then conditions (There-and-Then & No planning and There-and-Then & Planning):
BEGIN THE STORY LIKE THIS: Yesterday, the city was very polluted…

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Enhanced Tragedy—Changing Point of View in *The Woman Warrior*

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Abstract—*The Woman Warrior* **is the first book of Maxine Hong Kingston. In this book, there are different narrators in telling the stories. As a deviance, in the fourth chapter,** *At the Western Palace***, the third person narration presents a more vivid and impressive story. This deviance enhances the tragic end of the protagonists.**

Index Terms—**Kingston,** *The Woman Warrior,* **point of view, third-person narrator**

As the first book of Maxine Hong Kingston, *The Woman Warrior* wins her much fame. Kingston is a Chinese American, born in 1940. The book is about her girlhood as it is affected by the beliefs of her family. She intends to publish it as a novel, but the publisher labels it as nonfiction. However, it sells well and wins the National Book Critic Circle Award for the best work of nonfiction in 1976. In this book, there are different narrators in telling the stories of her childhood. The author uses third person narration to enhance the tragedy of the protagonists, both Moon Orchid and Brave Orchid. With the deviance, the readers can feel the tragic end of Moon.

Because *The Woman Warrior* is published as nonfiction, critics hold different opinions about the genre of the book. According to Anne Tyler (1989) in the *New Republic,* "in a deeper sense, they are fiction at its best – novels, fairytales, epic poems" (p. 44). But other critics do agree with the publishers and think it is better to treat it as nonfiction. In limited sense, Outka (1997) thinks it is autobiography, a genre that mixes fact and fiction (p. 448). Outka's opinion has some evidences. The book is partly based on the stories of Kingston's mother. Actually, Brave Orchid refers to Kingston's mother in the book. Her mother married her father before he moved to America. She stayed in China for many years before his father sent for her. Their two children in China died before she moved to America. Kingston is the first children of her mother in America. Though Kingston mixes some fantasies in the book, but it does not remove the basic essence of the book. It is better to have it as an autobiography than a fiction.

The book is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is "No Name Woman." It tells the story of an aunt who committed suicide. She is so obscure that she could not have a name. She is accursed for giving birth to a girl. In general sense, she is accursed because her adultery. But Outka (1997) holds that the reason for her guilty is that she creates a mouth to feed in a time of scarcity (p. 453). It shows some affairs have not only moral sense, but also some other meaning. In the second chapter, "White Tigers," Kingston rewrites *The Ballad of Mulan* in her imagination and combines stories from different sources in Chinese history and culture. In "Shaman," it tells her mother's story in China. In "At the Western Palace," it tells another story about an aunt. Brave Orchid encourages her sister, Moon Orchid, to come to America and see her husband. They use their imagination to plan a meeting. The meeting is short and the story ends in the madness of Moon Orchid. In the last story, "A Song for a Barbarian Reed Ripe," Kingston rewrites the story of a poetess. Except the fourth chapter, "At the Western Palace," the stories are told by *I*, first-person narrator. In the 4th chapter, the voice of the third-person narrator gives the readers alienation and presents different opinions of different people. With the shift of narrators, the reader knows more about what the protagonists think and development of their minds. By the end of the story, it is the madness of Moon Orchid convinced the feeling.

At the beginning of "At the Western Palace," there comes the third-person narrator. It changes from *I* in the previous chapter to an omniscient narrator. Here, the protagonists are mentioned by their names: "When she was about sixty-eight years old, Brave Orchid took a day off" (Kingston, 1977, p. 113). It is quite different from the previous chapters. In the previous chapter, Brave Orchid is just mentioned as "my mother." The third-person narrator is the omniscience. He knows everything of the protagonists. It helps to know quite well the development of the protagonists in the story.

Brave Orchid's was waiting for her sister, Moon Orchid, at the airport. The third-person narrator tells that Brave is known as having some magic power. She can concentrate her mind in her sister's plane in order to help her arrive America safely. During waiting, she also shares some of her power to her son, who is serving the army in Vietnam. Though other children tries to tell her that he is in the Philippines, but she knows he is on a ship in Da Nang. Nothing could escape from her consciousness. It is mysterious that a woman can do such kind of thing. It is much like witchcraft of a magician. But it comes from a Chinese descendent. With the change of point of view, the author presents Brave Orchid as a whole new role to the reader, quite different from the mother mentioned before. It is believable that she has some mysterious power and can hand all affairs. If the story is told by the first-person narrator, it is doubtable that she actually has the magical power. But the voice of the third-person narrator convinces the readers that she has those

powers. When the readers come to know that she can do nothing with her sister's madness, they ask where her magic power is. It makes a sharp contrast between the impressions of Brave Orchid in the past and present.

In telling the story, the third-person shows the influence of different culture. While Brave is sitting there waiting for her sister, her niece is sitting and accompanying her waiting. She is brought up in China and installed traditional Chinese culture. She has patience and can do something with endurance. But Brave's American children are quite different. "They didn't understand sitting; they had wandering feet" (Kingston, 1977, p. 113). They just wander where they could. In their minds, it is better to go to some other places than to stay at the same places. Brave knows quite well about her children and the difference between her children and her niece. The third-person narrator is more objective than the first-person narrator. Not only *I* can see the cultural difference, but also all people can see it. The cultural difference is very important in the story. As Moon Orchid grows up in China and is instilled the traditional Chinese culture, she has to face a different culture when she steps on the land of America. Brave Orchid and Moon's daughter have successfully lived in America. Brave Orchid still holds her Chinese belief and uses it as a weapon in the struggle with the American culture, as she keeps look the American as ghosts. Moon's daughter reserves her Chinese belief, absorbs the American culture and mixes them together. But for Moon Orchid, it is doubtable if she can face the cultural difference. She is not young and leads a peaceful life in China. If her husband does not accept her, she will face the pressure of life. If she can bear such kind of change, no one can tell.

Almost immediately after Moon's arriving, Brave Orchid eagerly talks with her and plans to meet her husband and claim her right as the first wife. There is a fierce debate between. Brave Orchid thinks it is quite right to go to Moon's husband's house and claim she is his first wife. She could occupy the bedroom as the traditional Chinese does. Brave Orchid thinks that Chinese traditional ideas can also survive in America. The survival of her is a good example. Anyhow, her success depends on her husband's support. There is another important factor: when she came America, she is still in her forties. Now, Moon Orchid is in her sixties when she comes America. But for Moon, she is doubtful. Her husband continues to send her money but never send for her. Now she didn't tell him that she comes. It is a great adventure for her. She has broken her peaceful and life. Without Brave's encouragement and help, she probably would never come here. At this time, she is even scared to go back to Hong Kong. In fact, she is not so strong as Brave does. When Brave says it is right to claim his two sons, she doubts about it. Though she hopes to regain her husband, she still doubts about the way Brave has suggested. She hopes it is the idea from her husband better than she asks for it herself. In her opinion, she prefers to keep silence and wait. The discussion between two sisters shows that different attitudes of people towards new environment and culture. Brave Orchid represents positive and aggressive attitude, and Moon Orchid represents passive and conservative attitude. They can be treated as two sides of one culture.

Without any definite decision, Moon stays with Brave and her family for some time. Before she meets her husband, she needs some time to adopt herself with a new life. She goes to Brave's laundry and tries to do something there. Because Moon has a leisure life in the past, though she is eager to get some work to do, she couldn't do well. Brave tries to put Moon at different works, but only finds that Moon Orchid cannot match the others. At last, she only folds the handkerchiefs. She is too old for a job. During her stay with them, Moon always observes Brave's children. Sometimes, she imitates their words. "She says, 'Aunt, please take your finger out of the batter,' Moon Orchid repeated as she turned to follow another niece walking through the kitchen" (Kingston, 1977, p. 140). At other times, she describes them:

"She's brushing her teeth. Now she's coming out of the bathroom. She's wearing the blue dress and a white sweater. She'd combed her hair and washed her face. She looks in the refrigerator and is arranging things between slices of bread. She's putting an orange and cookies in a bag. Today she's taking her green book and her blue book. And tablets and pencils." (Kingston, 1977, p. 141)

Because the use third-person narration, her action is under all people' eyes. It is strange for all people that she does such kind of things. Her action, in some case, looks like a child. It happens in several places when Moon stays with Brave's children. Moon Orchid is trying to learn her new life. She has her own way, but it is not quite good as the others hope. No one can do help. Even Brave Orchid does nothing help. In contrast with her power to support plane, she cannot give a hand in her sister's learning. The life with Brave Orchid's family is quiet and tolerable. Moon Orchid still bears it. She still has hope that her husband will accept her when she meets him. It is the only support in her mind and keeps her learning the new life.

Life with Brave Orchid's family does not last long. In the middle of summer, under the suggestion of Moon's daughter, Brave asks her son to drive them to Los Angeles. On their way, Brave tells Moon the legend of the Earth's Emperor. Brave thinks that Moon's husband is the Emperor in the legend. He is imprisoned in the western palace by the Empress of the west who connives for power. And Moon is the Empress in the east palace comes to rescue (Kingston, 1977, p. 143). This is the imagination in Brave Orchid's mind. The reality is not what she has imagined. Moon's husband has started a new life long ago and has a successful profession. He is better to live with his second wife better than with Moon. When they meet, all of them know this. The meeting is short. Moon's husband does not say much but asks them never to come again. He will continue send Moon money. They all understand, if they claim their former marriage, it will ruin both Moon and her husband. He directly says to Moon: "It's a mistake for you to be here. You can't belong. You don't have the hardness for this country" (Kingston, 1977, p. 153-4). It is why he never sent for her. After the meeting, Moon stays with her daughter in Los Angeles. It is her last choice.

After the meeting, Moon has changed. Before she comes America, she writes to Brave Orchid every month. They have talked about her coming. But for several months of her staying with her daughter, she does not write to Brave Orchid. During this period, she always imagines that "she had overheard Mexican ghosts plotting on her life" (Kingston, 1977, p. 155). In order to escape from the imaginary murder, she even moves out of her daughter's house and goes to another place she thinks she can escape from Mexican ghosts. Moon's daughter writes to Brave and tells her the situation of her mother. Brave thinks she has the responsibility to cure her sister. Once again, she recalls the old legend of the emperors.

"Long ago," she explained to her children, "when the emperors had four wives, the wife who lost in battle was sent to the Northern Palace. Her feet would sink little prints into the snow. (Kingston, 1977, p. 155)

She thinks it shall have her sister with her and rescue her. Soon Moon comes to stay with Brave Orchid. Though Brave believes her power, but the situation of Moon is not good. She keeps describing her nieces' and nephews' doings and tries to keep the ghost out of her side. At last "Brave saw that all variety had gone from her sister. She was indeed mad" (Kingston, 1977, p. 159). No one can rescue Moon after the meeting of her husband. She has lost her last hope which supports for so long. At last Moon is sent into a California state mental asylum. After that, Brave Orchid also gets some change in her belief. In the past, she never thinks that her husband will leave her. But from the example of her sister, she is afraid of her husband marrying anther woman. She even asks her children to help her. She has no confidence as before.

Brave Orchid is not the Brave at the beginning of the story. Her magic power has gone. But where comes her power? It comes from her belief and imagination. The power is useless in dealing with the reality, just like the meeting with Moon's husband. It makes a sharp contrast. Through the conflict with the reality, she loses her belief.

Moon's story is tragic and it shakes the belief of Brave Orchid. There are several causes of the tragedy: spousal abandonment of Moon's husband, Brave's violent pushiness, Moon's old age and culture shock. The use of third-person narration gives clear development of the tragedy. It questions whether Moon should come America to claim her right as the first wife in the price of peaceful life. The third-person narrator tells the story from the place of implied author and gives more objective view about the story. It suggests that the tragedy of Moon and her sister is the cause of the environment. Her husband has to abandon her because she does not fit the society. No one can change it, even Brave Orchid yields at last.

With the above discussion, it is clear that the use of third-person narration gives a clear development of the story and helps the reader to understand what the real cause of the tragedy. It can be understood better. The deviance also helps to understand the cultural difference between Chinese and America.

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The Role of Input Enhancement in Teaching Compliments

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Abstract—To date, research regarding the effectiveness of instruction on the development of interlanguage pragmatics has favored an explicit instruction of the speech acts. A question which has received scant attention is what kind of explicit instruction is more beneficial in a foreign language setting. The fact that speech acts reflect, for the most part, routinized language behavior helps learners because much of what is used in performing speech acts could be learned as prefabricated units. This study is an attempt to practically test this routinized nature of speech acts focusing on compliment giving. To this purpose, two groups were chosen as control and experimental groups and both were instructed by different procedures of input enhancement; the former was taught through Form Comparison procedure and the latter through explicit instruction using Wolfson and Manes (1980) formula of compliment giving. The result clearly indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in giving compliments, indicating once again that the routinized nature of speech acts could be utilized in helping learners develop their interlanguage pragmatics.

Index Terms—input enhancement, explicit instruction, compliment giving, interlanguage pragmatics, form comparison, focus on form

I. INTRODUCTION

Compared to areas such as grammar, lexis, or phonology, the effect of instruction on inter-language pragmatic development has been explored far less. In this regard, Kasper (1992) holds that the research that has been done to date does indicate that pragmatic development can be facilitated by instruction particularly when that instruction is of an explicit nature. What remains unclear, however, is what kind of explicit instruction is more likely to help second language learners develop their pragmatic competence more rapidly and better. Input enhancement seems to have the potential to shed light on this issue.

Input enhancement in second language acquisition (SLA) has been addressed in studies of form-focused instruction at morphosyntactic levels, known as Focus on Form (FonF) research. Following Sharewood Smith's (1993) definition of input enhancement, researchers experimentally manipulated instructional input on L2 structures in various ways: some form of corrective feedback with or without metalinguistic information, visual enhancement with the use of bold or italic face, and task manipulation directing learners to notice and attend to target structures. All these studies provided evidence that high levels of attention-drawing activities, as represented by presenting metalinguistic information and corrective feedback, are more helpful for learners in gaining the mastery of target-language structures than simple exposure to positive evidence. These findings thus provide the basis for theoretical verification of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990), which states that conscious noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake. In contrast to the rich array of input enhancement research into morphosyntactic features, there have been considerably fewer studies specially focusing on the role of input enhancement in developing L2 pragmatic competence. An increasing number of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) researchers have become interested in exploring whether L2 pragmatic features can be acquired without any instructional intervention; however, the total volume of research in this area is well below that for mainstream SLA. A few ILP studies have examined the efficacy of certain instructional methods and tried to address the issues of teachability, but these have failed to answer directly the question of how the nature of input enhancement influences the development of L2 pragmatic competence.

The present study is an attempt to address this rather ignored issue by examining the effect of two forms of explicit instruction namely, form-comparison and direct teaching of formulas on giving compliments in English in a foreign language context.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Research on Speech Acts

Speech act research has, to a large extent, been represented in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research. Studies in this respect have shown that even grammatically- advanced learners show differences from target-language pragmatic norms. In other words, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess concomitant pragmatic competence.

In a paper, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) outlines four ways in which learners (nonnative speakers NNSs) can differ from native speakers (NSs) in production of speech acts:

a. Choice of speech acts: NNSs may perform different speech acts than NSs in the same contexts, or, alternatively, they may elect not to perform any speech act at all. The best examples of this come from authentic conversations and role-plays where speakers have some flexibility in determining what they will say or do. For example, in a role-play designed by Cohen and Olshtain (1993), a scenario was designed to elicit an apology. In the scenario the learner was supposed to meet a friend of his at his friend's house to study. The learner came half an hour late and thus had to apologize for being late. The learner, however, thought that in the scenario the condition for an apology was not met and refused to offer an apology. In other words, he thought that an appointment with another student to study was not very important and keeping someone waiting at his or her own house was not a very serious offense.

b. Semantic formulas: A second way in which NSs and NNSs may differ is the choice of semantic formulas. Semantic formulas represent the means by which a particular speech act is accompanied in terms of the primary content of an utterance. For example, an apology may contain an illocutionary force indicating device (*I'm sorry*), an explanation or account of the situation (e.g., *the bus was late*), an acknowledgement of responsibility (*e.g., It's my fault*), an offer of repair (*e.g., I'll pay for the broken vase*), and/or a promise of forbearance (*e.g., It won't happen again*).

With regard to this, in a study of complaint, Murphy and Neu (1996) also found a difference in the use of semantic formulas, or what they called "semantic components". The NSs, fourteen American men, and the NNSs, fourteen Korean men, all of whom were graduate students, completed an oral discourse completion task in which they were asked to assume the role of a student whose assignment was unfairly graded by his professor. The NSs and NNSs showed relatively high agreement on three of the four semantic formulas used to realize the complaints. All of the subjects except one of the NNSs began the complaint with an explanation of purpose as in examples (1) and (2) below:

(1)Uh, Dr. Smith, I just came to see if I could talk about my paper. (NS)
(2)Good afternoon, professor. Uh, I have something to talk to you about my paper…(NNS, L1 Korean)

Respondents also showed relatively high agreement on the use of the justification and solution formulas. However, NSs and NNSs differed noticeably on the formula which constitutes the head act.

c. Content. A third way in which NSs and NNSs may differ is the content of their contribution. Whereas a semantic formula names the type of information given, content refers to the specific information given by a speaker. Even in cases where NSs and NNSs use the same semantic formulas, the content that they encode can be strikingly different (Takahashi and Beebe, 1987).

A case in point is the content of explanations, a semantic formula found in refusals. In a comparison of the explanations offered by American and NSs of Japanese using English, Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990) characterized the explanation of the American as providing more details and the explanation of the Japanese as being vague by the American norm. When refusing an invitation, for example, an American might say '*I have a business lunch that day',* whereas a Japanese speaker might say '*I have something to do'.*

d. Form. The fourth way in which NNS production may differ from the NS norm is the form of a speech act. For example, in giving suggestions NSs might say '*I was thinking of taking a trip',* whereas NNSs, in the same situation, are more likely to say so, '*I just decided on taking a trip for the summer',* making the suggestion rather bizarre in terms of American norms.

With regard to compliments, a seminal paper by Wolfson and Menes (1980) on compliments provided the first comprehensive description on the formula city of compliments in American English. They found that a narrow range of syntactic formulas accounted for the majority of observed compliments, with the majority (97.2%) of their corpus of 686 naturally occurring compliments falling into one of the following nine syntactic formulas:

1. NP (is, looks) (really) ADJ (pp)
2. I (really) (like, love) NP
3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV (pp)
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP
7. What (a) (ADJ) NP!
8. ADJ (NP)!
9. Isn't NP ADJ!

An interesting point about the formula city of compliment is the facts that, as Wolfson and Manes admit, the top three syntactic formulas accounted for some 85% of all compliments in American English. The nine syntactic formulas described by Manes and Wolfson provide a useful, if not comprehensive, overview of the pragma-linguistic recourses in American English.

B. The Effect of Instruction in Developing Pragmatic Competence

The research that has been done to date does indicate that pragmatic development can be facilitated by instruction, particularly when that instruction is of an explicit nature (Kasper, 1992). Research has shown that learners who have received no specific instruction in L2 pragmatics have noticeably different L2 pragmatic system than NSs of the L2.

For instance, Kenneth and Connie (2001) report the result of a study which compared the effects of inductive and deductive approaches to the teaching of English compliments and compliment responses to university-level learners of English in Hong Kong. There were three groups in all- a deductive group, an inductive group, and a control group. Both treatment groups received instruction in the target speech acts, but while the deductive group was provided with meta-pragmatic information through explicit instruction before engaging in practice activities, the inductive group engaged in pragmatic analysis activities in which they were expected to arrive at the relevant generalizations themselves. The results from a discourse completion task showed a marked increase in the use of compliment formulas by both treatment groups, with no similar increase for the control group. Results from compliment responses revealed a positive effect only for the deductive group, indicating that although inductive and deductive instruction may both lead to gains in pragma-linguistic proficiency, only the latter may be effective for developing socio-pragmatic proficiency.

In a similar research, Takahashi (2001) examined the effects of input enhancement on the development of English request strategies by Japanese EFL learners at a Japanese university using four input conditions, namely, explicit teaching, form comparison, form search, and meaning focused conditions. The explicit teaching condition manifested the highest degree of input enhancement and the meaning focused condition the least. The results indicated that the degree of input enhancement influenced the acquisition of request forms, explicit teaching having the strongest impact. The explicit instruction helped the learners both develop their pragmatic competence and enhance their confidence in performance to a greater extent than the three implicit conditions, and the self report data also showed that the form–search and the meaning focused conditions equally failed to draw the learners' attention to target forms in the input.

These studies along with similar research on pragmatics acquisition put emphasis on the fact that providing meta-pragmatic information with the target features is most likely to advance the learners' L2 pragmatic competence.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

As noted earlier, research on teaching pragmatics has overwhelmingly given support to the explicit teaching of pragmatics. A question which, we believe, needs further investigation is what kind of explicit teaching is more effective for teaching pragmatics in an acquisition-poor context (i.e., English as a foreign language context). Accordingly, the researchers posed the following three questions:

1. Do Iranian learners of English have a different notion of choice of speech act with regard to giving compliments?
2. Do Iranian learners of English benefit from instruction in giving compliments in a foreign language context?
3. Are there differential effects of instruction for form- comparison and explicit teaching approaches (two forms of input enhancement) to the teaching of giving compliments in a foreign language context?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 38 Iranian college students at the Azad University of Kermanshah, the majority of whom were females. They were all English students who had been studying English at the university for three and a half years with a mean age of 23. The participants made up two intact classes, taught by the researchers, which were randomly assigned to two groups, namely experimental group (20 students), and a control group (18 students). The participants had different levels of language proficiency. Another individual participant providing the compliment expressions was Joshua who was born in America and lived there for twenty years (He was born in America from an Iranian father and an American mother but for some personal reasons came to live with his father in Kermanshah, Iran).

B. Design

A quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest design was adopted for the purposes of this study. Because of the large sample size, discourse completion tests (DCTs) were employed to elicit the main data in the pretest and posttest sessions. The participants were also required to indicate, in the pretest, whether they considered the given situations requiring compliment or not.

C. Selection of the Compliment Situations

Fourteen compliment scenarios were adopted. These scenarios were mainly derived from a preliminary questionnaire administered to fifteen Cantonese-speaking undergraduate students in Hong Kong by Kenneth and Connie (2001) in their study[*]. The questionnaire involved a type of exemplar generation in which participants were given a sheet of paper illustrating a compliment in English and asked to provide the most appropriate compliment for each of them. These situations were chosen in terms of the following principles: first most frequently recurring scenarios were chosen;

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[*] Some situations were slightly modified to suite the students' level.

second, scenarios incorporating a range of interlocutors from two contexts (family and school) were chosen; and third, a range of the most frequently occurring compliment topics was presented.

D. Pretest and Posttest

The pretest DCT contained 14 situations. The situational descriptions were given in English. The participants were asked to provide appropriate compliment expressions for each situation. For each situation, the DCT was provided. In order to eliminate the pretest effect on the treatment, the posttest was administered one week after the treatment. Below are two examples from the DCT:

Situation 1: Alex (one of the sons) is a business major. He has an interview today for a part-time job with a large investment company, so he is wearing his best suit. Do you compliment him on his appearance? If yes, what would you say to compliment on his appearance?

You: …….

Situation 2: You have just finished having dinner at home that was prepared by Mrs. White (the mother). Do you compliment her on it? If yes, what would you say to compliment her on the meal?

You: …….

E. Materials and Procedures

Two intact classes took part in this study, each of which was randomly assigned to two groups and (i.e., one experimental and one control group). The control group received Form-Comparison instruction on giving complements and the experimental group received explicit instruction on giving compliments based on the formulas proposed by Wolfson and Manes (1980). The treatments consisted of six lessons lasting for approximately 30 minutes each. Instruction began right at the beginning of the summer term in 2010 and continued until the end of the term (4 weeks). Content for both instructed group was identical, and was based on findings from the literature on giving compliments. All the instruction was carried out by the researchers who also taught the main course.

For the experimental group (explicit instruction), two types of treatment materials were prepared for each session. One was handouts in which detailed pragmalingustics information (i.e., formulas presented by Wolfson and Manes, 1980) was provided. The situations were explained in English, and then the appropriate formula(s) were presented. The students had to practice the formula(s) in similar situations. Examples and detailed information about when and where to use each formula was also presented by the researchers (i.e., the instructors) for the explicit group.

For the other control group (i.e., form comparison group) a different way of presentation of compliments was provided by the researchers. First, in each session, the participants were presented with the same situations given to the experimental group. Then, they were asked to give their own compliments in English. After this, the researchers provided the compliments produced by native speakers for the given situations (For both groups, the situations were drawn from a variety of books usually taught in Iran, including Person to Person series, Interchange series, and East West series). Finally, the participants were required to compare their own English compliment expressions with those supplied by NSs in the corresponding situations in order to discover any differences in compliment realization patterns. This again included six sessions each lasting 30 minutes.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The data collected for this study were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitatively, the data gained from the DCT showed that the learners considered all the presented situations as requiring compliments. In other words, it was shown that Iranian learners of English did not differ from native speakers of English as far as choice of the speech act is concerned. In the pretest, eighteen situations requiring compliments were presented (see the Appendix), and the participants in all the two groups were asked to say whether the situations needed compliments or not. All the participants agreed that the scenarios required giving compliments. This is an interesting and important point in that no cultural differences are seen between the two languages (i.e., English and Farsi) in so far as the choice of speech act is concerned.

In order to judge the compliments produced by the learners in the two groups, the researchers had Joshua assess them in terms of acceptability of the compliments. It was found that nearly all the compliments produced by the Iranian learners of English in the pretest were heavily influenced by the participants 'first language (i.e., Farsi) indicating that their pragmatic competence was not developed hand in hand with their grammatical competence. In this case, pragmatic knowledge had a negative outcome in that their production of compliments did not match those of the NNSs'.

For the post tests, the same pretest was given to the participants in both groups. They were also judged by Joshua (the native speaker participant of the study). After calculating the mean score of each group, a t-test was run to determine whether the difference was significant or not. The result of the t-test is presented below. The result showed that the experimental group receiving the explicit instruction outperformed the control group taught by form comparison procedure.

TABLES 1. & 2.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF DCT COMPLIMENTS

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores	1	18	10.1667	5.32618	1.25539
	2	20	11.1350	5.86105	1.31057

	Levene's test for equality of varience						
	F	Sig.	T	df	sig.2-tailed	Mean diff	Std. Error difference
Equal variance assumed	.228	.636	-.531	36	.599	-.96833	1.82422
Equal variances not assumed			-.534	35.994	.597	-.96833	1.81483

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study set out to answer three questions. The first question concerned whether Iranian learners of English have a different notion of choice of speech with regard to giving compliments. The second concerned whether learners benefited from instruction in giving compliments in a foreign context. The third sought to determine whether the kind of input enhancement (explicit or form comparison procedure) have better effects on the development of pragmatic competence, with the target features being giving compliments.

The answer to the first question seems to be negative; all the NNSs participating in the study agreed that the presented scenarios needed giving compliments. This can have significance in cross-cultural research in the sense that speech act research has, to a great extent, been represented in cross-cultural and inter language pragmatics research. With regard to the cross-cultural research, Chick, (1996) argues that sociolinguists have traced the sources of intercultural miscommunication to the distinctive nature of value system, pervasive configurations of social relations, and dominant ideologies of cultural groups. Such dimensions of the social context shape communicative conventions. Similarly Wolfson (1992), holds that what members of particular cultural groups thank or apologize for, or compliment on, usually reflects values because in performing these speech acts, people are often implicitly assessing the behavior, possessions, accomplishments, character, or appearances of others She also traces the high frequency of complimenting that she found among status-equal friends, coworkers, and acquaintances in middle-class urban American society to the configuration of social relations in that society.

The answer to the second question, to us, is positive in that the two groups had a much better performance in the posttest. This can also be beneficial in that speech acts reflect, for the most part, routinized language behavior. This potential is usually overlooked in a foreign language context where learners have difficulty access to input. In response to the third question, however, the DCT results for compliment responses revealed a more positive effect only for the explicit group, indicating that although explicit and form comparison instruction may both lead to gains in pragmalingustics proficiency, only the former may be effective for developing socio- pragmatic proficiency. This may be the result of the highly formulaic nature of American English compliments.

The above findings are probably useful for teachers to help learners develop their pragmatic competence by first identifying where they might have problems in performing speech acts. This can be carried out through different procedures from discourse completion tasks to role plays, and to acceptability judgments. Also, teachers can embark on giving the routines of performing speech acts emphasizing the formulas commonly used in these situations. Learners may be required as well to perform the presented speech acts through role plays in which they have to assume different roles and relationships with their interlocutors. Other procedures, of course, could be utilized but role plays can be more beneficial because in role plays learners have to process the language syntactically and adjust themselves to the roles assigned to them. Finally, feedback and discussion can be useful in teaching speech acts in the sense that students can benefit from the feedback given by their teachers and peers.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are a number of potential problems with this study that require caution in making claims of any kind. The learners who took part in the study were almost pre-intermediate in terms of English proficiency. Different results might have been gained, had the participant been advanced with regard to their English proficiency. The other problem has to do with the discourse completion task procedure used in the study, since it is often not possible to measure instructional effects through the use of written questionnaires. Put simply, questionnaires are indirect measures in that the data resulting from responses to questionnaires are not the result of direct observation. In sum, then, this study has provided some tentative evidence that explicit procedures in enhancement continuum can make a difference in a foreign language context. Last but not least, only two aspects of compliments (how to give compliments as well as the choice of speech act) have been examined. A comprehensive study might include both giving and responding to compliments.

APPENDIX: QUESTIONNAIRE SCENARIOS

1. Alex (one of the sons) is a business major. He has an interview today for a part time job with a large investment company. So he is wearing his best suit. What do you to compliment him on his appearance?

2. You have just finished having dinner at home that was prepared by Mrs. White (the mother. You compliment her on the meal.

3. You are at the university, and class has just ended. You overhear John answering his classmate's question about how to use the computer. You compliment him on it.

4. Your brother has just bought a new cell phone. You compliment him on it.

5. It's afternoon, and you go Jeff's (your student) house to help him study math. He is dressed in his best clothes. You compliment him on his appearance.

6. You are at the university, and class has just ended. Your classmate gave a good presentation in class, and you compliment her or him on it.

7. You go to Jeff's house (your student) to help him study math. You notice that he has a new pencil case, and compliment him on it.

8. You see Alex (one of the sons) swimming well. You compliment him on his ability.

9. Mrs. White and her mother, Mrs. Bush, have just returned from shopping. Mrs. Bush bought a new handbag, and you compliment her on it.

10. You are at the university, and the class has just ended. While you are putting your books away, you see Michael, one of your classmates wearing a new suit. You compliment him on it.

11. Sue (the daughter) went shopping and bought some jewelry. You see that she is wearing a new ring. You compliment her on it.

12. You go top Jeff's (your student) house to help him study math. He tells you he got an 'A' on his last exam. You compliment him.

13. Jeff (your student) has gone to a hair salon to cut his hair short. You see him with a good hair style. Do you compliment him on it? If yes, what do you say?

14. You have gone to a party. Michael (your friend) sings a song well. Do you compliment him on it? If yes, what would you say?

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A Study of College English Writing Classes through Consciousness-raising

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Abstract—**By consciousness-raising we mean the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language. It focuses its attention on teaching process and students' activeness, so it can be well applied to teaching of college English writing. This study indicates that consciousness-raising provides a guideline for improving teaching of college English writing and plays a significant role in enhancing students' writing ability.**

Index Terms—**consciousness-raising, English writing classes, awareness**

I. INTRODUCTION

Through long-time teaching practice, college English teachers have tried a lot to cultivate students' language competence, aiming at transferring language skills and relevant cultural knowledge to students. In order to lay a good foundation of self-learning for students, the importance of Consciousness-Raising (C-R) have been recognized and advocated popularly by more and more college teachers and researchers in discussion of language competence. This study is set in simplicity to find out whether the pursuit of Consciousness-Raising can be helpful to develop English writing proficiency and reach improvement in College English teaching.

II. THEORIES OF CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING

A. Meaning of Consciousness-raising

The most widely cited explanation of "consciousness" in SLA literature is given by Schmidt (1990), who distinguishes "consciousness" in three senses: consciousness as awareness, consciousness as intention and consciousness as knowledge. In both common usage and theoretical treatments of the topic, consciousness is commonly equated with awareness, and according to Schmidt, consciousness as awareness can be further divided into 3 levels: Level 1 is perception, which implies mental organization and the ability to create internal representations of external events", but which is "not necessarily conscious and subliminal perception is possible". Level 2 is noticing or focal awareness, by which "stimuli are subjectively experienced", and which "can be operationally defined as availability for verbal report, subject to certain conditions". Level 3 is understanding, which means after noticing, we can "analyze", "compare", "reflect", "comprehend" etc. the object of noticing(Schmidt, 1990, P11). In fact, C-R, earlier connecting with the idea of noticing, attempts to raise the awareness of language on learners by means of providing certain language input and activity. Such language awareness activities have grown in importance in teaching, and now represent a wide range of choices that can be made (Sharwood Smith, 1991).

As for C-R, Hawkins (1984) mentions it involves challenging pupils to ask questions about language, encouraging learners to gather their own data outside school, and helping learners to develop a growing insight into the way language works to convey meaning". Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) define C-R as "by consciousness-raising we mean the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language." (1985) Therefore, C-R is a mental attribute which develops through paying attention to language in use, and which enables language learners to gradually gain insights into how languages work (Brian Tomlinson, 2003). It differentiates from traditional language teaching pattern which focuses on teachers' speech in class. C-R emphasizes the development of enhanced awareness in language learners to the acquisition of a language. The key point is that teachers are supposed to be helpful to discover language by learners themselves.

B. Previous Study of Consciousness-raising Approach

C-R lies a lot on cognitive psychology, which involves the subject of metacognition. Flavel (1976) first gives the term and refers to it as our awareness of the learning process. Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction and ability to review their progress, accomplishments and future learning directions (O' Malley et al, 1985). The cognitive focus on language awareness also echoes with research of explicit and implicit

learning. Accordingly, rules, whether they are teacher-made or devised from a textbook, offer the opportunity for intellectual or explicit learning, while textual input encourages intuitive and implicit learning. It once remains controversial whether learners learn implicitly or explicitly but explicit teaching of second language is with the similar meaning of C-R. Since college students have reached certain level of language study, explicit learning may aid them in developing implicit learning by noticing the gap between what they have achieved from the input and the current state from the output. Thus, we cannot ignore the importance of explicit knowledge in second language acquisition which asks to facilitate C-R teaching tasks.

III. Implications of Consciousness-raising in College English Writing Classes

English writing has been a hot topic in college English teaching and remains an area of many researches and debates. Competent writing is frequently accepted as being the most challenging language skill to be acquired. Few people write spontaneously, and few feel comfortable with a formal writing task intended for the eyes of someone else. Its complex, multifaceted nature set a strict standard for learners to express their ideas, so teachers find it difficult to carry out some effective strategies on improving students' writing.

C-R advocates creating a language environment for learners to discover English features on their own in order to develop their capability in writing. This happens to be the same view with the processing writing method in other studies. Beside, C-R aims to arouse learners' attention irrespective of the age, maturity and proficiency of individual. It seems more reasonable to adopt C-R in a class of English writing to make active participation of every member in the class.

A. Methodology

The study started from one composition task from one class of 30 sophomores in Zhenjiang Watercraft College. Although the target students are not in a large number, to some extent they are typical among college English learners.

The topic was given below:

Direction: why is it so difficult to define happiness and how to achieve it?

Happiness is always considered important to human beings. But why is it so difficult to define happiness and why are the definitions of happiness so different among people?

After class, grading job was done and problems were listed:

a. From the aspect of grammar. It is very common for two kinds of errors: gender and tense. Students usually mistake adjectives for nouns and vice versa, for example, "don't eager to something unreality", "is depend on yourself", "what is the mean to happiness", etc. Some of the errors can be corrected by students after teacher tick such errors out for they write down subconsciously, but some cannot arouse their awareness for they write down without too much consideration. It results to increasing job for teachers to mark their compositions but end in less influence on their writing proficiency. Tense is another factor which cannot be ignored. It is not for their low master of tense but for their confusion of tense in a piece of writing. The majority of compos ions collected indicate students overdo a distinction in time description but it seems the more specific they refer to, the more confused they choose the tense.

b. From the aspect of vocabulary. Through data collected, it embodies that students have gained a large vocabulary. Problems come out in the area of collocation and accuracy. For collocation errors, expressions like "in the day", "take advantage at", "survive from the disaster" are found common in writing. For the accuracy part, expressions like "feel disappointing/disappointed", "importanter/ more important", "buy easy/ conveniently" come into appearance. It exposes that vocabulary study stops at the level of memory. In fact, words are the base of writing and collocation can be the key to make an accurate sentence even to compose a whole passage. Therefore, C-R in writing is used to ask for attention in this area at least.

c. From the aspect of discourse. It is hard for students to make a good arrangement of text structure and suitable cohesive devices. There are in shortage of transitional devices to connect closely each paragraph in order to avoid writing in stiff way. Besides, some cannot utilize reasonable illustrations to express the theme; some illustrate excessively without reasoning; and some even digress when coming to the end of writing. In general, students lack of awareness in framework.

According to the global scoring standard of CET-4 (College English Test Band 4), the average score of this class was 7.6 with 15 points as the full score.

B. Application of C-R Approach in English Writing

The scores indicate students stay in a low level in English writing. There are several causes that are unavoidable such as the course design, teaching purpose, limited time and, mostly, teaching methods. Teachers in China would like to focus on product writing approach which ignores the active performance of students. So here organize several C-R strategies in order to attract students into active writing class including peer evaluation, group discussion, debate, brainstorming, questions-asking, model composition appreciation, error analysis, word games, etc. Such activities foster students' cognition and their won exploration. Through training for 2 weeks of 4 classes, students were asked to rewrite this composition and graded according to CET-4 again. Generally speaking, students got achievements in writing and the average score reached at 8.6, two of which even got the highest of 12. The majority of the class improves the writing

skills in accurate expressions, collocation and grammar. But the discourse cohesive devices were not completely mastered for the time was limited and writing was a long process of practice.

After C-R approach applied in writing teaching, an interview was taken to see the attitudes of students on C-R. During the interview, students welcome to introduce C-R approaches in class and most of them claim that they become to realize writing can be interesting and the learning activities can be designed by themselves. The previous learning methods seem too mechanical and dependent.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

A. C-R Approach's Influence on Students' Learning

From the talk with students, it is apparent that C-R influence students' affective state a lot. Previously, writing classes seem monotonous to them and mean a heavy load of writing job to them. They never take mistakes into consideration but feel no other way to write on and on. However, what they repeat is almost the mistakes without the awareness to correct. This kind of writing cannot improve their writing skills but guide them into a trap of a vicious spiral. After introducing C-R into class, students are asked to discover their mistakes by their own or in group work. So the writing class motivates students in writing study. "If asked to identify the most powerful influences on learning, motivation would probably be high on most teachers' lists, and it seems only sensible to assume that learning is most likely to occur when we want to learn" (Marion Williams & Robert Burden, 2000, p10) Affective factors generally include attitude, anxiety, inhibition, self-esteem, motivation and empathy (Arnold, 2000).

Learner, who has experienced success, will have these attitudes reinforced. Similarly, learners' negative attitudes may be strengthened by lack of success. Through investigation after class, students agree that they now can learn lively and previously they show prejudice in English writing. Actually English writing class can be student-centered by means of several arrangements such group discussion, teachers' guide, essay appreciation, during which students are found less anxiety and get inspired from each other. They focus on the problems in writing, share ideas and cooperate to find answers to the problems. Eventually, they become to accept the new learning method and feel free to communicate with teachers. They learn they are the leading role at class.

B. C-R Approach's Influence on Teachers' Teaching

In writing instruction, two main approaches are often applied by teachers: the product approach and process approach. By product approach, teachers ask students to pay their attention on the features of model texts and spend much time on developing their ability to produce those features in accuracy. There are usually three steps in this writing method. At the beginning, teachers leave a topic for a composition assignment; and then students are requested to hand a piece of writing in a limited time; finally teachers correct and mark those writing and give feedback next class. For the process approach, students are the center and they are encouraged to create language in order to express their own ideas with their own individual intrinsic motives. Brown (2002) in his research reveals advantages of this writing method: focus on the process of writing that leads to the final written product; help student writers to understand their own composing process; help them to build repertoires of strategies for prewriting, drafting, and rewriting; let students discover what they want to say as the write; encourage feedback both from the instructor and peers. Through this method of writing, students not only become more familiar with the process of writing but also become more accountable in developing writing skills. Apparently, teachers in product approach teaching usually overemphasize the final product of writing and pay little attention to the composing process. The inevitable result is that students practice writing time and time again using stereotyped expressions so as to leave them in low mood even frustration. However, C-R tasks are set in the same purpose with the process approach. Teachers are expected to play roles as guide, facilitator, assessor, partner, communicator, source of information, and organizer. On the one hand, teachers need to promote students' learning initiative by using autonomy and metacognitive strategies. On the other, teachers need to take the responsibility consciously. Only when teachers are metacognitively aware will they make use of efficient strategies at class to motivate students in writing.

V. CONCLUSION

As seen in the simple empirical study, the whole class is benefited from the theories of C-R, which raises their language awareness and builds confidence in writing. The overall goal of any strategy training program is to help learners become more successful in their attempts to learn a foreign language (Cohen, 2000). Writing is a complex activity which requires high proficiency in several areas of knowledge and can conversely promote English learning in China (Wang C.M. et al, 2000). It weighs great in the use of grammar, diction, collocation and the appropriateness of sentence. The result of this study is encouraging although the practice time is limited. The future research is indispensable to investigate more at fulfilling C-R approaches in writing class. Nevertheless, it is also hopeful that this research inspires some new thoughts and makes contributions to replicate the study in the area of foreign language acquisition.

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The Effect of Extensive and Intensive Reading on Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Size and Depth

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Abstract—This study investigated the effect of Extensive and Intensive Reading on Iranians' EFL learners' vocabulary size and depth. To this end, 120 participants studying English as a foreign language at Omid English Language Centre were chosen based on their Oxford Quick Placement Test (2004) scores. They were divided into two groups, intermediate and advanced. Then the students in each group were randomly further divided into two groups, one receiving Intensive Reading treatment, while the other Extensive Reading treatment. Two types of vocabulary test—Schmidt's Vocabulary Levels Test (2001) and Read's Word Associates Test (1998) were administered. Each was run twice, once before the treatment (IR/ER) as a pretest and once after the treatment as a post-test to check the effects of the two treatments on vocabulary size and depth of the participants. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data. The results of the study showed that both IR and ER have an impact on learners' vocabulary size and depth significantly and that the students' vocabulary knowledge in terms of size and depth had increased. Moreover, the students at the intermediate level took more advantage of IR than ER, but in the advanced group the students benefited more from ER than IR. Finally the study demonstrated that reading both intensively and extensively can lead to vocabulary development in a way that the number of vocabulary which each learner knows in terms of each word's synonym, antonym and collocation will be improved significantly.

Index Terms—intensive/extensive reading, vocabulary size/depth

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is a complex, multi-faceted activity, which involves a combination of both lexical and text processing skills widely recognized as being interactive. In recent years, two major approaches have been used in developing reading skills, known as Extensive and Intensive Reading (hereafter ER and IR). Indeed, both approaches have played important roles in helping learners gain fluency, first in the critical area of vocabulary and word recognition, then in developing better reading comprehension skills.

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), Intensive Reading is related to further progress in language learning under the teacher's guidance. It provides a basis for explaining difficulties of structure and for extending knowledge of vocabulary and idioms.

As far as reading comprehension is concerned, IR deals with comprehension mostly at lexical and syntactic level. Comprehension beyond these two levels is dealt with in another approach of reading under the name of ER. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), Extensive Reading means reading in quantity in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build knowledge of vocabulary and structure and to encourage a liking for reading (Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R., 2002) .The purpose of extensive reading is to train the students to read directly and fluently in the target language for enjoyment without the aid of the teacher. ER, reading with "large quantities of materials that is within learners' linguistic competence" (Grabe & Stroller, 2002, p. 21) supposedly helps in vocabulary learning by creating opportunities for inferring word meaning in context (see, e.g., Krashen, 2004).

The importance of vocabulary in language acquisition goes uncontested. Haynes and Baker (1993) came to the conclusion that the most significant handicap for L2 readers is not lack of reading strategies but insufficient vocabulary in English. What these studies indicate is that the threshold for reading comprehension is, to a large extent, lexical. Lexical problems will, therefore, hinder successful comprehension. It is evident that vocabulary is indispensable for successful communication in any language. However, the key role vocabulary plays in language learning has not always been reflected in the researches and studies and the amount of attention given to it by language teachers and researchers in applied linguistics was not significant. Interest in the relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension has also a long history in the research of ESL/EFL reading. Observing the performance of ESL/EFL readers, confronted with unknown vocabulary, researchers have noted the important role of vocabulary as a predictor of overall reading ability (Nation,1990; 2001). In fact, second/foreign language readers often cite lack of adequate vocabulary as one of

the obstacles to text comprehension. Yet many of these vocabulary studies were based on an earlier understanding of the nature of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Cronbach, 1942). Two common assumptions were (1) that word knowledge is mainly or only about meaning, and (2) that learners either do or do not know what a word means.

Vocabulary knowledge can be conceptualized as having two basic dimensions: vocabulary size (breadth) and depth (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). Whereas size is how many vocabulary items a learner knows, depth is understood as how well the learner knows them (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Qian, 2002). For a learner to truly know a word, he or she must know many things about it: spelling, morphology, acceptable inflectional use, word class, etc.

According to Grabe (2000), the integration of IR reinforces vocabulary learning and development and that ESL/EFL learners can benefit from IR in order to improve their vocabulary knowledge. On the other hand, Newman and Green (2004) claimed that learners who were exposed to ER with deliberate attention to vocabulary, performed better on vocabulary tests and consequently, their knowledge of vocabulary was reinforced.

Extensive Reading (ER) in EFL settings has received increasing discussion over the past decade or two as an approach for improving learners' reading fluency. This form of reading, first coined by Palmer (1917, 1968) can be defined as the reading of materials in the target language in a rapid and casual way with a focus on quantity rather than quality. Extensive Reading is often assumed to be contrasted with Intensive Reading, which is most commonly associated with a line-by-line, or grammar-translation approach to learning to read in a foreign language (Palmer, 1964). While there is abundant evidence that reading plays a significant role in learning a foreign or second language (Camiciottoli, 2001; Constantino et al., 1997; Gradman and Hanania, 1991; Janopoulos, 1986), many studies have also stressed the benefits of ER, such as its positive effect on reading comprehension (Bell, 2001; Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Lai, 1993; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Robb & Susser 1989; Sheu, 2003), vocabulary knowledge (Elley, 1991; Lao & Krashen; 2000, Sheu, 2003), writing performance (Elley, 1991; Hafiz & Tudor, 1990; Lai, 1993; Mason & Krashen, 1997), grammatical competence (Elley, 1991; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Sheu, 2003). These studies cover a wide range of learners' ages and were conducted in a variety of settings, both ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL, both inside and outside of set curriculums and schools, and as mainstream or supplementary activities.

A.   Theoretical Framework

In recent years, an impressive body of evidence has appeared supporting ER as a means of improving not only students' reading level but also their general language proficiency. Krashen (1982) argues that students can acquire language on their own provided that a) they receive enough exposure to comprehensible language and b) it is done in a relaxed, stress-free atmosphere. ER satisfies both these conditions since, by definition, it involves reading large amounts of easy materials at home, with little or no follow-up work or testing. Krashen (1982) further holds that the unconscious process of language acquisition, occurring when reading for pleasure, is more successful and longer lasting than conscious learning. Day and Bamford (1998) offer this simple summary of the theory behind ER "students who read large quantities of easy, interesting material will become better readers and will enjoy the experience", in other words, "students learn to read by reading" (p. 86).

There are various studies emphasizing the fact that ER leads to language proficiency in general, and vocabulary development in particular. Some researchers such as Coady (1997), Shin & Kyu-Cheol (2003), Nassaji (2003), Gu (2003), and Horst (2005) all have found the effect of this approach on vocabulary development. This study adopts Kweon's (2008) model to see if and how ER affects vocabulary knowledge. The reason for using this model is that different concepts from other studies have been integrated into it giving it more generality than other models. According to Kweon (2008) second language vocabulary can be learned incidentally while the learner is engaged in ER for meaning, inferring the meaning of unknown words. The results showed a significant word gain in terms of different word classes that were used, nouns were a little easier to retain than verbs and adjectives. More frequent words were more easily learned than less frequent words across all 3 word classes. However, words of lower frequency were better learned than words of higher frequency when the meanings of the lower frequency words were crucial for meaning comprehension.

B.   Review of Literature

There is a large body of knowledge in literature suggesting vocabulary acquisition as a result of IR. Some investigated the process of vocabulary size and incidental learning during IR and some examined the lexical knowledge in terms of vocabulary depth including synonymy and collocation. Thompson, (2002) conducted a study to determine which aspects of learners' vocabulary knowledge changes as a result of IR. Samples of 360 EFL learners were chosen who all received different reading passages during their English course in an intensive program. Before the course begun all of the students took a pretest of vocabulary as a yardstick, and then the same exam was given to them after the intensive reading program. The result showed a significant difference regarding vocabulary gain i terms of vocabulary meaning, synonym and antonym.

In another study of vocabulary enrichment through IR, Stahl, (2003) investigated the relationship between IR and overall language proficiency. 88 Chinese students who were learning English for communication purposes were selected. They were encountered with different reading texts. They were all supposed to read the text, find the meaning, synonym or even an antonym of the unknown words, give a paraphrase and at last write a brief summary for each piece of reading. And in different interval they took different English proficiency tests including vocabulary and reading

section. The result revealed significant differences between the students with regard to vocabulary recognition, meaning, synonym and antonym.

Won (2008) examined the effect of IR on active vs. Passive vocabulary. The result uncovered a drastic change in the learners' vocabulary knowledge in the sense that on one hand the number of active vocabulary which they could recognize was much more greater in number, and their ability to choose and comprehend word knowledge in terms of associations, collocation, synonymy and antonym had been improved drastically.

There has been a reasonable amount of research on incidental vocabulary learning from Extensive Reading (e.g., Day et al., 1991; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Hayashi, 1999; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989; Waring & Takaki, 2003). Several studies of such Extensive Reading programs have cited gains in overall language development (e.g., Cho & Krashen, 1994; Elley, 1991; Hafiz & Tudor, 1990). Other studies have emphasized benefits such as increased motivation to learn the new language and renewed confidence in reading (e.g., Brown, 2000; Hayashi, 1999; Mason & Krashen, 1997). In addition, research has indicated that the productive skills of writing and speaking have similarly been enhanced (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Janopoulos, 1986; Robb & Susser, 1989). Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) claimed that through Extensive Reading learners can "enrich their knowledge of the words they already know, increase lexical access speeds, build network linkages between words, and a few words will be acquired" (p. 221). In their vocabulary study, a multiple-choice, immediate posttest measure indicated that of 23 new words available for learning in the graded reader The Mayor of Casterbridge, 5 words were learned, which is a gain of 22%. In a similar study conducted by Waring and Takaki (2003), a multiple-choice, immediate posttest measure indicated that of 25 new words available for learning in the graded reader A Little Princess, 11 words were learned (as measured by success on these tests), a gain of 42% . In a further study conducted by Horst (2005), a modified vocabulary knowledge scale, immediate posttest measure indicated that of 35 new words available for learning in self-selected graded reading materials, 18 words were learned: a gain of 51%. These gains are comparable to those achieved in the A Clockwork Orange investigation conducted by Saragi et al. (1978). In their study, subjects were able to correctly identify the meanings of 75% of the target words, especially the frequently recurring ones, in an unannounced multiple-choice test given immediately after the reading treatment. Since Saragi et al., approximately 10 other investigations have been undertaken to determine how much vocabulary is learned from reading in a foreign language. For a meta-analysis of these oft-cited, learning-from-context studies of vocabulary growth (see Waring & Nation, 2004).

The study of Waring and Takaki (2003) is particularly significant. Like Nagy et al. (1985), they too developed a methodology for measuring small gains by having several test formats. Where other studies had used only one measurement, this study used three different kinds of measurements. The measurements were a simple yes or no sight-recognition test, a standard multiple-choice test, and a translation test into the first language. Their results showed that incidental vocabulary learning from reading occurred at several levels and the gain scores depended on the test type, but not much new vocabulary was learned.

There are some studies emphasizing the fact that IR results in language proficiency and vocabulary development such as Anderson (1999), Li, Ying (1998), Paran (2003), Wang, Fenglin (2004) Shen (2008). This study adopts Shen's (2008) framework to see the effectiveness of IR on vocabulary size and depth. According to Shen (2008) foreign language vocabulary can be learned gradually while the learner is faced with IR. As the result shows, there is a significant word gain in terms of different word recognition, meaning and collocation.

This study intends to investigate the effect of Extensive and Intensive Reading on Iranian EFL Learners' vocabulary size and depth. Vocabulary load is the most significant predictor of text difficulty.

The present study, accordingly, seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Do Intensive and Extensive Reading make a significant difference between EFL learners' performance in terms of vocabulary size and depth?

2. Do these two methods of reading make a significant difference in learners' performance at intermediate and advanced levels?

3. What is the pattern of change and development in the learners' performance with regard to vocabulary size and depth?

II. METHODS

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 120 female students. They were attending a 40-session English program at Omid Language Center. They were recruited on voluntary basis and enrollment. The age range of the participants was from 16 to 28. The target language tested in this study was English. All the participants were native Persian speakers. Using Quick Placement Test (2004), all the participants were assigned to two groups, 60 in intermediate and 60 in advanced levels. So there were 4 groups. The first 30-student intermediate group received IR (group A), the second 30-student intermediate received ER (group B). The third 30-student advanced group received IR (group C) and the last one received ER (group D) respectively.

B. Instruments

The instruments used in the present study include three language tests and they were administrated. The three types of tests used in this study are, (a) Quick Placement Test (2004) which was administered in order to assign the students to intermediate and advanced levels, (b) Schmidt's Vocabulary Levels tests (2001) which were administered two times, one before the instruction as a pre-test and one after the instruction as a post-test to compare the two sets of score (pretest and posttest) in order to check the changes in the aspects of vocabulary knowledge in terms of both size comparing pre-test and post-test, (c) Read's Word Associates Test (1993,1998) to measure test-takers' depth of receptive English vocabulary knowledge in terms of three elements: synonymy, polysemy, and collocation.

C.   Materials

The following materials were employed in this study: (a) The materials used in ER in groups B and D (in both intermediate and advanced groups respectively) are 4 short stories of Graded Readers namely, "Little Women", "Oliver twist", given to intermediate level, and "The Old Man and the Sea", and "Pride and Prejudice" given to advanced level, and (b) The materials used in IR in groups A and C was the book of New Interchange level I for intermediate and New Interchange level II for advanced one.

D.   Data Collection Procedures

All required research procedures were followed. Before partaking in this study, the participants were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendices F and G). All the participants signed the consent form (in English) in order to report that they are contented to take part and therefore all participated in the present study. The QPT test was administered to all the participants (120 students), enrolled at Omid Language Centre in order to divide them into two groups of intermediate and advanced. The intermediate level was randomly assigned to two groups, each consisted of 30 students, the first group of 30 students received IR (group A) and the other ER (group B).

Again, the students in advanced group were randomly assigned to two groups each 30 students and one with again IR (group C) and the other with ER (group D). At the beginning of the course, Schmidt's vocabulary test the 2000 and 3000-word level to the two intermediate groups (groups A & B) and the 5000 and 10000-word level was administered to the advanced level (groups C & D) as a pre-test to check the students' vocabulary knowledge in terms of size in all four groups. Then, groups A and C, received IR. At the same time, the two other groups, groups B and D received ER. After finishing the instruction, another Schmidt's vocabulary test (The aforementioned word level test for each level) which served as a post-test was administered again to all the four groups in order to see if there is a change and development in vocabulary size. With regard to vocabulary depth, a test of Word Associates Test (WAT) was administered to all the four groups (groups A, B, C & D) twice, once as a pre-test before the instruction, and once as a post-test after the instruction, and both sets of scores for each person was compared to check the change and development in vocabulary depth.

E.   Data Analysis Procedures

The main purpose of the data analysis in the present study was multifold. To test the three research questions, the quantitative data based on the scores of the VLT and WAT was used (1) to reveal if Intensive and Extensive Reading make significant difference between EFL learners' performance in terms of vocabulary size and depth, (2) to determine if these two methods of reading make significant difference in learners' performance at intermediate and advanced levels, and (3) to observe what is the pattern of change and development in the learners' performance with regard to vocabulary size and depth. A Two-way ANOVA beside descriptive statistics was run to compare the two sets of pre-test and post-test scores and to check the effectiveness of different teaching methods (Intensive- Extensive Reading) on vocabulary development in terms of size and depth in all four groups and the significant level was set at 0.05 level ($p < 0.05$) . In order to see which variable (level or treatment) was more effective, Estimated Marginal Means was run as well. Moreover, with regard to each individual, the pre-test and post-test scores of each student are exactly compared together to check qualitatively the pattern of changes and developments in vocabulary size and depth.

III.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A.   Results

Both descriptive statistics including the mean score of each group and the results of the Two-way ANOVA with regard to vocabulary size were calculated, and the same is done with respect to vocabulary depth. Beside these, in both vocabulary size and depth analyses, estimated marginal means was run to check which variable (treatment/ level or the interaction between them) was more effective on the scores of the learners' vocabulary size and depth.

TABLE 4.1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED GROUPS WITH IR/ER

treatment	Level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
intensive	Advanced (C)	7.2333	3.04770	30
	Intermediate (A)	25.1333	5.88823	30
	Total	16.1833	10.15222	60
extensive	Advanced (D)	19.4667	5.23077	30
	Intermediate(B)	5.2000	2.44103	30
	Total	12.3333	8.25374	60
Total	Advanced (D,C)	13.3500	7.48745	60
	Intermediate(A,B)	15.1667	10.99949	60
	Total	14.2583	9.41347	120

By virtue of the above table, the mean score of 7.23 (group C) for advanced and 25.13 for intermediate (group A) groups were obtained based on their gain scores for those students who got IR treatment. On the other hand, the advanced group got the mean score of 19.46 (group D), while the intermediate group (group B) gained the mean score of 5.20, who both got ER treatment. That is to say that superior vocabulary learning in groups A (receiving IR) and D (receiving ER) over groups B (receiving ER) and C (receiving IR) is clear.

If we compare the mean scores of all four groups together, we will come to the following conclusions. In the first row, as it was with the groups with IR treatment (groups A & C), intermediate group (group A) got a higher mean score than the advanced one. Subsequently, if we take a look at second row in the same table which is related to groups B and D who received ER, it is understood that group D got higher scores in comparison with group B. If we take a look at all these four groups, groups A and B were in the same level of proficiency, and the vocabulary levels test which was administered for both groups twice (one as a pre-test and one as a post-test) was the same as well. Having been controlling the level of proficiency and the test as two variables, in the first place, it can be inferred that the difference between the two groups' mean scores can be due to different approaches namely as IR vs. ER. It means that in intermediate level, group A got higher mean score than group B. In other words, the students who received IR got much higher scores in comparison to those with ER treatment. The reverse result can be hold true in groups C and D in advanced levels; meaning that group C with IR gained much lower scores in comparison with group D with ER. But this does not mean that there is definitely a meaningful difference between the two groups with regard to their performance.

TABLE 4.2:
RESULTS OF TWO-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS IN INTERMEDIATE / ADVANCED GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE EFFECT OF IR/ER ON THE LEARNERS' GAIN SCORES: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	8303.892[a]	3	2767.964	143.271	.000	.787
Intercept	24396.008	1	24396.008	1.263E3	.000	.916
Treatment	444.675	1	444.675	23.017	.000	.166
Level	99.008	1	99.008	5.125	.025	.042
treatment * level	7760.208	1	7760.208	401.671	.000	.776
Error	2241.100	116	19.320			
Total	34941.000	120				
Corrected Total	10544.992	119				

a. R Squared = .787 (Adjusted R Squared = .782)

Table 4.2 summarizes the results of Two-way ANOVA. Two independent variables are dealt with in this table. In the first place, it shows that the significant level calculated for treatment is .000, which means that treatment was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). That is to say that, IR/ER together regardless of the type of approaches to reading did have effect on the students' vocabulary size and it could add to the number of vocabularies each student knew.

On the other hand, if we take a look at Table 4.2 again, it is shown that with regard to the level of proficiency, the significant level is .025 which is smaller than .05 level and that the effect of level was statistically significant. This means that level of proficiency could affect the students' vocabulary size ($p < 0.05$). This means that ER could affect the students' vocabulary size. There is another factor to be considered here, which is the interaction between two independent variables namely as treatment and level. As shown in the table as well, the difference was was in a way that the two variables mutually affect the gain scores of all learners' vocabulary size. It is concluded that the results in two levels (intermediate and advanced) were exactly reverse. That is to say that, in intermediate level the group received IR

got a higher mean score than that of the group with ER treatment which the reverse result holds true in advanced level meaning that those who received ER got much higher scores than those with IR.

The results are in line with a few of other studies. Many researchers like Meara 1997; Grabe 1991; Grabe and Stoller 2002; Qian 2002; Newman and Green 2004 have asserted that both IR and ER can affect learners' vocabulary knowledge with respect to the size aspect. But some other scholars emphasized that learners' proficiency level plays a crucial role in this issue. It means that at lower levels, as the students are more dependent to their teachers, they can benefit from IR more than ER. On the other hand, as the students' proficiency levels increases and the extent to which they are dependent decreases, they can benefit from ER as well as IR (Zimmerman, 1997).

It is concluded here that treatment (either IR/ER), level of proficiency (intermediate/advanced) as well as the interaction between them all make significant differences.

TABLE 4.3:
RESULTS OF ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS 1. TREATMENT

| Treatment | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intensive	16.183	.567	15.059	17.307
Extensive	12.333	.567	11.209	13.457

As the treatment is shown to be significant (Table 4.2) we can say that IR was more effective than ER when all the groups were taken into consideration.

TABLE 4.4:
RESULTS OF ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS 2. LEVEL

| Level | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Advanced	13.350	.567	12.226	14.474
intermediate	15.167	.567	14.043	16.291

As Table 4.4 shows, the participants outperformed better in intermediate group with the mean of 15.16 than advanced group who got the mean score of 13.35.

TABLE 4.5:
RESULTS OF ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS 3. TREATMENT * LEVEL

| treatment | Level | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
intensive	Advanced	7.233	.802	5.644	8.823
	intermediate	25.133	.802	23.544	26.723
extensive	Advanced	19.467	.802	17.877	21.056
	intermediate	5.200	.802	3.611	6.789

By virtue of the above table, as was mentioned before, the interaction between level of proficiency of all the participants and the treatment which they received was statistically significant. That is to say, both of the dependent variables did have effect on the learners' vocabulary knowledge with regard to vocabulary size.

TABLE 4.6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

level	treatment	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
intermediate	intensive	38.4333	20.23088	30
	extensive	13.4333	5.59361	30
	Total	25.9333	19.37661	60
advanced	intensive	34.4333	13.95481	30
	extensive	24.4333	8.13118	30
	Total	29.4333	12.39514	60
Total	intensive	36.4333	17.34824	60
	extensive	18.9333	8.86789	60
	Total	27.6833	16.29145	120

According to Table 4.6, group A got much higher scores (mean=38.43) in comparison to group B with the mean of 13.43. This means that for the level of proficiency being equal, students receiving IR treatment could get much higher

scores on vocabulary depth than those received ER in the same level.

If we take a look at the second row of the table, which is related to groups C and D in advanced groups, we imply that group C has a mean of 34.43 which is much higher than group D (mean =24.43).All in all, it can be implied that in both levels (intermediate/ advanced), participants who received IR treatment get much higher scores on vocabulary depth than those received ER. So, we can say that it is probable that IR could have much more effect on all participants' vocabulary depth than ER treatment.

In order to see which dependent variable (level/treatment) was in fact much more effective, and whether there is any significant difference in the two groups with different approaches of reading (IR vs. ER) regarding their knowledge of vocabulary depth Two-way ANOVA analysis was run. The results are shown in Tables 4.7.

TABLE 4.7:
RESULTS OF TWO-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS IN INTERMEDIATE/ADVANCED GROUPS WITH REGARD TO THE EFFECTS OF IR/ER ON THE LEARNERS' GAIN SCORES
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	11242.500[a]	3	3747.500	21.371	.000	.356
Intercept	91964.033	1	91964.033	524.437	.000	.819
level	367.500	1	367.500	2.096	.150	.018
treatment	9187.500	1	9187.500	52.393	.000	.311
level * treatment	1687.500	1	1687.500	9.623	.002	.077
Error	20341.467	116	175.357			
Total	123548.000	120				
Corrected Total	31583.967	119				

a. R Squared = .356 (Adjusted R Squared = .339)

By virtue of Table 4.7, the level of significance for the dependent variable level is .15. As this value is not statistically significant we conclude that level did not have significant effect on learners' vocabulary depth. Subsequently, for treatment as another dependent variable, the significant level calculated is .000 ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, treatment could statistically make significant difference between learners' performances on vocabulary depth. That is to say, all of the students either intermediate or advanced got much higher scores by receiving IR treatment. On the other hand, ER had little effect on both groups' vocabulary depth. At last, with regard to the interaction between level of proficiency and treatment, it is reported that significant level equals .002 ($p < 0.05$) which makes significant difference in learners' performance. For the purpose of investigating the dependant variables estimated marginal means was run. Running post hoc (Scheffe's test), Tables 4.8 shows the dependant variable level with the mean value.

TABLE 4.8:
RESULTS OF ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS 1. LEVEL

Level	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
intermediate	25.933	1.710	22.547	29.319
advanced	29.433	1.710	26.047	32.819

As shown in Table 4.8, there isn't much difference between the mean scores in two groups. (mean= 25.93 I intermediate and mean=29.43 in advanced level).

TABLE 4.9:
RESULTS OF ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS 2. TREATMENT

treatment	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
intensive	36.433	1.710	33.047	39.819
extensive	18.933	1.710	15.547	22.319

Table 4.9 demonstrates the mean of all participants' vocabulary depth with regard to IR/ER treatment. Groups A and C who both received IR had the mean of 36.43, while groups B and D with ER got the mean of 18.93 respectively. It is implied that treatment (as was mentioned in Table 4.6) had effect on learners' performances, and here, great difference between these two sets of means is congruent with the results of Table 4.6 as well.

TABLE 4.10:
RESULTS OF ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS 3. LEVEL * TREATMENT

Level	treatment	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
intermediate	intensive	38.433	2.418	33.645	43.222
	extensive	13.433	2.418	8.645	18.222
advanced	intensive	34.433	2.418	29.645	39.222
	extensive	24.433	2.418	19.645	29.222

Table 4.10 shows the interaction between level of proficiency and treatment. As the table show these two variables could affect learners' vocabulary depth.

Patterns of change pertaining to vocabulary size

As learners are given treatments either IR or ER in both levels, their lexical development patterns have a natural tendency to change over time. The reason for this change appears to be the fact that, as learners develop linguistically, they learn lexicons with more and more words that belong to other word categories, especially words that representing motions, ideas and events that take place frequently in the text - complex concepts and relations that require verbs and other word categories to achieve expression. This indicates that learners' word knowledge becomes increasingly complex through the passage of time.

Nouns: Following Tardif et al. (1996, 1999) categorization, nouns can be divided to the following subcategories:

(1) Common nouns: like gift, tax, skirt, etc.

(2) Abstract concepts: like pride, justice, zeal, etc.

(3) Outside/ Inside things: motor, trumpet, stool, etc.

(4) Locations/ occasions: like theatre, museum,circus, Eve, etc.

(5) Food/Drinks: like coffee, wine, ham, etc.

Verbs: There were a few different methods for classifying verbs in previous studies. For example, verbs can be classified differently, according to whether they refer to a physical motion that involves only an actor, an actor and patient (who receives the action), or either an actor or patient (Sandhofer, et al., 2000). In another work, Lee and Naigles (2005) categorized Mandarin verbs into seven semantic classes. I would like to apply Lee and Naigle's classification method to my cross-linguistic study. In particular, verbs can be classified as:

(1) Basic motions: like stand, sit, open, etc.

(2) Internal feeling or communication: like love, miss, say, tell, etc.

(3) Bodily processes or care: e.g. eat, drink, wear, etc.

(4) Creation/performance: e.g. build, draw, write, etc.

(5) Mental activities: like resolve, prefer, grasp, etc.

Adjectives: Adjectives were organized into various semantic subcategories.

Following the work of Blackwell (2005), I classified the adjectives into words representing:

(1) Dimension: like big, tall, deep etc. in English.

(2) Value: like good nice, bad etc.

(3) Abstract: like holy, curious ,tragic, etc.

(4) Physical property: like heavy, soft, slow etc.

(5) Human propensity: like crazy, happy, hungry, smart etc.

Generally, the results of vocabulary size with regard to its pattern of development gives us a picture of a gradually improvement of the language ability of learners in terms of how many vocabulary they know actively.

On one hand, by looking carefully and comparing the two set of all learners' scores one can conclude that those participants who received IR treatment in both levels, performed better on questions pertaining to noun category especially in Outside/ Inside things furniture and common nouns. For the verbs, the result showed that the verbs referring to bodily process subcategory and basic motions occur most frequently. For adjective, the words referring to physical property as well as dimension are among the most frequent words that all learners acquired. All in all, there were more nouns and adjectives than verbs in learners' vocabularies repertoire.

On the other hand, considering those with ER treatment, most changes were verbs especially in mental, creation and basic motions. Due to nouns, the following subcategories namely as routines, abstract nouns, and locations were highly known by these learners. In terms of adjectives, human propensity, value as well as physical properties were among those subcategories which showed a more drastic change.

Generally speaking, an interesting finding from this investigation was that although the complexity of learners' vocabulary size continues at a level higher (advanced level), all the participants (at both levels) show an increasing pattern of development with time.

This result is consistent with the findings of Sandhofer, et al. (2000), which indicates that learners follow developmental trend in vocabulary learning over time by reading as much as materials as they can.

Patterns of development pertaining to vocabulary depth

All learners' pair of scores (pretest vs. posttest) on their WAT test was investigated in order to see the pattern of

change with regard to their vocabulary tests. In terms of vocabulary depth test, all the stems were of one word category namely as adjective. Hence, two aspects of vocabulary dimensions were of high interest- synonym and collocation- which the learners' were supposed to match the stem with both of these two aspects.

The adjectives were divided into different subcategories:

(1) Personal characteristics: like calm, acute, bright etc.

(2) Human propensity: like crazy, happy, hungry, smart etc.

(3) Common adjectives: like complex, common, secure etc.

The results showed that students who received IR treatment in both intermediate and advanced levels could perform nearly well on synonyms while performing extremely poor on collocation. Conversely, all the participants did well on collocation as well as synonyms.

B. *Discussion*

As described in the result section, and based on the findings of this study, a relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension does exist in a way that learning occurred through reading both intensively and extensively. Receiving ER beside IR is considered to be essential and beneficial to the learners' vocabulary knowledge development in terms of vocabulary size and depth. However, it does not necessarily indicate that words are going to be learned naturally and correctly through reading. Once the necessity of vocabulary instruction is accepted, the only real issue is the best manner in which it is delivered.

The results of the study suggest the top priority of widening learners' vocabulary size (i.e., breadth of vocabulary knowledge). Nevertheless, the results also reveal that vocabulary depth seems to tag along with vocabulary size for these Iranian participants. The participants in both reading conditions (IR/ER) performed nearly the same in the way that all in both levels benefited from these treatments. As is apparent, the students in lower level of proficiency (e.g. intermediate level) performed better as a result of receiving IR treatment, but with higher level of proficiency (here, advanced level) they can benefited more from ER with regard to their knowledge of vocabulary size. Considering another side of the coin which is vocabulary depth, all the students with IR treatment performed better regardless of their level of proficiency .Therefore, building both vocabulary size and depth through reading needs to be specifically encouraged.

The results are complied with a few studies. Many researchers as mentioned by Paribakht and Wesch 1997; Schmidt 1998; August and Snow 2005; and Tran 2006 have declared both IR and ER can affect learners' vocabulary knowledge with regard to the depth. On the other hand, with regard to vocabulary size, upper proficiency level (here advanced level) were pertinent to learn extensively, while the lower level tend to improve their vocabulary knowledge by receiving IR treatment.

Therefore, their findings are congruent with the finding of the present study as they didn't lay emphasis on the learners' proficiency level as an importance factor. In this study, the students' pattern of change and development with regard to their vocabulary depth was in a way that in both levels (here intermediate/advanced levels), the students are more likely to learn synonyms, antonyms, collocations, and hyponyms as a result of IR /ER and none of these two approaches had priority over another. Also it supports Read's (2000) point of view, who states that reading comprehension leads to language proficiency in general and vocabulary acquisition in particular. It is also complied with another study done by Nurweni and Read (1999) who claimed that learning words through reading results in higher scores on vocabulary test.

Contrary to Meara (1996) and Qian's (2002)findings that reading cannot definitely built up the students' vocabulary knowledge, in this study it contributed to the vocabulary learning in both size and depth aspects.

One can conclude that reading as much as possible both intensively and extensively by paying attention to choose materials appropriate to one's level of proficiency is one of the determining factors in developing vocabulary knowledge speciallay size and depth. Krashen (1994) believed that doing reading as a habit can make significant changes in a learner's vocabulary knowledge.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Taken all the points together, the results of this study reached the conclusion that there are some relations between students' performance in vocabulary learning and reading approaches with regard to their level and vocabulary size/ depth. Therefore, this study attempts to shed light on the following questions:

With regard to the first research question, the results revealed that reading extensively or intensively, increases the learners' word knowledge, but their performances were different in various conditions. Having been controlling level as a variable, learners' vocabulary size and depth were calculated. The results showed that all the four groups benefited from both IR and ER treatments.

Considering vocabulary size, group A (intermediate received IR) and group D (advanced received ER) performed better than groups B and C. This may be due to the fact that students in intermediate level are still somehow dependent on their teachers, so that they can benefit from IR more than ER as we saw that those with IR program could gain more vocabulary knowledge in terms of size. On the other hand, students could get much higher scores in advanced level as a result of being more autonomous. With regard to their vocabulary depth, it was observed that like vocabulary size, all

the four groups (both intermediate/advanced levels) benefited from both approaches. A point to keep in mind here is that level of proficiency was not a determining factor in learners' performances but the treatment in a way that the IR was more effective than ER as the results showed.

Dealing with advanced level and regarding vocabulary size, it was concluded that the group received ER got higher scores in their posttests. That is to say, in advanced level, as they are proficient enough to read independently on their own, and on the other hand as they are more autonomous (Pigada, & Schmitt, N., 2006), so ER was more effective than IR. The students can feel even more convenient ad relaxed to read large amounts of materials compatible with their interests and tastes outside the classroom, and as a result they could perform better than that of IR program.

Taking into account the vocabulary depth, both IR and ER could affect all learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge with no priority. In other words, the students in advanced level can benefit equally from both IR and ER. This may provide us with this fact that reading extensively out of classroom with IR in class together play crucial roles in learners' vocabulary development.

The answer to the second research question turned out to be congruent with the past findings in this regard. The results of Two-way ANOVA showed that all learners in the two levels took advantage of both methods with regard to vocabulary size and depth as the results showed significant differences which demonstrate the great effects of both approaches in learners' vocabulary knowledge.

In terms of the third research question, the results showed that all participants in both intermediate and advanced levels, gained higher scores in their posttests in comparison with their pretests. It means that their number of vocabulary they knew increased in number, with IR in intermediate and ER in advanced level. On the other hand, learners in intermediate level could gain more vocabulary depth \in terms of synonym rather than collocation while advanced level could benefit from both IR and ER to enhance their vocabulary depth in terms of both synonym, antonym, hyponym, and collocation.

The findings of the present study reinforce previous research (Haynes & Baker, 1993) that indicates strong effect of reading techniques on vocabulary acquisition. Together with the findings of previous research, this study seems to lend support to the already done researches in this field. So, to summarize, reading techniques either intensively or extensively are effective and efficient ways of improving foreign language learners. Given the appropriate situation to learners to do reading as much as they can, teachers also play important roles in so-doing activity namely as teaching process. They are assumed to use some practical ways to encourage students read either intensively or extensively.

● Various methods have been developed so far to assess vocabulary knowledge and learning using a combination of them seems to help the teacher assess even learners' partial vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary instruction is changing continually. The teachers should keep abreast of standards and study the available resources to select suitable condition, teach through effective techniques, and assess vocabulary appropriately.

● From a pedagogical point of view, it is plausible to recommend language teachers consider different approaches to reading (e.g. Intensive and Extensive), because they definitely have significance for teaching purposes as the findings suggest. Teachers can implement these important points in the process of teaching vocabulary and help the learners make significant improvement.

● In IR situation, teachers can provide a situation for the learners' by choosing the comprehensible and interesting materials and providing a more friendly and less authoritative atmosphere in the classroom. On the other hand, with regard to ER, the teacher should persuade students to read extensively by presenting suitable reading texts outside the classroom and implement reading habit in learners by making them aware of the benefits of ER.

It is also intended for the teachers to benefit from this study. Teachers can integrate ER into the language teaching curriculum. They can get started introducing ER to students, identifying and organizing suitable reading materials, motivating and supporting ER by designing activities focusing on ER, and finally monitoring and evaluating reading. This can be achieved by considering two factors. The first prerequisite is that students should have a basic knowledge of the target language, and the second prerequisite is that students should have access to suitable reading materials from which they can select what they want to read. The results of this study are expected to have instructional implications for Iranian EFL students in particular and possibly for EFL learners in general.

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Influences of Cultural Differences between the Chinese and the Western on Translation

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Abstract—The Factors of cultural differences on translation should not be underestimated .Exchange of different ethnic languages is essentially different cultural exchanges. We have to well master the two languages and deeply understand the two cultures, especially the differences between them. We'll overcome the barriers of language translation. This paper analysis the influences of the differences between the Chinese culture and the Western culture toward translation, from the perspective of religious belief, geographical environment, modes of thinking and different historical culture.

Index Terms—translation, ability of analysis, cultural difference, cultural factors

I. INTRODUCTION

We should make clear the definition of culture. We sometimes say that people who know about art, music, and literature are cultured. What do we mean by culture when we say different nations have different cultures?   Obviously, culture in the sense is different from the concept of culture in the sense of excellent tastes in literature, music, philosophy, art, etc. The definition of "culture" as given in the Concise Oxford Dictionary varies from descriptions of the "Arts" to plant and bacteria cultivation and includes a wide range of intermediary aspects. More specifically concerned with language and translation. Culture is an extremely complex concept and an enormous subject. It embraces almost everything in the world, whether material or spiritual. The differences between English and Chinese culture bring more difficulties than the differences between linguistic structures. Language and culture have close relationship with each other. Translation is language translation and is even culture translation. Language, which possesses all the features of culture, belongs to institutional culture. Like all other aspects of culture, language is not inherited but acquired and shared by a whole society. Language mirrors other parts of culture, supports them, spreads them and helps to develop others. This special feature of language distinguishes it from all other facets of culture and makes it crucially important for the transfer of culture. It is no exaggeration to say that language is the life-blood of culture and that culture is the track along which language forms and develops. This comparative study of Chinese and English focuses on their differences, and we can conclude from it that differences in language arise from differences in mental culture. While translation is obviously a transfer of language, it is also a transfer of mental culture. Lotman's theory(1978) stated that: "no language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its center, the structure of natural language" (Lotman, 1978, p.211). Bassnett (1980) underlines the importance of this double consideration when translating by stating that language is "the heart within the body of culture,"(Bassnett, 1980, p.13) the survival of both aspects being interdependent. Linguistic notions of transferring meaning are seen as being only part of the translation process that a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria must also be considered.

II. INFLUENCES OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES TOWARD TRANSLATION

A. Religious Belief and Historian Historical Allusion

Different religious beliefs exist in the Chinese and the Western cultures, It determines the differences of the two languages in many different ways of expression. The Westerners believe in Christianity. They think that God created everything.,while Buddhism and Taoism are the main religions in China. Many idioms related with religious beliefs appears in English and Chinese. Buddhism had more than 1000 years in China. So there are many religious vocabularies, such as "玉帝"、"观音"、"菩萨"、"佛主"、"慈悲为怀". But in Western countries Christian Culture has the main position. The Bible is Christian Classics. In the formation and development of Western culture it has played an immeasurable role. Do not understand the Bible, it is impossible to understand Western culture and civilization. Religious beliefs permeate expressions of languages, and caused the different styles of the expression. In the Chinese Feudal society, people regard "heaven" as a domination of the nature, however, the Westerns regard "God" as the creator and the dominator and the God arranged all of things. "God helps those who help themselves"(上帝帮助自助之人).

Example1: Liu laolao said that: "谋事在人，成事在天"。——"（《红楼梦》第六回）

The translation of the sentence is: Man proposes, God disposes. Readers have to take liu laolao as a Christian. So Yang xianyi put it into English: Man proposes, Heaven disposes.

Example2: You are just a doubting Thomas. You won't believe what I tell you. The translation of this sentence is:你这个人真多疑，我说什么你都不信."doubting Thomas" comes from the Bible. Thomas is a student of Jesus who believed nobody. So Westerners regard it as "多疑之人".

Example3: I believe, because of my religious faith, that I shall "return to Father in an afterlife is beyond description ."Here can we translate afterlife into "来世" or "来生". If so, it seems not proper in this sentence. That is because"来世(lai shi) or"来生(lai sheng) all come from Buddhism term. In Christian countries, it can not be accepted by a Christian . In this sentence, the author's meaning is obvious, he or she refers to religious faith and Father. It is obviously that he or she is a Christian. Therefore it will be much proper if we translate afterlife into Chinese as：" 人死后的那段时光."

As to religious culture, though we can find some words in Chinese equivalent to English words for the basic meaning, the words including the religious culture meaning which are quite different. For example, dragon and"龙"(long), the denotation of this two words are the same, but the connotation is totally different. In English, dragon stands for monster, demon or savage. But to Chinese,"龙"(long) is something sacred by most people, even it has been regarded as the ancestor of Chinese nation, that is why we Chinese people call ourselves"龙的传人"(descendants of the dragon), Chinese feudal emperors were often called"真龙天子"(zhen long tian zi), what they wear called "龙袍"（long pao）, where they were decorated with dragon. There are also many Chinese phrases related to "龙"，such as:"望子成龙(wang zi cheng long)"、"龙凤成祥(long feng cheng xiang)". But to English speaking people, they can not accept such metaphor, in their mind dragon stands for evil or monster which can spit fire and possesses three to nine heads. For such consideration, there are very few English idioms with the word dragon, so"亚洲四小龙"was translated as "The four tigers of Asia."

When we translate the vivid story, we should know the cultural differences and the proper way to translate them. Chinese culture is abundant, so are other countries. There are also many allusions or proverbs, most of which are associated with the history and culture of a nation. Let us take "paint the lily" for example, if we do not know the culture which associates with it, we can not know the real meaning of this phrase or any hints from the phrases.

B. Modes of Cognitive Thinking

English national thinking is individual, unique, while the Chinese pay attention to collective. To the Chinese, thought is more important than form. What we care about is the conveyance of meaning; form is secondary. English-speakers place more emphasis on objective thinking, and focus on "what happened in any man" which is regarded as the product of scientific reasoning and analysis, while Chinese-speakers relatively pay attention to main body thinking, and place more emphasis on "what about the person" As a result, Chinese is a topic-dominated language while English is a subject-dominated language. A Chinese sentence revolves around a thought pivot, while English sentences rely on a form-pivot (or subject-predicate pivot). Therefore, the subject of a sentence is not as important in Chinese as it is in English. In Chinese, the subject is no more than the topic discussed; it can be a noun or a word of another class; any word that begins a sentence can be regarded as the subject because anything can be a topic. In English, the subject is the indispensable element of a sentence; it should be nominal and has a decisive grammatical function--even a slight change in the subject may affect the whole sentence. Hence, when translating from Chinese into English, it is very important to select a suitable subject for the establishment of the subject-predicate mechanism--the kernel of the translated sentence. Sometimes the subject should be amplified; other times it should be determined by the context, the logical relationship, or the need for concordance between subject and predicate. The translation of the following sentences give some examples.

Example1: 一边走着，似乎道旁有一个孩子抱着一堆灿白的东西。驴儿过去了，无意间回头一看，一看---他抱着花儿，赤着脚儿，向着我微微的笑。冰心《笑》

"As I passed along, I somewhat sensed the presence of a child by the roadside carrying something snow white in his arms. After the donkey had gone by, I happened to look back and saw the child, who was barefoot, looking at me smilingly with a bunch of flowers in his arms". (Pr. Zhang Peiji, 1999) The Chinese thought pattern makes it possible to apprehend the subjects of 一边走着,(感到) 道旁有一个孩子，无意中回头一看 immediately. In the English translation, «I» must be added three times in order for English readers to understand who is doing the action and for the sentences to be completed.

Example2: 不要有了新亲，把旧亲忘个干净！这种没良心的人我见得多了。钱钟书《围城》

"Once you have new relatives, don't forget the old ones. I've seen too many such ungrateful people". (Dr. Jeanne Kelly & Nathan K. Mao) The first sentence of the ST (source text) is subjectless. It is a piece of advice with an imperative function. Hence "You" (listener) is added. "I" is selected as the subject of the second sentence to make the version natural. The relationship between language and thought is dialectical and unified. On one hand, thought depends on language as material; On the other hand, thought dominates language.

Example3: "Nobody could be too foolish this day". If this sentence is translated as"今天谁也不会太愚蠢"from the

meaning of every word, it's really far away from the true meaning. In English, the meaning of this sentence shows the different mode of thinking. The right transition should be "今天无论怎么样出洋相，都不过分".

C.   Regional and Natural Environments

Regional culture is formed by the natural condition, surrounding and location of districts. It manifests that different nations use different description on the same subject of phenomenon. Geographical features can be normally distinguished from other cultural terms in that they are usually value free, politically and commercially. Nevertheless, their diffusion depends on the importance of their country of region as well as their degree of specificity. (Newmark, 2001)

Different geographical environment affect weather and climate of different regions. And the climate also affects the use of language and the connotation of words.

For example, the regional cultures between Chinese and British are quite different. In China, it is known to all that south is in dominant place, people always say "从南到北"、"南来北往"、"南面为王北面为朝"、"南为尊北为卑". But in English they are expressed in the other way, the English people often say "from north to south". In China, we say "西北"、"西南"、"东北"、"东南".But in English speaking countries, it is expressed like this: "north-west, south-west, north-east, south-east". East wind (东风), though the phrase refers to the same object, however, the connotation of the two words is not the same. In China ,"东风"stands for spring, warm and agreeable weather. It can resuscitate the plants, so people have a deep feeling for it. In Britain, east wind symbolizes cold, unpleasant thing. Therefore western people loathe east wind, what they beloved is west wind. It comes along with spring. As we know, the romantic poet Sherry wrote a famous poem--Ode to the West Wind. At the end of this poem, he wrote like this: "o wind, if winter comes, can spring be far behind?" He wants to express his longing for future and firm belief. Another sentence is: "How many winter days have I seen him, standing blue-nosed in the snow and east wind"? When we translate it into Chinese, we have to consider the different regional culture, it should be translated like this, "在许多冬日里我总看见他，鼻子冻得发紫，长在飞雪和西风之中"。If we translate "the east wind" into（东风之中）, Chinese readers will misunderstand the real meaning of this sentence, because east wind in their mind are spring, warm and agreeable.

Because of geographical features of the English nations, their life is relevant to oceans whether in history or reality. Hence, there are lots of vocabulary about water in English. For example, in English, we use "spend money like water", but in China, we say"挥金如土"to express spending large sums of money. In England, there are many idioms about boats and water. And in China, there are not completely corresponding idioms, such as ,to rest on one's oars(暂时歇一歇)，to keep one's head above water(奋力图强),all at sea(不知所措)。Geographical and environmental elements are also part of one's nation's culture.

III.   CONCLUSION

Chinese and English--the two languages derive from different cultures and carry different culture. This will inevitably result in some differences in the expression of the two languages. Different language may use different linguistic forms, but these forms are only one of the aspects of the difference between the two language systems. To handle the cultural differences on translation, one has to understand deeply a foreign nation's culture and language and learn to master how to use c-e translation in the cultural exchanges

If the reality being represented is not familiar with the audience, the translation stumbles and becomes different to read. The translator would have to consider whether similar or parable language resources exist in the literary subculture of the target language. So the translator should possess two cultural apprehension and the ability to use the language, and we must constantly improve our cultural accomplishment. We should overcome the barrier of both Chinese and Western culture, and respect other peoples' cultures, respect one's own nation's culture as well so as to achieve the purpose of the cultural communication.

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Translation Quality and Awareness of Cultural Translation Theories

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Abstract—The present paper reports a study carried out to examine the possible outcomes of incorporating cultural translation theories and its subcomponents to translation syllabi and highlight their possible positive effects on translation quality of EFL learners and translation trainees in Iranian universities.150 Iranian undergraduate students took part in this study. They were divided into three groups –one experimental and two control groups. After homogenizing the participants through a TOEFL test, a translation pre-test was given to them and then cultural theories of translation like Venuti's model were taught to the experimental group who were later required to use the taught material in their classroom translation practice during one academic semester. The control groups were run traditionally as widely practiced in Iranian undergraduate translation classes. A translation post-test was given to all the groups at the end of the semester. The statistical results demonstrate a significant difference between the pre- and post- tests in the experimental group as compared with the control groups.

Index Terms—translation theories, cultural theories, translation pedagogy, translation quality, translator training

I. INTRODUCTION

Languages live and grow just as human beings do. Human beings need interaction and communication and so do languages. This interaction is materialized through translating. The importance of translating is further highlighted when we take the new world of information exchange and globalization into consideration. During the recent decades, "Translation Studies" has found its place as a new and independent discipline which requires its own theories, techniques, principles, and approaches. This fact, however, has not been widely recognized yet, especially in my country (Iran), and this is due to the nature of translating. As Federici (2007) maintains: "translation is certainly a highly skilled activity, a first-class art based on a high level of competence not only in the two languages but in both cultures" (p.152). Thus, the translating process can be said to have a dual nature: scientific and artistic. The artistic nature is widely accepted while its scientific nature has yet to be recognized and investigated. The scientific part of translation requires its own curriculum, methodologies, syllabi, and teacher expertise. That is why Davies (2004) views the translation teacher as playing a double role as both an expert in the field of translation and an expert in teaching (p.2).

The new approaches to teaching translation embrace inclusion of theories of translation, text functions and text type awareness in their curricula and syllabi. Davies (2004) suggests that the "read and translate" directive to teach translation is probably as obsolete and unproductive as the Grammar-Translation Method is to teach a foreign language (p.3). Several authors and researchers in the field have written about the role translation theories, text types and awareness of text functions can have in enhancing translation abilities of translator trainees (Newmark 1988;- Gentile 1991;- Gile 1991;-Munday 2001;- Bassnett 2002;- Chesterman & Wagner 2002). This study aims to investigate the impacts that awareness of cultural translation theories has on the translation quality of translator trainees.

The undergraduate English major programs in Iranian universities include translation courses as a core component. In most translation classes, the "read and translate" strategy (Davies, 2004) is the most common event which takes place. Most translation courses are taught by instructors whose major is TEFL and whose knowledge of translation theories is very limited. Most instructors are unaware of the recent findings in translation studies because this is not their major, although they are expected to be able to teach translation. The reason behind this is that the depth, and complexities of the nature of translating are not yet recognized, not even in our academia. Moreover, it is widely known that theory and practice are complementary while most translation instructors in our universities are not into the practice of translation themselves.

A. Translation Theory

Flourishing of translation theories and expansion of new ideas towards the translating process was a turning point in translation studies. Gentile (1991) maintains: "practice which is not informed by a theoretical framework, suffers from the idiosyncrasies of practitioners" (p.344). Gile (1991) also mentions the potential advantages of incorporating theoretical components into translator training programs, thereby: "accelerating and enhancing the scope of students' progress, helping them make appropriate decisions in new situations and maintaining appropriate strategies and tactics" (p.185). However, he has not performed any empirical studies to validate his findings in authentic pedagogical settings.

The purpose of translation theory, according to Bassnett (2002), is to reach an understanding of the processes undertaken in the act of translation. Theory and practice are indissolubly linked, and are not in conflict (p.43-4). However, Chesterman & Wagner (2002) mention that we can make some guesses based on intuition or experience in this regard, but we need more empirical evidence before we can make good predictions (p.64). Also, Davies (2004) confirms the above point by asserting that translation studies has a multifaceted character and is a complex and still relatively unexplored area of study which lacks a rich pedagogical tradition (p.11).

B. The Study

The present study was designed to see whether or not awareness of cultural theories of translation improves the quality of students' translations at the undergraduate level.

II. METHODOLOGY

About 150 Iranian undergraduate students from two different universities in Tabriz, Iran took part in this study. The students from Tabriz University majored in English literature and the students from Maragheh Azad University majored in ELT. The subjects were informed at the beginning of the semester that they were participating in a study for the purpose of enhancing translation pedagogy. The course devoted to the study was a translation course offered to students who had already passed two basic courses on translation, but no course on theories of translation. All the subjects were Iranian and factors such as age and sex were assumed to be randomly distributed.

Procedure

The students in Tabriz University were assigned as the experimental group and Maragheh Azad University students were assigned as two control groups. Tabriz University students were assigned as the experimental group because they were only one group while Maragheh University students were two groups and the way their classes were run and the kind of practice applied in the class and the methodology should have been equal for both groups. A TOEFL test was administered to all the subjects at the beginning to secure homogeneity in terms of English language competence. Then, a translation test (from English to Persian) was given to all groups at the beginning of the semester as a pre-test. After the pre-test, the treatment started which included teaching cultural theories to the experimental group during the whole semester. The translation practices which took place besides teaching the theories were based on Davies' (2004) description of a student and learning-centered context that focuses on collaborative study and exploration of the translation process with the teacher acting as guide. The students practiced translating in groups and they consulted with one another within the groups while the teacher was available to exchange views among the groups. This was done to maintain the student centered context mentioned above. The texts chosen for translation practice in the classes reflected the points highlighted by the theories. In teaching cultural theories to the undergraduate students in the experimental group, raising cultural awareness of the cultural references in the text, and helping them transfer these references in the target language was done in the class as suggested by Davies (2004) since cultural immersion may take a longer time to be achieved than linguistic competence (p.86). Davies citing Duff (1981) suggests that a course which includes explicit teaching should be designed at two levels: a/ the pedagogical, where the teacher makes sure that a wide range of cultural issues will be dealt with in an organized and graded way, and b/ the professional, where the students are made aware of the issue of subjectivity and of the different strategies they can use to transfer cultural references (p.86).

Other teaching strategies adopted from Davies (2004) in the experimental class included:

- Explicitation: some information is added to the text in TL.
- Exoticism: The SL is kept with no changes in the translation
- Cultural transplantation: the reference has been completely adapted to the target culture or has been substituted by a reference which is more in accordance with the norms of the TC or has been changed for ideological reasons.
- Cultural Borrowing: the SL word or expression is rendered without change in the TL
- Calque: the TL is similar to the SL word or expression
- Transliteration: the cultural referent is changed according to the phonic conventions of the TL (e.g. bumeran (boomerang) in Spanish)
- Communicative: the SL referent has an identifiable correspondence in the TL
- Neutralization: the connotations of a segment is diminished (p.90-92)

Meanwhile, raising students' awareness of the importance of context to understand the associations behind a cultural reference was also emphasized in the class (p.94). Exploring different translations of the same text and studying the historical and political context of each one was practiced (p.98). Exploring degrees of intersection between languages and how cultural bridges may be built and differences highlighted, not eliminated were brought into their attention (p.103). Peer editing was practiced (p.106). Reflecting on the danger of literal translation was also emphasized (p.115).

Other activities done in the class included:

- showing students examples of mistranslations of food and drink: menus, recipes, and so on, and decide what has gone wrong and why (p.85).

- awareness-raising: the students receive a brief text with cultural references as an assignment to be discussed in session (p.88).

- orientation activities: the students write a draft translation of a chosen extract and underline the problems directly related to cultural references (p.95).

- exposing students to mistranslations found in the mass media, publishes specialized or literary translations, signs, and notices, etc. In pairs or groups, students deverbalize and interpret the meaning of the mistranslation and then backtranslate to reach an agreement as to the probable original message and the reasons for the mistranslation (syntactic, lexical, cultural, etc) and finally rewriting it correctly (p.115). This way, their awareness of interferences can be highlighted and can help them not to fall into the same traps (p.118).

The control groups received no treatment with regard to theories and were in fact a traditional kind of translation class, which is the commonest type of translation class prevalent in Iranian universities. This type of translation class is what Davies (2004) depicts as 'the traditional product-oriented and teacher-centered learning context' (p.14). In such contexts, students have a minor role in deciding about their translation decisions and teachers usually single out model translations.

At the end of the semester, another translation test (from English to Persian) was given to the students as a post-test. Students' translations in the pre- and post-tests were assessed based on the model presented by Farahzad (1992) called objectified scoring. It presupposes a careful examination of the target text. The model takes the sentence as the units of translation and the verb as the marker of a sentence, which is assigned a score. In the model complex sentences are broken down into main and sub-clauses, each receiving a separate score (p.277). The model also accounts for cohesion and style which cannot be checked and scored at the sentence and clause level but leaves the determination of the weight of their scores to the examiner. As such, the target texts were read two times, first for accuracy and appropriateness, then for cohesion and style.

To ensure the inter-rater reliability of the test results, another rater who was also a translation instructor was asked to rate the translations based on the above-mentioned model. The scores given by the two examiners were compared; the scores` yielding no significant difference was to be indicative of precision and reliability in scoring. This was implemented through employing a paired t-test the results of which are shown in table1:

TABLE1
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	cul1.1.pr	11.0861	220	1.26632	.08538
	cul1.2pr	11.0963	220	1.25550	.08465

TABLE 2
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 cul1.1.pr - cul1.2pr	-.01023	.13995	.00944	-.02882	.00837	-1.084	219	.280

The results taken from the data shown in Table 2 reveal that there is no significant difference between the scores checked by the two examiners (p›0.05).

Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the scores checked by the two examiners (p›0.05) is not rejected.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To verify the homogeneity of the TOEFL test scores obtained from the experimental and control groups a one-way ANOVA test was calculated. The results are shown in Tabels 3 and 4. The results of table 3 indicate that there is no significant difference between scores obtained in the TOEFL test in Tabriz and Maragheh groups (P>0.05). In table 4, the mean of TOEFL scores of these three groups have been calculated. It indicates that there is no significant difference between the scores and all students are at the same level.

TABLE 3

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	29005.419	2	14502.710	103.968	.560
Within Groups	22597.708	162	139.492		
Total	51603.127	164			

TABLE 4

	group	Statistic
nomre.kol	maraghe1 Mean	37.3243
	tabriz Mean	37.5000
	maraghe2 Mean	37.2750

The mean of the experimental and control groups are shown below:

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVES (PRE-TEST)

Group			Statistic
cul.pr	Maragheh1	Mean	9.86
		Std. Deviation	1.47
	tabriz	Mean	10.7371
		Std. Deviation	1.17580
	Maragheh2	Mean	9.98
		Std. Deviation	0.921

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVES (POST-TEST)

Group			Statistic
cul.po	Maragheh1	Mean	10.75
		Std. Deviation	1.23
	Tabriz	Mean	11.84
		Std. Deviation	1.20
	Maragheh2	Mean	11.23
		Std. Deviation	1.129

Hypothesis 1. The new cultural method has no impact on the learning achievement of the students in the first control group (Maragheh 1).

The Table (7) maps the results of the paired t-test as a way to analyze the discrepancies between the scores obtained in the pre- and post-cultural method stages.

TABLE 7:
THE STATISTICAL INDEXES FOR ANALYSIS OF PRE- AND POST-CULTURAL METHOD SCORES

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	cul.po	10.7500	38	1.23299
	cul.pr	9.8618	38	1.47810

TABLE 8:
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 cul.po - cul.pr	.88816	1.87056	.30344	.27332	1.50299	2.927	37	.06

The results in the Table (8) establish that there is no significant difference between scores obtained in the pre- and post-cultural method stages. (p›0.05)

As a result the research hypothesis that there is no significant difference between scores obtained in the pre- and post-cultural method stages is not rejected. (p›0.05) Maragheh students are all in control group undergoing no teaching programme; hence, it is natural that their scores underwent no fluctuations from one exam to another.

Hypothesis 2. The new cultural method has no impact on the learning achievement of the students of the second control group (Maragheh 2).

The results of the paired t-test are illustrated in Table (9) as a way to analyze the discrepancies between the scores obtained in pre- and post-cultural stages.

TABLE (9):
THE STATISTICAL INDEXES FOR ANALYSIS OF THE PRE- AND POST-CULTURAL SCORES

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	cul2.po	11.2372	39	1.12967
	cul2.pr	9.9872	39	.92115

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST 10

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 cul.po - cul.pr	1.25000	1.19208	.19089	.86357	1.63643	6.548	38	.0.4

The results in Table (10) verify that there is no significant difference between the scores obtained in the pre- and post-cultural method stages. (p›0.05)

Hence the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the scores obtained in pre- and post-cultural method stages is not rejected. (p›0.05) In the present study, Maragheh students are all in control group undergoing no teaching programme, so it is natural that their scores did not change from one exam to another.

Hypothesis 3. The new cultural method has no impact on the learning achievement of the students of the experimental group (Tabriz).

The results of the paired t-test are illustrated in Table (12) as a way to analyze the discrepancies between the scores obtained in pre- and post-cultural method stages.

TABLE (11):
THE STATISTICAL INDEXES FOR ANALYSIS OF THE PRE- AND POST-CULTURAL SCORES

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	cul1.pr	10.7371	58	1.17580
	cul1.po	11.8491	58	1.20

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST 12

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig.
	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval				(2-tailed)
		Deviation	Error	of the Difference				
			Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 cul1.pr - cul1.po	-1.11207	1	.80903	-2.73213	.50799	-1.375	57	.017

The results in Table (12) substantiate that there is a significant difference between the scores obtained from the students of Tabriz in pre- and post-cultural method stages.(p‹0.05)

Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the scores obtained in the pre- and post-cultural stage is refuted. (p‹0.05) As Table (11) illustrates, the mean of the students' scores has increased in the pre-cultural stage by 10.73 and in the post-cultural stage by 11.84 which establishes that there is a 1.11 or %10 raise in learning achievements of the students.

As the statistical results suggest, there has been a significant difference between the pre- and post-teaching stages in the experimental group. Teaching cultural theories of translation to students expands their views on translating process and what is required of a translator in a real translation context. This will directly affect their style of translating in a gradual process during the whole semester. A process which is not traced in the control groups which were run traditionally and without any direct or indirect teaching of the theories and were mainly practice-oriented.

IV. CONCLUSION

Hopefully, the results of this study will shed more light on the positive effects of incorporating teaching cultural translation theories on translation quality of translator trainees in our universities. Moreover, due to lack of empirical studies in the literature, this study would hopefully contribute to the field in terms of the practicality and efficiency of teaching cultural translation theories in translation classes and improving the quality of students' translations. The findings can be applied to various translation courses in English literature, teaching, and translation majors at BA level. The findings can also be applied to other contexts in other countries in undergraduate university programs. Teaching cultural theories of translation to translation trainees and talking about different aspects of these theories in translation classes expand the trainees' views on translating process and would give them a bird-eye-view on the whole issue and consequently improve the quality of their translations.

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