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Contents

An Investigation into Turkish EFL Students' Attributions in Reading Comprehension

Cevdet Yılmaz
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey
Email: cyilmaz@comu.edu.tr

Abstract—Learner attributions, perceived causes of success and failure, have received considerable attention. However, very little research has been carried out in the area of learning foreign languages. This empirical study investigated Turkish EFL students' attributions in reading. The aims of the study were (1) to investigate university students' attributions for success and failures in second language reading and (2) to examine the ways in which these vary according to gender, proficiency and teacher opinions. Student questionnaires identified 13 common attributions. Also, 17 EFL teachers were asked to what they attributed student success and failure in reading. Many statistically significant differences were found between attribution and gender, proficiency, and between student and teacher opinions. The study concludes with a set of pedagogical implications for the teaching and learning of English reading.

Index Terms—attribution theory, reading comprehension, gender, proficiency

I. Introduction

It is widely acknowledged that reading is a vital skill for English language learners in today's world; it enhances the development of overall proficiency and provides access to valuable information at work and in school. Reading is often characterized as a receptive skill in which one looks at and attempts to understand what has been written. According to Grellet (1987), understanding a written text means extracting the required information from it as accurately and efficiently as possible. It is not only the process of recognition, perception, and interpretation of written materials, but an active one in that it includes the cognitive abilities such as guessing / predicting, checking, and asking questions. As Carrell (1989) puts, "for many students, reading is by far the most important of the four skills in second language, particularly in English as a second or foreign language." This is the case for Turkish university students as well. English reading has been, as it were, a sine qua non in the process of English language learning on the grounds that students often consider it as the means of English learning, thereby attaining their instrumental goals such as getting a job, reading a foreign journal, and passing an examination. The recognition that reading is probably the most important skill for second language learners to master in academic contexts has been a contributing cause in this respect (Carvell, 1989a; Lynch & Hudson, 1991; Grabe, 1991). To this end, the ability to read proficiently in English has become the first and foremost requirement for the university students throughout the world.

However, reading comprehension is not an easy task. According to Lyon (1995), reading disabilities constitute the most prevalent type of learning disability, affecting over 80% of the population. As such, many Turkish University students do not feel comfortable with the effective use of the reading skill. In spite of the great attention paid to the reading-based course of instruction in Turkish Universities, the educational mainstream involving the reading proficiency of the students in English is not up to the mark or is very unsatisfactory. Still, quite many undergraduates view reading as the least proficient language skill which they acquire even though they have made great efforts for it. This concern with reading has resulted in numerous studies aimed at investigating the variables that might influence second language reading (e.g. Grabe, 1991; Alderson, 2000; Carroll, 1993; Nation, 2001; Coxhead, 2000). As part of these surveys, this study proposes the use of attribution theory in order to highlight suggestions for teaching and improving English reading.

A. Attribution Theory and Its Relation to Language Learning

Attribution beliefs are important factors that affect students' reading performance (O'Sullivan and Howe, 1996). Attribution theory suggests that students interpret their achievement outcomes, particularly, how they explain success and failure, by attributing causes to them (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Weiner, 1985, 1994). Psychologists also maintain that attribution is how students learn about themselves and impose order on uncertain environments (Graham, 1994, p. 32). Weiner (1985) proposed that the four main attributions are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. He (1995) added that student attributions for success and failure can influence their expectancy of goal attainment, cognitive behaviours, emotion and academic performance. In addition, a considerable number of studies have shed light on the critical role of students' attribution beliefs in reading achievement, and differences in attribution can be associated with readers of different abilities and across different ages. O'Sullivan and Howe (1996) argued that high achievers tended to believe

that ability was related to success in reading, whereas low achievers were more likely to believe that lack of ability accounted for their poor reading.

In a large-scale study, Williams, Burden, Poulet, and Maun (2004) investigated secondary students' attributions for their success and failure in learning foreign languages. The study also examined the ways in which these vary according to age, gender, and perceived success. The sample consisted of 285 students studying foreign languages. Over one thousand attributional statements gave rise to 21 attributional categories for doing well and 16 categories for not doing well at language learning, six of which were most commonly cited as reasons for both success and failure. These attributions were effort, strategy, ability, task, teacher, interest, and peers.

A recent study into the attributions of students in Bahrain for their success and failure in learning English revealed that practice, support from family and teachers, exposure to the language and a positive attitude were the most frequently cited reasons for success by the students (William & Burden, 2001). By contrast, inadequate teaching methods, lack of support from family and teachers, poor comprehension and a negative attitude were the most commonly cited reasons for failure. In order to elaborate upon the origin of student attributions, teachers were also asked to answer the reasons for success and failure in English. Teachers attributed success to practice plus teacher and family, whereas they attributed failure to only inadequate materials. McQuillan (2000) asked 81 students why they succeeded in a foreign language: they produced a different set of attributions. Motivation, a comfortable pace, a good teacher, ability, time and effort were the most common explanations of success.

The other researchers speculate about EFL attribution. For instance, Dörnyei (2001a) suggests that attribution has an effect on proficiency (p. 57, 134). Williams and Burden also speculate that gender may be a significant factor, as do Holschuh, Nist, and Olejnik (2001). Research into the relationship between attribution, proficiency, and gender is of particular interest because teachers should become aware of these varying attributions in order to cope with them. It follows that EFL attributions are part of a framework of interrelationships in that, as this study would propose, teacher attributions are also important because they may affect both student and teacher behaviour. Peacock (2009) asserts that research is needed here because this may help teachers better understand EFL students and intervene to avoid undesirable attributions (p. 185). In this context, Tollefson and Chen (1988) theorize that when teachers attribute student failure to a low level of effort, they might withhold help from students, reinforcing student beliefs and behaviour (p. 264).

B. Purpose of the Study

Considering these findings that suggest the multidimensionality of EFL attribution, this study attempted to investigate what comprises Turkish EFL students' attributions in reading, albeit with a different sample. This study was designed to fit an EFL context, drawing upon the model proposed by Williams, Burden, Poulet, and Maun (2004). Consequently, the aims of the study were (1) to investigate university students' attributions for their success and failures in reading comprehension and (2) to investigate whether student attributions differ from teacher attributions and (3) to examine the ways in which these vary according to gender and proficiency.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

A total of 91 undergraduates (22 males & 69 females) studying EFL and 17 EFL teachers at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey with an average 7 years of English participated in the study. We ensured that all the participants had taken the required advanced reading course in the previous academic year. Subjects' performance on the previous final-English reading comprehension tests of the 2010-2011 academic year was used for proficiency data.

B. Materials

First, we interviewed 30 students, mixed by gender and proficiency level, and asked them to what they attribute EFL success and failure in reading comprehension. For this purpose, we constructed a simple questionnaire consisting of two open-ended statements, which was adapted from Williams, Burden, Poulet and Maun (2004) as the following:
1. When I do well at reading comprehension, the main reasons are:
a) ----------------------------------
b) ----------------------------------
2. When I don't do well at reading comprehension, the main reasons are:
a) -------------------------------------
b) -------------------------------------
Students' responses were analysed using a grounded approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) in that we tried to interpret students' intended views and to allow the resulting categories to emerge from the data. Students gave 10 reasons for success and 13 for failure. We constructed a questionnaire with totally these 13 attributions (see Table 1 & Table 2) using a scale with yes / no choices.

Second, we collected questionnaires from 91 students in class. Respondents were asked to write their Advanced Reading test results on the questionnaire so that we could investigate the relationship between attribution and

proficiency. Students were also asked to write their names on the questionnaire in order to seek the possibility of a relationship between attribution and gender.

Finally, we modified the questionnaire to collect EFL teacher opinions. The same questionnaire was administered to 17 university EFL teachers and asked to what teachers attribute student success and failure in reading comprehension.

As for the data analysis, percentages of yes / no were calculated for questionnaire items and the resultant categories were tabulated according to the perceived success and failure. We identified the connections between attribution and gender, and proficiency using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The level of reliability of the student questionnaire was calculated using SPSS at a high 0.73 and the teacher questionnaire at 0.81.

III. RESULTS

A. Students' Attributions for Doing Well in Reading Comprehension

Thirteen attributions for doing well in reading comprehension emerged from the data (see Table 1). We then elaborated students' and teachers' attributions for success in ranked order.

TABLE 1:
ATTRIBUTIONS FOR DOING WELL IN READING COMPREHENSION
(N=91 FOR STUDENTS AND N=16 FOR TEACHERS).

Students' attributions	F	%	Teachers' attributions	F	%
Good strategies	75	82.4	Good strategies	15	93.7
Positive mood	74	81.3	Liking for reading (interest)	13	81.2
Liking for reading (interest)	73	80.2	Sense of achievement	12	75
Teacher (good feedback)	66	72.5	Try very hard (effort)	11	68.7
Having cultural background	66	72.5	Having cultural background	11	68.7
Positive environment	65	71.4	Teacher (good feedback)	10	62.5
Sense of achievement	57	62.6	Good at that thing (intellectual ability	10	62.5
Good at that thing (intellectual ability)	51	56.0	Sense of achievement	5	31.2
Try very hard (effort)	7	7.6	Positive environment	3	18.7
Teaching materials	5	5.4	Positive mood	2	12.5

As was underlined in Table 1, the overwhelming majority of both students (almost 83%) and teachers (almost 94%) attributed students' success in reading to *good strategies*. This category included statements such as: I use a vocabulary book, look up words outside class, ask when I need explanation, take notes to remind me what to revise, make use of contextual clues. Even though these statements do not point to a clear or purposeful sense of direction pertaining to reading strategies, it is noteworthy that there is close link between students' and teachers' perceptions of the prominence of good strategies in reading.

The next attribution to emerge was termed *positive mood*. Students strongly attributed their success in reading to positive mood, while teachers did not. This category involved feeling motivated to read, being drawn into the pages of the book, being able to concentrate on the work. Students appear to acknowledge that the affective factors as well as cognitive abilities are also important aspects of learners' success attributions in reading.

Students rated the attribution *interest in reading* third out of nine attributions, whereas teachers rated it as the second most prominent attribution for success in reading. It included wanting to read, liking, enjoying, and statements such as reading English is great/fun/interesting. Of course, it is not clear whether students see interest as an internal or external aspect. Therefore, we assumed that students' statements referred to both classroom reading activities and outside class reading activities.

Another prominent attribution cited by 72.5% of the participants was *good feedback* provided by teachers in reading class. In contrast, teachers themselves did not perceive their feedback as a vital component that would make contribution to the success of student in reading. Included here were liking the teacher, the teacher facilitates the reading process, the teacher helps, the teacher controls, the teacher clarifies, the teacher checks understanding. As expected, the students tended to see themselves as more dependent upon teacher's guide than develop a sense of autonomy in acquiring reading skills which, in fact, proved to be the ultimate outcome in the process of teaching reading.

Significantly, there was strong agreement on the attribution *having cultural background* between students' views (72.5%) and teachers' (68.7%) views. This category included being able to comprehend the reading text better along with the cultural knowledge, linking own culture with another, making the reading task challenging with cultural analysis.

Closely linked with *positive mood* was the attribution *positive environment* which 71.4% of students cited, together with 75% of teachers who also rated it as important. Students relied on the internal factors for evaluating the first attribution, while they relied on the external ones for the latter. It included statements such as the positive teaching atmosphere helps focussing on reading, the proper organization of classroom leads to active participation in reading tasks.

The last two categories frequently cited by students (62.6%) was *sense of achievement* (62.6%) and *the intellectual ability* (31.2%). Teachers also rated the sense of achievement as the third out of ten categories in order of importance. It

involved feeling comfortable/successful. This category has relevance to the attribution *positive mood* in the way that they are internal factors and likely to add to students' motivation to engage in reading. Conversely, teachers perceived the intellectual ability as less significant reason for success in reading than did students. This category included comprehending, being proficient in reading, being clever, having a good deal of experience in reading.

These eight categories were those mentioned most. There were a further two that were cited infrequently by students. These were the attributions *effort* and *teaching materials*. There was strong disagreement between students' and teachers' perceptions in this respect. Teachers partly attributed students' success to effort and teaching materials in reading, while students did not. The attribution *effort* indicated statements such as: I read, do my reading assignment, work hard in reading, pay attention to reading tasks, and take time in reading. In other words, it involved a sense of trying hard in reading. Overall, there was surprisingly little mention of effort and teaching materials, indicating that the extent of effort and the kind of teaching materials available to students are perceived to play a very small part.

B. Students' Attributions for Not Doing Well in Reading Comprehension

TABLE 2:
ATTRIBUTIONS FOR NOT DOING WELL IN READING COMPREHENSION
(N=91 FOR STUDENTS AND N=16 FOR TEACHERS)

Students' attributions	F	%	Teachers' attributions	F	%
Lack of interest in reading	65	71.4	Lack of interest in reading	15	93.8
Lack of time	64	70.3	Lack of time	14	87.5
Negative mood	55	60.4	Poor strategies	12	75
Negative environment	52	57.1	Having no cultural background	12	75
Don't try very hard (lack of effort)	50	54.9	Don't try very hard (lack of effort)	11	68.7
Difficult work (task)	18	19.7	Negative mood	7	43.8
Poor strategies	14	15.3	Difficult work (task)	6	37.5
Distraction	14	9.89	Distraction	4	25
Having no cultural background	13	7.69	Bad at that thing (intellectual ability)	4	25
Inadequate teaching materials	11	12.0	No sense of achievement	4	25
Teacher (inadequate feedback)	10	1.09	Negative environment	3	18.7
Bad at that thing (intellectual ability)	10	1.09	Inadequate teaching materials	3	18.7
No sense of achievement	9	9.89	Teacher (inadequate feedback)	1	6.2

As displayed in order of importance in Table 2, twelve attributions for not doing well emerged from the data, corresponding to nine of the categories for doing well together with three new categories *lack of time*, *distraction* and *difficult reading task*. Significantly, the major categories frequently mentioned by students and teachers were *lack of interest in reading* and *lack of time*. 71.4% of students and 93.8% of teachers attributed failure to lack of students' interest in reading skill. The comments included: It's boring. It's no fun. The chosen text doesn't fit into my reading tastes. Similarly, both students (70.3%) and teachers (87.5%) viewed the lack of time as a significant reason for failure in reading, implying that reading skill requires students to allocate enough time to do extensive reading outside classroom. Notably, *negative mood* (60.4%) was relatively frequently used to explain not doing well in reading. Finally, there was little mention of *distraction* which both students and teachers rated it as less significant for explaining failures than success in reading comprehension. It included losing sight of work/task during reading, not concentrating on reading properly.

C. Gender Differences

Data obtained from t-test revealed that there were totally three statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level. Females were significantly more likely to attribute success to the following factors, which are ranked with the largest difference first:

1. Good at that thing (intellectual ability)
2. Having cultural background

These two attributions are internal and controllable. Apparently female students were significantly more likely to attribute success to their own efforts to achieve the ultimate goals in reading skill than were male students. Given the reasons for failure in reading, another meaningful difference was found between male and female students in relation to the attribution *teacher*. Accordingly male students were more likely to see the inadequate teacher feedback or poor teacher in reading class as the potential reasons for their failure than were female students.

D. Connection between Attributions and EFL Proficiency

In order to uncover the link between students' EFL proficiency levels and their perceived attributions once again the results of t-test were evaluated statistically. The results showed that the level of proficiency did not have a strong effect on the students' perceptions of attributions for success and failure in second language reading. Meaningful difference between proficiency and attribution was found with reference to only one category *sense of achievement* in favour of, surprisingly, less proficient students. This category involved, for example, 'Feeling successful in reading adds to my interest in reading' and 'grades influence the way I read.' Thus we can see that while less proficient students attributed

success primarily to the extent of success in reading, this was not the case with more proficient students, who attributed success and failure to other factors.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study drew upon the attributional theories derived from empirical research done by (Weiner, 1986; Williams & Burden, 1997; Peacock, 2009; McQuillan, 2000; Tse, 2000). However, most of the questionnaire items included in the attribution questionnaire differed from previous research due to the differences in the classification of attributions and context. To be specific, our data revealed a considerably wider range of attributions than was usually shown in the research literature (Peacock, 2009; McQuillan, 2000; Tse, 2000). Of these categories, however, ability, interest, strategy use, the contribution of the teacher and the kind of learning task are clearly shown to be the most common used; the context where these studies are conducted involve the language classes in order for students to acquire all basic language skills. In contrast, the focus in the present study is on the reading aspect of language learning as well as on the exploration of a possible link between attribution and reading behaviour.

The use of reading strategies stands out as the most widely cited attribution for success in reading comprehension, which is backed up by both students and teachers. Given the domain of the reading strategies, we took it for granted that all students had already learnt and practiced the type of reading strategies ranging from cognitive to metacognitive strategies. Therefore, strategy use was a general term and thus intended to entail any of these reading strategies in this study. In any case, the effective use of reading strategies proves to be the key to the success in reading.

Another point of accord between student and teacher attributions for success related to the importance of having cultural background in reading. It is assumed that the readers' background knowledge is largely associated with their previously acquired knowledge structures like culture, and these structures are called schemata (Collins, 1979; Rumelhart, 1980). Carrell (1989) maintains that 'according to schema theory, efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge' (p. 76). Thus equipping students with essential cultural background prior to reading can enrich students' capacity to cope with the challenge of reading tasks and in turn make them feel at ease with these tasks.

Importantly there was strong agreement on the category *lack of interest in reading* between student and teacher attributions for failure in second language reading. In fact, this result can be informing in the way that it enables us to establish a sound link between one defining characteristic of Turkish students and their attributions. As the results indicate, Turkish students, for some reason, are reluctant to read in both L1 and L2, and teachers tend to support this. It follows that alternative approaches to teaching reading in Turkish context should be catered for, which would range from the selection of interesting reading texts (e.g. pleasure reading texts) to the introduction of intensive and extensive reading.

The results of this study gave rise to a better understanding of the contradictory aspects of student and teacher attributions in second language reading. Our student and teacher opinions differed significantly: teachers attributed student success to effort or interest in reading, while students attributed success, respectively, to the feedback of teacher and positive mood. Some students do not see any link between success and interest levels in reading; some think that reading is not interesting; some think that the psychological and social factors determine the way they study reading; some do not waste time making much effort with the study of reading. There is a possibility that students tend to differ, to a great extent, from each other in the distribution of their opinions on attribution probably due to the diversity of students in Turkish education system. In any case, it appears quite difficult to follow a general pattern on the basis of student attributions. Instead, one can construe that all student attributions are also closely related with students' perceived usefulness of improving second language reading in English.

As underlined in Weiner's (1992) influential book on attributions, one sound way of going about the categories of attributions cited by students with different sex and English proficiency level in reading is attempting to evaluate attributions in terms of whether they are internal (for example effort) or external (for example distraction) and whether they can be controlled (for example effort is controllable, whereas distraction is not). This may help explain the results of the study: for instance, it is striking that less proficient students attributed success in reading to sense of achievement being an attribution which is labelled as both internal and controllable. This finding can help facilitate the learning in reading skill, underscoring the need to assist particularly the less proficient students in building up their sense of achievement in reading.

This raises the question of whether students' undesirable attributions in reading can be modified. As Peacock (2009) suggests, once attributions are identified they can be modified. This is the case with Turkish students' attributions in reading class where some students may not see the point of working hard and therefore make less effort than is desirable. The modifications would in turn lead to profound changes in student behaviours in reading. Weiner (1992) described his theory of attributional change-changes in attribution produce changes in behaviour-and other writers agree with this, making further suggestions (p. 264). Dörnyei (2001b) proposes encouraging students' effort attributions and playing down ability attributions (p. 120-121). Bruning (2004) suggests discussing the effects of different attributions with students, and help them concentrate on controllable attributions (p. 125).

The findings of the study provide room for the identification of the origins of a wide range of student and teacher attributions in second language reading. As the results indicate, the common attributions stem from students' individual

experiences and observation undertaken in reading class, none of which teachers can prevent. On the other hand, it might be advantageous for teachers to identify the source of student attributions in reading, thereby promoting certain attributions among students as this may lead to improved proficiency, effort and beliefs. This has valuable implications for learner training, teacher training and teacher action to be taken in the process of reading instruction.

This study is limited to Turkish context as well as to second language reading. However, it could provide insights into attribution in other contexts, covering the all language skills. We suggest using more in-depth student interviews in order to improve the research. Finally, questions for further research are: What attributions in reading are prevalent elsewhere? How does failure attributed to uncontrollable factors hinder achievement in reading comprehension?

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Cevdet Yılmaz was born in August 10, 1966 in Biga-Turkey. He holds an M.A. in English Literature from University of Hertfordshire, England and a phD in TEFL from Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey. He is currently an Assistant Professor at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, teaching courses on the use of literature in language teaching, materials evaluation, classroom research and translation skills to both undergraduate and graduate students.

Reading Strategy Instruction in Saudi Schools

Hashem Ahmed Alsamadani
College of Education, Um-Alqura University, P.O. Box 715 Makkah - Saudi Arabia
Email: hmazawid@gmail.com

Abstract—This study explores the attitudes of Saudi EFL teachers toward explicit instruction of reading strategies. The study also compares actual practices of Saudi teachers with their beliefs and attitudes toward reading strategy instruction. In this study, quantitative data were collected using an attitude questionnaire, while qualitative data were collected using observation and semi-structured interviews. The quantitative data obtained were analyzed by using means, standard deviations, and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Qualitative data from a semi-structured interview were also analyzed to explore teachers' knowledge about reading strategy instruction. The results of this study show that Saudi teachers believe strongly in the importance of cognitive reading strategies and that they have insufficient knowledge of the importance of metacognitive reading strategies. The study ends with recommendations for training Saudi EFL teachers in some of the most effective metacognitive reading strategies to help students plan, monitor, evaluate, and regulate their learning.

Index Terms—ESL/EFL reading, reading strategies, strategy instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading has been the most emphasized skill throughout the last three decades of second/foreign language teaching research (Susser, Robb, 1990). In today's classrooms, EFL reading instruction is moving increasingly from teaching texts to teaching readers how to comprehend texts (Haas & Flower, 1988). In other words, EFL teachers focus on teaching reading strategies for understanding content elements, textual features, rhetorical elements, and cultural background (Hamp-Lyons, 1985; Mikulecky, 1985; Pakenham, 1984 & Susser, Robb, 1990).

From this researcher's point of view, which has developed out of seven years of experience as a teacher of EFL, a supervisor of EFL, and later as an assistant professor of EFL curriculum and instruction at Umm Alqura university, EFL teaching practices in Saudi schools tend not to focus on reading skills and strategies. Rather, EFL teachers spend time allocated for reading on practicing "silent reading" and "comprehension questions".

Because of this gap between the world's rapid movements toward teaching reading skills and strategies and the reality of reading instruction in Saudi Arabia, this researcher decided to conduct a study exploring EFL teachers' attitudes toward teaching certain essential reading strategies, both cognitive and metacognitive. This study also explores the reality of teaching reading in Saudi schools by observing and interviewing a sample of Saudi EFL teachers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Cognitive strategies aid readers in constructing meaning from the text. Studies in first language and second language reading research have classified cognitive strategies as bottom-up and top-down (Block, 1986; Carrell, 1989; Davis & Bistodeau, 1993). During reading, readers engage constantly in a variety of cognitive processes. Using bottom-up strategies, readers process information at the word and sentence levels. At this stage, they focus on identifying the meaning and grammatical category of a word, sentence syntax, and text details (Aebersold and Field, 1997). By using top-down strategies, such as background knowledge, prediction, and skimming, readers check to see how this information fits in their schemata. Dole, Nokes, and Drits (2009) have provided an especially thorough analysis of landmark studies that have influenced the instruction of cognitive reading strategies.

Metacognitive strategies function in monitoring or regulating cognitive strategies (Devine, 1993; Flavell, 1981). In other words, metacognitive strategies are relevant specifically to comprehension (Dole, et.al, 2009). Examples of these strategies include checking the outcome of any attempt to solve a problem, planning the next move, monitoring comprehension, testing, revising, and evaluating strategies (Baker & Brown, 1984). Metacognitive reading strategies, therefore, aid EFL learners in being consciously aware of what they learn, how they learn, and how they can use new knowledge in different situations.

In L1 and L2 contexts, many studies have focused on the use of cognitive strategy instruction and the effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on reading. In a pioneering study, Palincsar and Brown (1984) analyzed the effects of helping young L1 students by teaching them to monitor comprehension. They gave this instruction the name "reciprocal teaching". In reciprocal teaching, the teacher models four strategies: clarifying, identifying the main idea of a section of text, summarizing, and predicting. After that, students are divided into groups, to whom specific students, who have been assigned to be teachers, model the use of these four strategies. Results of the study showed that at the end of instruction, the experimental group scored higher than the control group in the final comprehension test.

Five years later, Carrell, Pharis, and Liberto (1989) conducted a study to examine the combined effects of cognitive and metacognitive strategy instruction on reading comprehension. In order to activate students' background knowledge, they were trained in two strategies: semantic mapping and the experience-text-relationship (ETR). In addition, each group was trained in how to regulate and be aware of these two strategies. Results indicated that metacognitive and cognitive strategy instruction were effective in enhancing reading comprehension regardless of students' reading proficiency levels.

Cubucku (2008) investigated the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy instruction on students' reading comprehension. In his study, a sample of 130 undergraduate students were divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received explicit strategy instruction, while the control group received none. The results showed a significant difference in the comprehension levels between the two groups in favor of the experimental group. Recently, Akkakoson and Setobol (2009) tested the effects of explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction on Thai students' reading comprehension. The study revealed that high-, mid-, and low-level readers scored higher in their post-test than in their pre-test. This result means that explicit reading strategy instruction has a great impact on students' comprehension regardless of proficiency level.

In a recent study, Wichadee (2011) examined the effectiveness of explicit instruction of metacognitive strategies on Thai students' reading comprehension scores. A metacognitive questionnaire as well as a reading test were administered at the beginning and at the end of the course for the ascertainment of any changes in both the questionnaire responses and test scores. A semi-structured interview was also conducted to explore students' views on the strategy-based instruction. Results showed that after the instruction, the reading score and metacognitive strategy use of the three groups (high, moderate, and low) were significantly higher than before the instruction.

Finally, reading strategy instruction has proven to be effective not only in developing reading comprehension, but also in expanding vocabulary size. In this regard, Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003) studied the effects of reading strategy instruction on the development of EFL students' lexical knowledge. The study revealed the significant positive impact that explicit strategy instruction had on the students' vocabulary size.

Moreover, Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009) examined the effectiveness of explicit instruction of vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) on a group of 146 female Japanese EFL learners. The researchers used the quasi-experimental design in which they administered a vocabulary test and questionnaires on VLSs. Based upon the results of the vocabulary test, participants were divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group received explicit instruction on VLSs combined with their regular language lessons, while the other group received traditional language lessons. The results showed that the experimental group scored higher than the control group on the vocabulary test. They also indicated that strategy instruction was effective in changing the repertoire of strategies used and improving their frequency of use.

Moreover, strategy training increased the use of certain strategies more than it did for other strategies. In a study about the role of reading teachers, Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) argued that ESL/EFL teachers should model three types of reading strategies: Before-reading strategies (planning), while-reading strategies (monitoring), and after-reading strategies (evaluating). This would aid EFL/ESL students in constructing meanings, planning, monitoring, and evaluating comprehension (Israel, 2007).

All of the above research findings concur on one fact: reading strategy instruction and training clearly enhance students' level of comprehension in both L1 and L2. The current study builds on this fact to argue that Saudi EFL teachers should devote time to train and teach their students on how to utilize these strategies for better comprehension. The research findings that support strategy instruction will also be used to reject the null hypothesis (H_o): There is no significant statistical difference in reading comprehension scores between students who were trained in using reading strategies and those who were not.

The current study, however, differs from the studies mentioned above in that it utilizes a triangulation approach in collecting data. The researcher first collects quantitative data about Saudi teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward the explicit teaching of reading strategies. The researcher then investigates further the reality of reading strategy instruction in Saudi classes by observing a sample of 10 teachers in their reading classes. Finally, the study will explain why reading strategy instruction is or is not common practice in Saudi schools though interviewing 4 Saudi teachers in a semi-structured interview.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims at examining Saudi EFL teachers' attitudes toward explicit teaching of metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies. It also explores the obstacles that EFL teachers might encounter when trying to teach these strategies. The purpose of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. To explore Saudi EFL teachers' attitudes toward reading strategy instruction.
2. To learn about actual practices of reading instruction in Saudi schools.
3. To determine the relationship between teachers' degrees of qualification and their attitudes toward reading strategy instruction.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is a significant means of learning about Saudi teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward reading strategy instruction. Squires and Bliss (2004) assert that "decades of research on the connection between teachers' theoretical beliefs and their practices yield a common theme: All teachers bring to the classroom some level of beliefs that influence their critical daily decision making" (p.756). Therefore, teachers' practices in classrooms and their decisions regarding teaching are all guided by what they believe in and value most.

The current study is also significant in obtaining clear knowledge about the real practices of Saudi EFL teachers when teaching reading. Spencer, Carter, Boon, and Simpson-Garcia (2008) concluded that research findings have proven the great significance of explicit strategy instruction in developing reading skills. Additionally, Park and Osborne (2006) have cited numerous studies showing that instruction using reading strategies is the most effective means of increasing student comprehension and developing skilled readers.

Therefore, by understanding teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading strategies and their actual practices in classrooms, one can clearly tell whether the teaching/learning process is proceeding properly. If teachers' attitudes are distant from their practices, If teachers' attitudes are distant from their actual practices, this could indicate that something is amiss that might undermine the entire process. Thus, the whole system of language instruction, including teacher preparation programs and in-service training programs should be revisited, re-evaluated and redefined. This study is also significant in designing EFL training courses. With an understanding of how teachers perceive reading strategies and how often they teach them, an effective course with well-defined objectives can be recommended and designed.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

The present study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are the attitudes of Saudi EFL teachers toward the explicit teaching of reading strategies in Saudi EFL classrooms?

2. How often do Saudi EFL teachers teach these strategies?

3. Is there a significant relationship between the qualifications of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching reading strategies?

B. Participants

The research sample consisted of 60 male Saudi EFL teachers from the Makkah and Allith regions in Saudi Arabia. The sample represented the 80% return rate of the survey. Teachers' qualifications ranged between BA and MA and their teaching experiences ranged between 2-10 years. After collecting and analyzing the survey data, the researcher selected 10 teachers to observe based on the diversity of answers they gave in the questionnaire. All visits were planned in advance so as not to confuse teachers' schedules. Finally, the researcher interviewed four Saudi teachers to learn more about their knowledge and views about reading strategy instruction. Each interview lasted for 10 – 15 minutes.

C. Instruments

The main instrument of this study was the attitude questionnaire , which was developed by the researcher and judged for content and face validity by five college-level English teachers at Umm Alqura University. In this questionnaire, the researcher compiled the most common and widely cited cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies in a five-point Likert Scale survey.

The head instruction reads as follows: *Indicate the extent to which you agree on the importance of explicit teaching of each of the following reading strategies*. The participants were asked to indicate their response on a scale of "strongly agree" (SA), "agree" (A), "neutral" (N), "disagree" (DA), and "strongly disagree" (SD).

To answer the second research question, the researcher used the same questionnaire as a checklist during his classroom visits. In each visit, the researcher marked how often teachers teach students in each reading strategy on a 5-point scale of "never", "occasionally", " sometimes", "often", and "always".

Finally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with four Saudi EFL teachers to determine the extent of their knowledge about reading strategies. Each interview lasted 10 – 15 minutes during which time the researcher took notes on the information teachers gave about cognitive/metacognitive reading strategy instruction. The general discussion questions were:

- Tell me all you know about cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies.
- How feasible is it to teach/train students in these strategies?

Results of the interviews will be reported in the "Discussion" section to explain the quantitative/qualitative results of the research questions.

D. Data Collection

To address the research questions, the researcher designed a questionnaire including some of the most common and effective reading strategies. These reading strategies included:

1. Cognitive strategies, bottom-up and top-down strategies, such as prediction, modification, translation, skimming, scanning, etc.

2. Metacognitive strategies, such as checking one's comprehension, revising, testing and evaluating one's strategies.

A mixed methodology design was employed because both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Quantitative forms of data were collected first from scaled survey responses. The research participants were asked to decide to what extent they agreed with the importance of explicit teaching of each strategy on a scale of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

Qualitative data were collected from observing 10 EFL teachers in their reading classes. The researcher visited 10 English language teachers during their reading classes to investigate the degree of use of each strategy. The researcher indicated how often teachers used each strategy on a 5-point scale of never, occasionally, sometimes, often, and always. The main purpose of observation was to view real practices in classes and to compare them with teachers' beliefs.

Finally, the researcher interviewed 4 teachers in semi-structured interviews. The aim of these interviews was to learn more about what teachers knew about reading strategies. The interview questions also aimed to explore the feasibility of teaching/training students on the use of these strategies.

VI. FINDINGS

A. First Research Question

To answer the first research question ("What are the attitudes of Saudi EFL teachers toward the explicit teaching of reading strategies in the EFL classroom?"), the researcher calculated descriptive statistics using SPSS version 17. Table1 shows the means and standard deviations for each reading strategy.

TABLE 1:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR READING STRATEGIES

Strategies	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strategy 01	60	**4.6**	.58
Strategy 04	60	**4.3**	.78
Strategy 17	60	**4.2**	.96
Strategy 05	60	**4.2**	.73
Strategy 03	60	**4.2**	.69
Strategy 11	60	**4.1**	.94
Strategy 10	60	**4.1**	1.16
Strategy 09	60	**4.0**	1.03
Strategy 20	60	3.8	.89
Strategy 06	60	3.8	1.08
Strategy 25	60	3.8	.98
Strategy 26	60	3.8	1.37
Strategy 07	60	3.7	.98
Strategy 23	60	3.7	1.06
Strategy 11	60	3.7	1.28
Strategy 02	60	3.7	1.54
Strategy 24	60	3.6	1.15
Strategy 15	60	3.6	1.17
Strategy 08	60	3.6	.95
Strategy 13	60	3.5	1.03
Strategy 19	60	3.4	1.17
Strategy 18	60	3.4	1.28
Strategy 12	60	3.3	.95
Strategy 14	60	3.3	1.13
Strategy 21	60	3.2	1.14
Strategy 22	60	3.1	.96
Strategy 27	60	2.9	1.23

It is clear from Table1 that Saudi teachers have positive attitudes towards reading strategy instruction. Almost all participants agreed (means 4→) on the importance of the following explicit teaching of strategies: 1, 4, 17, 5, 3, 11, 10, and 9. These strategies were:
- Previewing the reading martial by thinking about the text, the title, and the pictures. (1)
- Skimming and scanning the text. (4)
- Guessing the meaning of unknown words. (17)
- Asking questions about the text before reading it. (5)
- Activating students' prior knowledge and experiences. (3)
- Paraphrasing what students read. (11)
- Using context clues to help students understand what is being read. (10)
- Using tables, figures, and pictures to increase understanding. (9)

Conversely, participants were not certain (or did not know) about the importance of teaching the other 19 strategies. These strategies were:

- Having a purpose for reading. (Met.)
- Asking questions about the text before reading it. (Cog.)
- Writing summaries to reflect on key ideas in the text. (Cog.)
- Underlining or circling information in the text to help students remember it. (Cog.)
- Stopping reading to check comprehension. (Met.)
- Modifying new learning. (Met.)
- Checking students' understanding when coming across conflicting information. (Met.)
- Thinking aloud while reading. (Cog.)
- Rereading the problematic part. (Cog.)
- Looking up unknown words in a dictionary. (Cog.)
- Discussing a student's reading with others to check understanding. (Met.)
- Providing feedback on what a student has read. (Met.)
- Making inferences and drawing conclusions. (Met.)
- Comparing and contrasting information from one or more texts. (Met.)
- Concentrating on the reading task. (Met.)
- Regulating mood to stimulate the reading process. (Met.)
- Analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text. (Met.)
- Engaging with the text. (Met.)
- Integrating the information in the text with what the student already knows. (Met.)
- Completing graphic organizers such as the Venn diagrams, KWL, etc. (Met.)

B. Second Research Question

The second research question was the following: "How often do Saudi EFL teachers teach these strategies?" In order to answer this question, the researcher collected qualitative data by observing 10 Saudi EFL teachers while they were teaching reading at different secondary levels. Each teacher was visited once and each visit lasted 40 minutes, during which time the researcher noted the frequency at which each teacher trained/taught students in one of the reading strategies included in the questionnaire. The researcher used a 5-point scale of never, occasionally, fairly, often, and always. Table 2 shows the frequencies of use for each reading strategy.

TABLE 2:
FREQUENCY OF USE FOR READING STRATEGIES

	Frequency of Use				
	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
Strategy 01	02%	08%	22%	13%	**55%**
Strategy 02	15%	00%	23%	10%	**52%**
Strategy 03	08%	02%	12%	**55%**	23%
Strategy 04	08%	08%	12%	17%	**55%**
Strategy 05	08%	07%	08%	**50%**	26%
Strategy 06	08%	21%	33%	28%	10%
Strategy 07	10%	13%	17%	**50%**	10%
Strategy 08	20%	08%	20%	34%	18%
Strategy 09	15%	03%	12%	**50%**	20%
Strategy 10	15%	10%	23%	30%	21%
Strategy 11	08%	31%	18%	28%	15%
Strategy 12	10%	17%	38%	23%	12%
Strategy 13	10%	15%	33%	20%	22%
Strategy 14	15%	22%	37%	22%	04%
Strategy 15	02%	20%	10%	53%	15%
Strategy 16	00%	22%	45%	20%	13%
Strategy 17	08%	12%	07%	38%	35%
Strategy 18	07%	18%	27%	32%	16%
Strategy 19	75%	10%	15%	00%	00%
Strategy 20	**90%**	10%	00%	00%	00%
Strategy 21	**95%**	05%	00%	00%	00%
Strategy 22	**100%**	00%	00%	00%	00%
Strategy 23	**100%**	00%	00%	00%	00%
Strategy 24	50%	10%	30%	10%	00%
Strategy 25	**85%**	10%	05%	00%	00%
Strategy 26	**100%**	00%	00%	00%	00%
Strategy 27	**85%**	10%	05%	00%	00%

Using a frequency of 50% as a cutoff point, table 2 shows that teachers always used strategies 1 (previewing the reading materials by thinking about the text, the title, etc.) and 4 (skimming and scanning the text). This result is consistent with the results of quantitative data in which strategies 1 and 4 were ranked as the most important strategies to teach. However, observations revealed that teachers always taught their students the second strategy (having a purpose for reading), which was not considered to be important in the quantitative data.

Table 2 also shows that participants often used strategies 15 (rereading the problematic part), 3 (activating prior knowledge), 5 (asking questions about the text before reading), 7 (underlining or circling information), and 9 (using tables, figures, etc.). This result is also consistent to some extent with the quantitative data. Strategies 3, 5, and 9 were additional strategies that participants agreed upon as being important. This finding shows that participants' practices are most likely the same as their beliefs and attitudes, which confirms the findings of Squires and Bliss (2004).

However, the results of the second research question reveals that other strategies were rarely, occasionally, or never practiced in Saudi reading classes. These strategies were as follows:
• Having a purpose for reading. (Met.)
• Writing summaries to reflect on key ideas in the text. (Cog.)
• Underlining or circling information in the text as a memory aid. (Cog.)
• Stopping reading to check comprehension. (Met.)
• Modifying new learning. (Met.)
• Checking one's understanding when coming across conflicting information. (Met.)
• Thinking aloud while reading. (Cog.)
• Looking up unknown words in a dictionary. (Cog.)
• Discussing one's reading with others to check understanding. (Met.)
• Providing one's own feedback on what one has read. (Met.)
• Making inferences and drawing conclusions. (Met.)
• Comparing and contrasting information from one or more texts. (Met.)
• Concentrating on the reading task. (Met.)
• Regulating mood to stimulate the reading process. (Met.)
• Analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text. (Met.)
• Engaging with the text. (Met.)
• Integrating the information in the text with what one already knows. (Met.)
• Completing graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, KWL, etc. (Met.)
• Guessing the meaning of unknown words. (Cog.)
• Paraphrasing what students read. (Cog.)
• Using context clues to help in understanding what is being read. (Cog.)

C. Third Research Question

The third research question was the following: "Is there a significant relationship between the qualifications of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching reading strategies?" The null hypothesis was:

H$_o$: There is no significant relationship between the qualifications of teachers and their attitudes toward reading strategy instruction.

To test this hypothesis, the relationship between the degree of teachers' qualifications and their attitudes toward teaching reading strategies was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violations of the assumption of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The results shown in table 3 show that we do not reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between teachers' qualifications and their attitudes toward reading strategy instruction.

TABLE 3:
PEARSON-PRODUCT CORRELATION

		Qualification	Total score
Qualification	Pearson Correlation	1	-.204
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.118
	N	46	46

Finally, analysis of interview data will be integrated into the "discussion" section to explain the findings of quantitative data. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed by the researcher. Content analysis was used for coding data and identifying categories within those data.

VII. DISCUSSION

Through the process of answering the three research questions, the researcher encountered some important findings. First, Saudi teachers' beliefs about reading strategy instruction are in accordance with their teaching practices. Second, teachers' qualifications have no effect on their beliefs and attitudes toward reading strategy instruction.

However, the most important finding of this study was that "cognitive strategies are the *only* reading strategies practiced in Saudi classes". When asked to indicate their level of agreement on the teaching of reading strategies, Saudi EFL teachers agreed upon the importance of teaching the following reading strategies:
• Previewing the reading martial by thinking about the text, title, and pictures.
• Skimming and scanning the text.
• Guessing the meaning of unknown words.

- Asking questions about the text before reading it.
- Activating students' prior knowledge and experiences.
- Paraphrasing what students have read.
- Using context clues to help students understand what is being read.
- Using tables, figures, and pictures to increase understanding.

When we look carefully at these strategies, we can conclude the following:

1. These strategies fall into the three main categories of reading strategies: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading. This supports the findings of Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik (2008) that EFL teachers prefer using pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading strategies. However, the highest percentage (50%) of these preferred strategies pertains to pre-reading strategies. While-reading and post-reading strategies are less likely to be practiced in Saudi reading classes.

2. When we re-examine the most preferred strategies according to their type (i.e, cognitive or metacognitive), we find that ALL of them are cognitive strategies. This is a very interesting finding that can be explained by the qualitative data obtained from interviews. The researcher found that 75% (three teachers) of the interviewed sample knew nothing or very little about metacognitive strategies. This finding also explains why participants ranked all metacognitive strategies within "*neutral*", which means "*don't know,*" about the importance of the strategies mentioned (see Table 2).

When the researcher asked participants about reading strategies they prefer to teach, they mentioned the following:

- *Skimming*
- *Scanning*
- *Using figures and tables*
- *Summarizing*

Again, all of these strategies are cognitive, encouraging one to wonder why cognitive strategies are more prominent in Saudi classes than metacognitive strategies. Participants typically answered this question by saying that these strategies (cognitive) were the ones that were "*taught during their preparation programs*" and "*suggested by teachers' manuals*".

Moreover, the perception that teaching reading strategies reduces instructional time was also evident in participants' answers to the interview questions. All of the respondents indicated that they strongly agreed that teaching reading strategies, in general, is important, yet it consumes instructional time. One teacher mentioned that although he had some knowledge about metacognitive strategies, he tended not to teach them in class because they "*are very difficult to explain*", "*there is no time*", and "*students are not motivated to learn them*".

Data from surveys and observations confirmed the above findings that Saudi teachers perceive cognitive strategies as being vital in their teaching and thus tend to train/teach their students in using them. This result indicates that we, as EFL professors and teachers, should devise some solutions to the teachers' lack of knowledge about metacognitive reading strategies. The vast majority of research studies have confirmed that metacognitive reading strategies promote EFL reading comprehension. These strategies help students in connecting new information to former knowledge, selecting thinking strategies deliberately, planning, monitoring, and evaluating thinking processes (Baker & Brown, 1984). Metacognitive strategies also regulate cognitive strategies, which most Saudi teachers practice in their reading classes.

Therefore, EFL teachers' preparation programs must be updated to include the most effective metacognitive reading strategies. EFL supervisors should also circulate readings, brochures, and research studies for teachers to read. In addition, they should plan training courses that teach and train teachers on the use of metacognitive reading strategies in classes. The current study recommends that in addition to cognitive reading strategies, teachers' preparation programs and training courses should train teachers in using the following metacognitive strategies:

- Stopping reading to check comprehension.
- Modifying new learning.
- Checking understanding when coming across conflicting information.
- Discussing one's reading with others to check understanding.
- Providing one's own feedback on what one has read.
- Making inferences and drawing conclusions.
- Comparing and contrasting information from one or more texts.
- Concentrating on the reading task.
- Regulating mood to stimulate the reading process.
- Analyzing and evaluating the information presented in the text.
- Engaging with the text.
- Integrating the information in the text with what one already knows.
- Completing graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, KWL, etc.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The current study aimed to explore the attitudes of Saudi teachers toward teaching reading strategies and determine whether their practices in classes reflected their beliefs. The study also investigated the relationship between teachers' qualifications and their attitudes toward reading strategy instruction. The results of this study indicate that Saudi EFL teachers perceive cognitive reading strategies to be of great importance in reading classes. Therefore, they tend to teach their students how to skim, scan, guess the meaning of new words, and other cognitive strategies in each reading lesson. The study also revealed that teachers' beliefs have great influence on their practices in classes, which was evident in the Saudi teachers' cases. Finally, the study found that teachers' qualifications have no effect on their attitudes toward reading strategy instruction. The findings of this study urge EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia to learn more about metacognitive reading strategies so they can train their students in using them. EFL supervisors and professors in Saudi Arabia are also encouraged to incorporate both cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies in their in-service training programs.

APPENDIX (A) ATTITUDE SURVEY

Dear EFL teacher / supervisor,

I am doing a research on the importance of teaching reading strategies in EFL classrooms. The study aims at examining EFL teachers' attitudes towards the explicit teaching of some metacognitive reading strategies in EFL classroom. I would like to ask for your assistance in my study by completing the following questionnaire. The information obtained from this study is of vital interest and importance to educators and students and teaching of English as a foreign language. I appreciate your taking some of your valuable time to fill out the questionnaire, which will take 15-20 minutes to complete. Your responses will not be traced to you and will remain completely confidential.

Please read each statement carefully and then, decide your answer, based on your own point of view, by checking the appropriate box.

How important is it to teach your EFL student to:

Strategies	Degrees of Importance				
	Very Important	Important	Neutral (Don't Know)	Less Important	Not Important at all
Preview the material by thinking about: the text, the title, and the pictures. (Cog.)					
Have a purpose for reading. (met.)					
Activate prior knowledge and experiences about the topic. (Cog.)					
Skim and scan the text for information.(Cog.)					
Ask questions about the text before reading it.(Cog.)					
Write summaries to reflect on key ideas in the text. (Cog.)					
Underline or circle information in the text to help student remember it (Cog.)					
Stop reading to check comprehension.. (met.)					
Use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase understanding.(Cog.)					
Use context clues to help students understand what is being read. (Cog.)					
Paraphrase what students read . (Cog.)					
Modify new learning.. (met.)					
Check understanding when coming across conflicting information. . (met.)					
Think aloud while reading.(Cog.)					
Reread the problematic part.(Cog.)					
Look up unknown words in a dictionary.(Cog.)					
guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. (Cog.)					
Discuss one's reading with others to check understanding. . (met.)					
Provide one's own feedback on what one has read.. (met.)					
Make inferences and draw conclusions.. (met.)					
Compare and contrast information from one or more texts. . (met.)					
Concentrate on the reading task.. (met.)					
Regulate mood to stimulate the reading process.. (met.)					
Analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text. (met.)					
Engage with the text.. (met.)					
Integrate the information in the text with what students already know . (met.)					
Complete graphic organizers such as Venn diagram, KWL, etc.. (met.)					

Thank you for your participation
Dr. Hashem Ahmed Alsamadani
Umm Al-Qura University, Dept. of Curiculum and Instruction
Email: drmazawid@gmail.com

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Hashem Ahmed Alsamadani is a former EFL teacher and supervisor at Saudi intermediate and secondary schools . He graduated with a PhD in reading education and language arts education from Ohio University in 2009. Dr. Alsamadani now works as an assistant professor of TESOL at Umm Alqura University, teaching courses on EFL curriculum and methodology at bachelor's and master's levels. His research area of interest includes integrating technology into FL instruction, self-regulation / metacognition and foreign language learning, and ESL/EFL teachers' training needs.

Phonological Make-up of English Loanwords Incorporated into Punjabi via Urdu

Qandeel Hussain
Department of English, International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan
Email: qandeel_hussain2004@yahoo.com

Rashid Mahmood
Department of English, Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan
Email: ch.raashidmahmood@gmail.com

Muhammad Asim Mahmood
Department of Applied Linguistics, Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan
Email: masimrai@gmail.com

Abstract—The present study investigates the route of English words borrowed into Punjabi via Urdu. Differences and similarities between bilingual and monolingual speakers have been highlighted to determine the route of borrowing. The study is based on two corpora: a corpus of 292 English loanwords in Punjabi; and a corpus of 421 English loans in Punjabi and Urdu. Metathesis, aphaeresis, and substitution of consonants are some of the adaptation strategies on the basis of which we differentiate between the output forms of monolingual and bilingual speakers.

Index Terms—borrowing, metathesis, aphaeresis, substitution, direct borrowing, interlanguage

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Nature of Contact and Linguistic Borrowing

Words always travel with the people they belong to and become a source of new vocabulary for other languages. There are so many linguistic and socio-political factors that lead to the adaptation of words. Punjabi and Urdu inherit a long history of lexical borrowing and are among those languages of the Indo-Pak subcontinent that have always remained victims of foreign languages, e.g. Persian, Arabic, and English. With the passage of time, the influence of Arabic and Persian decreased and English took their place as a donor language. Urdu is itself a blend of foreign languages. It is argued that when Muslims first set their feet at the Indo-Pak subcontinent they brought different languages as Arabic, Persian and Turkish. At that time Aryans' language, who were residing in the subcontinent, was Sanskrit. They considered these foreign languages as 'mixed' and 'impure' but Muslims welcomed foreign languages and adapted a plethora of words (Sadeed, 2006). As a result, they unconsciously gave birth to a new language to which we know today as 'Urdu'.

Whenever an alien language (or foreign words) tried to make its place in Punjabi and Urdu they warmly welcomed without taking into consideration the impact of that language (or words) on its phonological system. No doubt English, Persian, and Arabic enriched Punjabi and Urdu with a variety of new lexical items but on the other hand they lost a bulk of indigenous words. The word 'gatta' that can literally be translated in English as 'stick candy' is rarely found in Punjabi because this word and the thing it referred to has been replaced by 'lolli pop'. It reveals another fact that when an object disappears from a culture the word that refers to that object becomes history and a new object or a word takes its place. Nowadays the word 'bavarchi khana' is used in Urdu as it is a foreign word indeed it is a term that is usually used as an alternative of 'kitchen'. This is how on the one hand English words are enriching Punjabi and Urdu in terms of novel vocabulary on the other hand indigenous words are being threatened by new English terms.

Linguistic borrowing is the outcome of 'language contact'. There are "three kinds of contact situations-when a conquered group adopts the language of its conquerors, when the reverse occurs, and when there is mutual influence leading to a "mixed language" (Wackernagel, 1904 cited in Winford, 2003, p.10). There is a close relationship between language contact and language change as the former leads to the later. It is language contact which gives rise to language change and that can be in the form of sound change, semantic change, and phonological or morphological change.

B. Exposure to Western Culture

Although Punjabi and Urdu have remained in contact with English since last two centuries but exposure to western culture, especially English culture and language in recent years through media and internet have had a great impact on

these languages. Novel vocabulary items have been borrowed with the introduction of new technological innovations (TV, mobiles etc.). People are attracted by the foreign products and the way they are pronounced. Words that have now become the part of Punjabi and Urdu lead to the borrowing of other words, for instance, 'mobile' led to the incorporation of other words, such as 'casing', 'keypad' 'sim', 'memory card', 'charger', 'handsfree' (Mahmood, Hussain, & Mahmood, 2011). People were not familiar with these terms before the introduction of 'mobile' but when 'mobile' was introduced it made possible the borrowing of these English words in local languages. Another factor is that words remain associated with the things it referred to and the acceptance of the object determines the fate of a word that is employed for that object (Baugh & Cable, 1978). In addition, the introduction of English as a compulsory subject, the status and prestige linked to it further paved the way for English words to be borrowed. A person who knows English is considered to be an educated one and it has become a symbol of elitism.

II. BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism is all pervasive in Pakistan, a person in one or another way is a bilingual who can speak two different languages or two dialects of the same language. Punjab is more diverse in this regard where Punjabi, Urdu and English coexist and a large number of Punjabis speak Urdu as their second language (Mahmood et al. 2011).

Bilingualism is not a recent phenomenon; its seeds were first sown in the colonial era of the British Empire when English moved towards the Indo-Pak subcontinent and as a result interacted with diverse Indo-Aryan languages. In the beginning, people had negative attitudes but gradually English became the language of elite class of the subcontinent as well as replaced Persian as a language of education. As English had always been coupled with elite class and this ideology still prevails in Pakistan, they are the custodians of Urdu and sole borrowers of English words. Punjabi speakers rely on these bilingual speakers because Punjabi does not have direct contact to English (Mahmood et al. 2011); Punjabi and Urdu are in contact, or Urdu and English, but not Punjabi and English (it does not happen that a person knows Punjabi and English, but not Urdu although it is possible in India or in other European countries, UK, Canada, where Punjabi speakers learn English as a second language and Punjabi as a first). There are mainly three kinds of bilingual speakers: a) who know Punjabi, Urdu and English; b) who know Urdu and English; c) who know only Punjabi but can understand Urdu (receptive bilinguals). Loanwords are always introduced by those speakers who speak Punjabi, Urdu and English or Urdu and English, and relocate loans to Punjabi monolingual speakers who try to imitate these bilinguals. Monolingual speakers do not initiate borrowing because it is a bilingual speaker who has access to the L2 (Haugen, 1950; Poplack, Sankoff, & Miller, 1988; Mougeo, Edouard, & Daniel, 1985) and word is borrowed when it is incorporated into the lexicon treasure of L1 (Paradis & Lebel, 1994).

III. TYPES OF BORROWING

Researchers have introduced varying definitions of borrowing. Bloomfield (1933, p.444) distinguishes between *dialect borrowing* "where the borrowed features come from within the same speech-area and *cultural borrowing* where borrowed features come from the other language." Cultural borrowing "can be bidirectional, but the nature and extent of borrowing on each side is determined by the nature of contact" (Haugen & Mithun, 2003, p.244). Borrowing in which 'core' words such as English borrowed the pronouns *they* and *them* from Norse; *plus* and *via* from Latin etc. is called 'core borrowing'. Borrowing in which grammatical features of other languages are borrowed is called 'grammatical borrowing' (Simpson, 2001, p. 423). Cultural borrowing best suits to the present situation of linguistic incorporation into Urdu and Punjabi where linguistic features come from the other language (English).

Most of the borrowed words do not come directly into a language rather come via an interlanguage. As Simpson (2001, p.423) argued that in English "*stomach* came via French from Greek; *aunt* and *uncle* came via French from Latin, as did *river*." Here the route of the borrowed words is obvious, in both cases French is an interlanguage, but whether words go through any phonological or morphological change while transferring from one language to other or borrowed without any change? How can we determine the route of borrowing? These questions will be answered in our next section.

A. Rout of borrowing

Because of the massive borrowing, languages develop their routes that are the result of contact between or among different languages; this contact may be direct or indirect. As English did not borrow the words *algebra, alchemy, alcohol,* directly from Arabic rather Spanish borrowed them directly from Arabic and then transferred to French and from French into English (Katamba, 1994). Sometimes a language selects a local language as a route (see figure 1) and sometimes chooses the local variety of the donor language as a route of borrowing (see figure 2). The former has been the focus of the present study in which the route of English loanwords incorporated into Punjabi via Urdu has been studied.

(1)

a) Donor language → Interlanguage language → Recipient language
          | | |
      English   Urdu   Punjabi

b) Donor language → Local variety of the donor language → Recipient language
          | | |
      English   Pakistani English   Urdu/Punjabi

In figure (1a) Urdu works as an intermediate language and encounters English loanwords before transferring them to other regional languages, say, Punjabi or it can be Pashto, Sindhi etc. But in figure (1b) the situation is different, here the local variety of English, Pakistani English (PE), facilitates regional languages, including Urdu, Punjabi, Sindhi, Pashto, with the bulk of new English words. Here the role of Urdu as an interlanguage seems to be dwindled, but the question is, to what extent local variety of the donor language is responsible for the transmission of words to other genetically-distinct regional languages? There are limited possibilities in this regard, because local variety of L2 itself goes through the process of nativization or indigenization, in other sense, Urduization. It is already localized and shaped by the internal linguistic systems of the regional languages so the transferred words from English to PE already possess the flavor of nativization. As a result PE owns many features of the interlanguage (Urdu) as well as other L1s' (Punjabi, Sindhi, and Pashto). There are distinct similarities between how a word is pronounced in PE and in interlanguage. For instance, word-initial s+stop clusters are pronounced in PE with prothetic vowel /isku:l/, /ispi:k/ (Rahman, 1990). Similarly when words having /sp/, /st/, /sk/ clusters are spoken by Urdu speakers they are also repaired with prosthesis, e.g. 'stadium' as /istedijəm/, 'scout' as /iskaut/ (Usman, Ali, & Masood, 2003).

Yip (2005) proposed the possibility of the route of loanwords via interlanguage or the local variety of L2. She argued that while adapting a loanword, the adapted form of interlanguage is closer to L2 than the adapted form in L1. The following extract can further shed light on the route of borrowing:

> Loan words are diverse in nature because words are borrowed via distinct routes at different points in history. The English word *paint* (n.), for example, has been borrowed into Korean as both [p*ɛŋk*i] and [pʰeintʰ]. The former form is borrowed through the Japanese language and is used mostly by the older generation or specialists in fields who frequently use the word. The latter form is used by the more educated and/or younger generation. English loan words borrowed through Japanese are easily recognized because they often co-exist with newer borrowings of the same lexical item, as is the case of the word *paint*. (Kim, 1999, p.2).

We agree to Kang, Kenstowicz, and Ito (2008) who studied English loanwords transferred to Korean via Japanese and made a distinction between Japanese-style loans that are characterized by various phonological features and loans that are directly borrowed into Korean from English. They highlighted another type of hybrid loanwords that is the mixture of Japanese-style and direct-English-style. Hybrid loans do not replicate the phonology of one language rather two languages (Tranter, 1997). Words that are pronounced by monolingual speakers are always different from those that are pronounced by bilingual speakers. In other words if a word is adapted directly from English to Korean and via Japanese, there will be differences in both.

IV. PHONEMIC INVENTORIES

Phonologically, Punjabi and Urdu are unique in itself because both contain sounds and particularly tonal system of Punjabi that is not found in other Indo-Aryan languages. A complete set of consonantal inventories of Punjabi and Urdu are presented below:

(2) Punjabi (Shackle, 2003)

	Bil.	Dent.	Retro.	Palat.	Vel.	Glo.
Stops	p pʰ b	t̪ t̪ʰ d̪	ʈ ʈʰ ɖ	tʃ tʃʰ dʒ	k kʰ g	
Fricatives	(f)	s (z)		ʃ	(x) (ɣ)	h
Nasals	m	n	ɳ			
Laterals		l	ɭ			
Flaps		r	ɽ			
Semivowels	v				j	

In Punjabi, there are some consonants that were borrowed from other languages. For example, consonants in parentheses adapted by Punjabi from Persian and Arabic (Karamat, 2002). In Urdu loanwords adapted by Punjabi, /x/, /ɣ/, /f/ and /z/ are substituted by /kʰ/, /g/, /pʰ/ and /dʒ/ respectively or are found only in the speech of educated people (Shackle, 2003). It can be noted that Punjabi has a separate set of aspirated consonants (/pʰ/, /t̪ʰ/, / ʈʰ/, /kʰ/) but English loanwords with aspirated stops ('pick', 'kick') are unaspirated in Punjabi, e.g. 'copy' is adapted as /ka:pi/ (Mahmood et al. 2011). The consonantal inventory of Urdu is as follows:

(3) Urdu (Siddiqi, 2001)

	Bil.	Labio.	Dent	Dent.	Alveo.	Retro.	Palat.	Vel.	Uvu.	Glo.
Stops	p pʰ b bʰ		t̪ t̪ʰ d̪ d̪ʰ			ʈ ʈʰ ɖ ɖʰ	tʃ tʃʰ dʒ dʒʰ	k kʰ g gʰ	q	
Fricatives		f			s z		ʃ ʒ		x G	h
Nasals	m			n						
Laterals					l					
Flaps					r	ɽ ɽʰ				
Glides		v					j			

There are thirty-six consonants in Urdu (Hussain, 1997; Raza et al., 2009). Some studies propose forty three consonants in Urdu and include aspirated nasal /mʰ/, /nʰ/, aspirated lateral /lʰ/, aspirated flap / ɽʰ/ and trill /rʰ/ (Saleem et al., 2002). Like Punjabi, Urdu also has aspirated sounds and /x/ and /ɣ/, but there are some additional sounds in Urdu which cannot be found in Punjabi, e.g. uvular /q/.

V. PRESENT STUDY

The present paper finds out the route of borrowing bearing in mind direct and indirect borrowing of English words in Punjabi. Both, similarities and differences among English, Urdu and Punjabi and absence and presence of a word in recipient language will also be considered. Our study will take some of the ideas of Kang et al. (2008), Tranter (1997) and Yip (2005) as a starting point of discussion but both possibilities of the route are going to be studied: similarities and differences in monolingual and bilingual speakers.

A. Data

The data used in the present research have been taken from a Punjabi corpus studied by Mahmood et al. (2011), containing 292 English loanwords, and a corpus of 421 English loanwords in Punjabi and Urdu studied by Hussain (2011, unpublished thesis) in which he determines the route of borrowing by comparing adaptation strategies of both Urdu and Punjabi.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, we will discuss the phonological features of English loanwords from two perspectives: direct mapping from English to Punjabi (words borrowed by monolingual Punjabi speakers); mapping of English loanwords via Urdu (words borrowed by bilingual speakers who can speak English, Urdu and Punjabi). First of all differences between the adaptation of English loanwords by monolingual and bilingual speakers will be highlighted. There are marked differences in the adaptation of monolingual or bilingual speakers of Punjabi. Some of these differences are presented in the following sections.

A. Metathesis

Metathesis is generally called the reversal of sounds in a word. In direct borrowing from English to Punjabi metathesis is commonly used while English words borrowed via Urdu do not possess this feature. Another reason for this is that bilingual speakers have, to some extent, the knowledge of English phonology and they do not rely on just the perception of English words, but Punjabi monolingual speakers, most often, misperceive these words and because some consonant combinations are not identical to their L1, thus, make the words easy to pronounce with the reversal of sounds:

(4) English   →   Punjabi
a. /plæstɪk/   /pla:skət/   'Plastic'
b. /dʒenrəl/   /dʒernəl/   'General'
c. /ɪlæstɪk/   /la:skət/   'Elastic'

In all three examples (4a,b,c), consonants change their place but in indirect borrowing of English loanwords in Punjabi, the clusters containing these consonants are preserved without making any notable change (5). See how the above words are adapted when entered into Punjabi via Urdu:

(5) English → Urdu   → Punjabi
a. /plæstɪk/   /pla:stɪk/   /pla:stək/   'Plastic'
b. /dʒenrəl/   /dʒẽnrəl/   /dʒə̃nrəl/   'General'
c. /ɪlæstɪk/   /əla:stɪk/   /la:stək/   'Elastic'

In indirect borrowing from English to Punjabi, interlanguage (Urdu) tries to retain the features of donor language and when it further transfers these words to Punjabi, it preserves some features of the donor and interlanguage, but at the same time activates internal phonological system to adapt the word according to its own phonotactic constraints. In the second example, because of the presence of nasal consonant, preceding vowels /e/ and /ə/ are nasalized (Kaye, 1997). The third example is adapted with more variation in Punjabi where word-initial vowel is deleted and /ɪ/ is replaced by /ə/ in the word-final syllable.

B. Aphaeresis

Aphaeresis or aphesis is the deletion of any phoneme at the beginning of a word. This type of adaptation is frequent in English laonwords that are borrowed directly into Punjabi. They delete the word-initial vowels to simplify the pronunciation of a word. This type of deletion is also observed in the Punjabi phonology (Jain, 1926). See the examples below:

(6) English →   Punjabi
a. /əkædmi/   /kædəmɪ/   'Academy'
b. /ɒpəreɪʃn/   /pəre:ʃ̃n/   'Operation'
c. /əla:m/   /la:rəm/   'Alarm'
d. /steɪʃn/   /te:ʃ̃n/   'Station'

Above examples in (6a,b,c) depict that vowel deletion is more prominent than the consonant deletion /s/ (6d). A similar pattern of deletion is adapted by Punjabi monolingual speakers when borrow an Urdu loanword in Punjabi. For instance, /əxba:r/ 'newspaper', here word-initial schwa is deleted /kʰəba:r/, /x/ is substituted by /kʰ/ and onset cluster is repaired with schwa insertion. In indirect mapping via Urdu, similar words are borrowed without applying aphaeresis and more faithfulness in terms of segmental preservation can be noted:

(7) English →   Urdu   →   Punjabi
a. /əkædmi/   /əkædəmɪ/   /əkædəmɪ/   'Academy'
b. /ɒpəreɪʃn/   /opre:ʃ̃n/   /opre:ʃ̃n/   'Operation'
c. /əla:m/   /əla:rəm/   /əla:rəm/   'Alarm'
d. /steɪʃn/   /ste:ʃ̃n/   /səte:ʃ̃n/   'Station'

As it is obvious from the examples in (7) that the adapted form of interlanguage is closer to the donor language's form, then these features of interlanguage are further transferred to the recipient language (Punjabi).

C. Substitution of /d/ to /t/

In direct transmission of English loans, /d/ is substituted with /t/. Such a change may occur during perceptual scan, because place of articulation of both sounds is similar and perceived identical.

(8) English   → Punjabi
a. /bleɪd/   /bəle:t/   'Blade'
b. /spi:d/   /səpi:t/   'Speed'
c. /rekɔ:d/   /rəka:t/   'Record'

In direct borrowing, as reflected by above examples, voiced /d/ is substituted by voiceless /t/, but in indirect borrowing it does not get replaced and preserved in adapted form of interlanguage and recipient language as illustrated in (9):

(9) English → Urdu   → Punjabi
a. /bleɪd/   /ble:d/   /bəle:d/   'Blade'
b. /spi:d/   /spi:d/   /səpi:d/   'Speed'
c. /rekɔ:d/   /reka:rd/   /rəka:rd/   'Record'

D. Substitution of /v/, /w/ to /b/

Like other consonants, in direct borrowing from English to Punjabi, labiodental /v/ and /w/ are substituted with bilabial /b/, but this is not the case with borrowings via Urdu. Examples in (10) show the direct borrowing of English words to monolingual speakers who cannot speak Urdu at all; hence English loanwords come across more variations.

(10) English →   Punjabi
a. /vəʊt/   /bo:t/   'Vote'
b. /wɪkɪt/   /bɪkət/   'Wicket'
c. /vəraɪəti/   /bəræti/   'Variety'

The examples in (11) show that in indirect borrowing, English /v/ and /w/ are adapted as /v/ in both Urdu and Punjabi. See the following examples:

(11) English →   Urdu   →   Punjabi
a. /vəʊt/   /vo:t/   /vo:t/   'Vote'
b. /wɪkɪt/   /vɪkət/   /vɪkət/   'Wicket'
c. /vəraɪəti/   /vəraeti/   /vəræti/   'Variety'

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have presented the route of English loanwords adapted into Punjabi via Urdu. We found that English loanwords that are produced by Punjabi monolingual speakers have certain features that are not present in the speech of those speakers who are bilinguals and have knowledge of the interlanguage (Urdu). Punjabi monolingual speakers do not know Urdu especially older generation; therefore English loanwords by these speakers possess more variation. In direct and indirect borrowing we analyzed phonological changes: metathesis; aphaeresis; substitution etc. and concluded that Urdu's adapted forms are more similar to Punjabi when the English loanwords are adapted via Urdu into

Punjabi. This is because of the Urduization of the adapted forms in Punjabi and it further proves that English loanwords are borrowed into Punjabi via Urdu. We need further research on this area, with a large corpus of English loanwords, to investigate the route of borrowing from both sociolinguistic and phonological perspectives.

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Qandeel Hussain was born in 1987, Faisalabad, Pakistan. He secured 1st Position and Gold Medal in BS (H) English Literature and Linguistics from Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan. Currently he is an M.Phil scholar at International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan. He is interested in loanword phonology, Language contact, Child language phonology, and Sociolinguistics.

Rashid Mahmood was born in 1973, Multan, Pakistan. He pursued his MA English Literature, M.Phil Linguistics, and PhD in English from Bahauddin Zakriya University, Multan, Pakistan. He is working as an Assistant Professor in the Department of English, Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan. His research interests include Pakistani English, Discourse analysis, Corpus Linguistics, and Punjabi phonology.

Muhammad Asim Mahmood was born in 1972, Faisalabad, Pakistan. He is serving as Coordinator/Assistant Professor in the Department of English Linguistics, Government College University, Faisalabad, Pakistan. He has done his PhD in English from BZU, Multan, Pakistan. His research interests include Corpus Linguistics, Phonology, Pakistani English, and Applied Linguistics.

The Relationship between Emotional Quotients, Socioeconomic Status and Performance in Reading Comprehension: A Case Study of Iranian High School Students

Mohammad R. Talebinejad
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Iran
Email: talebinejad@iaush.ac.ir

Zahra Rezai Fard
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional quotient (EQ) and socioeconomic status and their effect on the performance of EFL learners in reading comprehension at high school. To this end, 80 homogenous EFL female students were selected from different high schools in Eghlid with the age range of 14-17. The participants were asked to complete Quick Placement Test, the "Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire", and the "Socioeconomic Questionnaire". Moreover, they answered the reading comprehension test. The Data analysis and statistical calculations revealed that there was a significant relationship between the students' emotional intelligence, socioeconomic status and their reading ability.

Index Terms—Emotional Quotient (EQ), socioeconomic status (SES), reading (process), comprehension, intelligence

I. INTRODUCTION

The earliest roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to Darwin's work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and its second adaptation. The concept of Emotional Quotient (EQ) formally developed out of growing emphasis on research on the interaction of emotion and thought in the field of psychology in 1990s (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Recently, more attention has been paid to the effect of emotions and utilizing the power or information contained in emotion to make effective decisions (Ciarrochi & Mayor, 2007). EQ or EI is about the intelligent use of emotions and utilizing the power or information contained in emotion to make effective decisions. This study tried to shed some light on the studies regarding emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status, which are important factors involved in the process of second or foreign language learning.

In the present study the writer tried to analyze the relationship between EQ and SES on performance in reading comprehension. If the researcher considers EQ in a reading text and also considers socioeconomic status, she may find out their impact on learning. The scientific research of twenty years on emotional intelligence clearly shows that it is a vital and significant indicator of overall success in life and a necessary part of manifesting our human potentials.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As Gardner (2006) states, to understand fully the complexity of language learning process, should pay attention to internal mechanisms and social interpersonal interaction involved in this process. To this end emotional Quotient can be a great help since, as Goleman (2001) states, it not only servers as an internal mechanism, but also interlocks with the external environment. Gardner (1993) emphasizes that language is not grammar specific influenced by other factors that are intelligence based. In the same line, he has expanded the framework of traditional intelligence and emphasized the development of language is not limited to syntax, semantic and phonology.

In this study, the writer tried to investigate the relationship between EQ and socioeconomic status on performance in reading, since there was no study in this area, especially regarding reading comprehension. However, EQ measures the emotional quotient of an individual. It measures the ability of an individual to use his cognitive and emotional intelligence to succeed in life– both personally and professionally. It measures concepts like intuition, empathy, stress management capacities, resilience and integrity. As Horvard (1983) states, EQ can be improved upon and learned. It also consists of five key skills, each building on the last, 1) the ability to quickly reduce stress, 2) the ability to recognize and manage your emotions, 3) the ability to connect with others in using nonverbal communication, 4) the

ability to use humor and play to deal with challenges, and 5) the ability to resolve conflicts positively and with confidence.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) have been the leading researchers on emotional intelligence. In their influential article *Emotional Intelligence*, they defined emotional intelligence as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayor, 1990). Salovey and Mayer (1998) proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability to reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion, and the ability to manage emotions. According to Salovey and Mayer, the four branches of their model are, "arranged from more basic psychological processes to higher, more psychologically integrated processes. For example, the lowest branch concerns the (relatively) simple abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion. It is a term used to measure how much you understand your inner self and the tasks you can perform satisfactorily without getting stressed or depressed.

Gardner's Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences (1983) introduced the idea of multiple intelligences which included both interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). In Gardner's view (1983), traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. Thus, even though the names given to the concept varied, there was a common belief that traditional definitions of intelligence are lacking in ability to fully explain performance outcomes. Intelligence is ability and is directly measured only by having people answer questions and evaluating the correctness of those answers.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

With regard to what was said above, this study tried to seek an answer to the following question:
What is the relationship between emotional intelligence, socioeconomic status, and reading comprehension?
According to the above question, the following null hypothesis was posed to be tested in this study:
Ho: There is no relationship between emotional intelligence, socioeconomic status, and reading comprehension.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In the initial phase, 100 high school female students with the age range of 14-17 participated in Quick Placement Test, which is a reliable and valid test, in order to select a homogeneous group as pre-intermediate learners of English language. Those who scored between 28 and 36 (eighty homogeneous female learners) were selected and the rest were omitted from the study. These participants were included in four intact classes in high schools.

B. Instrumentation

This study made use of the following materials for data collection.

1. The Quick Placement Test

In order to control the proficiency factor, there was a need to homogenize the participants according to their level of L2 proficiency. To do so the Quick Placement Test (QPT) was used to select the pre-intermediate group. The test consists of 60 questions. There were five questions related to their knowledge of different signs and notices used to indicate particular meanings, five cloze passages (25 questions), 20 multiple-choice questions which assessed the participants' knowledge of grammar, 10 multiple choice questions related to the knowledge of vocabulary.

2. Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire. Bar-On, R. (2004)

Although the EQ-i is the first test of emotional intelligence to be published by a psychological test publisher, it may more accurately be described as a self-report measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior which provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence (EMONET digest 403, May 2000). Bar-On in his manual book *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence* regarded EQ measure "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997).

As Bar-On acknowledges, the EQ-i is a self-report test. As with all self-report tests, it relies on the test takers' honesty and accurate self-knowledge when it comes to test questions like 'I am able to identify my feelings', 'I like anyone I meet', 'Others can hardly depend on me'. Bar-On (1997) maintains that,

A concern I have with such tests, and to a lesser extent even with the Mayer et al.'s tests, is that someone who is smart, dishonest and who has a little knowledge of emotional intelligence literature could relatively easily figure out the 'correct' answers. To my amusement I have noticed that the researchers have a polite way of referring to someone who deliberately lies on such a self-report test. They call it "impression management"!

The questionnaire consists of 130 questions in order to measure global trait emotional intelligence. In this questionnaire emotional intelligence is divided into four factors: (a) sociability (social skills), (b) emotionality (emotion skills), (c) self-control, and (d) well being. The self-report questionnaire is a Likert scale coded on a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5), which indicates highest degree of its presence to "strongly disagree" (1), which indicates the lack of construct. For instance, a participant who selects 'strongly agree' alternative, upon reading "It's

easy for me to talk about my feelings to other people" is considered more emotionally intelligent than a participant who selects 'strongly disagree' or 'disagree' alternatives.

3. Socioeconomic Status Questionnaire

This questionnaire was used in order to measure the socioeconomic status of the participants. The questionnaire consisted of 11 questions including questions about the participants' family income, education, sociability with their friends and relatives, and communication with others in case of difficulties. This questionnaire was also in the form of Likert scale with 1 being the lowest and 4 being the highest.

4. Reading Comprehension Tests

In order to measure the ability of students in reading, the researcher used a test with three passages with the difficulty level as their school textbook. The passages were about a plane crash in Switzerland, learning a language, and working to pay for university. The test consisted of 11 multiple-choice questions and measured the students' ability in reading comprehension.

C. Procedures

In the beginning of the experiment, two girl high schools in Eghlid, Fars Province were selected. There were 100 students in these two schools. In order to select a homogeneous group, a QPT was administered and those who scored between 28 and 36 were selected as the pre-intermediate students. In order to make sure that the students have been not tired of taking part in the experiment, each part was administered in one session with a week interval. Therefore, one week after the placement test, the EQ questionnaire was given to them to complete. In the third week, the socioeconomic questionnaire was administered to them to answer. It should be mentioned that for both questionnaires the students were given enough time to complete all the questions. Finally, in the fourth week, the reading comprehension test was given to the participants. After that all the questionnaires were analyzed and the reading comprehension test papers were corrected for the purpose of data analysis.

V. RESULTS

A. Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

After collecting these questionnaires, it was analyzed and graded appropriately according to the original test criteria (Bar-On, 1997). Table 4.1 reveals the descriptive statistics for this questionnaire and Figure 4.1 illustrates the graphical representation of the frequencies in bar format.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

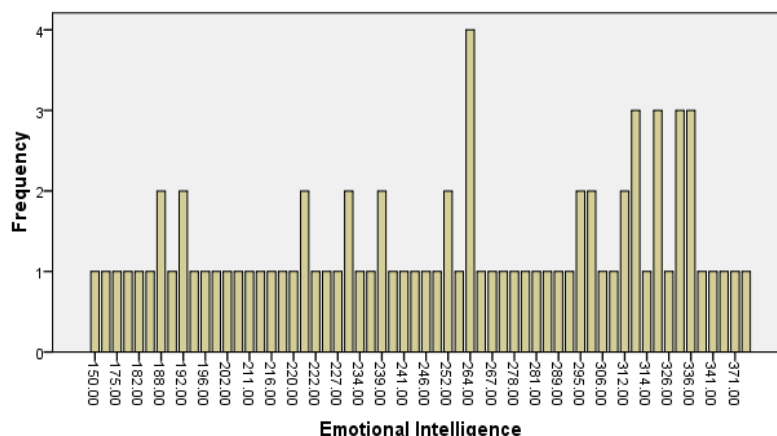| No.	Min	Max	Mean	SD
80	150.00	391.00	258.90	55.289

Figure 4.1.The Graphical Representation of the Frequencies for the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

As it can be seen in Figure 4.1, the grades are highly dispersed among the participants and vary between 150 and 371 which mean the population under study includes a wide range of emotional intelligence.

B. Socioeconomic Status Questionnaire

After the participants completed this questionnaire, the researcher collected the questionnaires and analyzed and interpreted the results. Table 4.2 indicates the descriptive statistics for this questionnaire and Figure 4.2 is the graphical representation of the frequencies.

TABLE 4.2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS QUESTIONNAIRE

No.	Min	Max	Mean	SD
80	18.00	40.00	28.95	5.170

Figure 4.2.The Graphical Representation of the Frequencies for the Socioeconomic Status Questionnaire

As with emotional intelligence questionnaire, the results of this questionnaire also represent a wide range of participants with different socioeconomic status.

C. Reading Comprehension

In the last stage of the experiment the reading comprehension test was administered. Then the papers were collected and scored by the researcher. Table 4.3 shows the descriptive statistics for this test, and Figure 4.3 indicates the frequencies of the scores in bar form.

TABLE 4.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE READING COMPREHENSION TEST

No.	Min	Max	Mean	SD
80	4.00	11.00	7.38	1.938

Figure 4.3.The Graphical Representation of the Frequencies for the Reading Comprehension Test

The reading comprehension scores also include a variety of scores ranging between 4 and 11; in other words, the participants varying their reading comprehension ability.

D. The Results of the Correlational Analysis

The next step after collecting the necessary data was to see if there is any correlation between different pairs of data, that is, emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status, emotional intelligence and reading comprehension, and finally socioeconomic status and reading comprehension.

First, the correlation between emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status was calculated. Table 4.4 indicates the results of this correlation.

TABLE 4.4
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

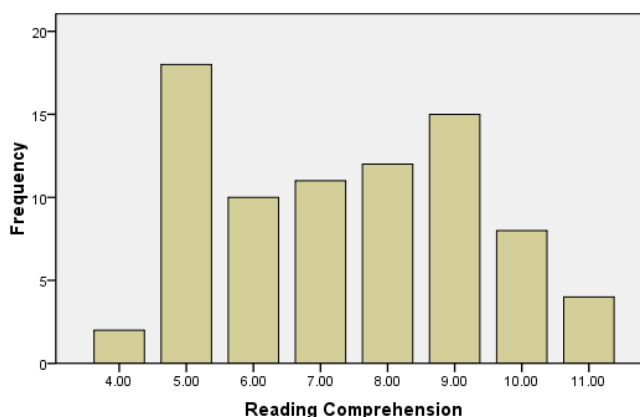|		SES
EI	Pearson Correlation	.715**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	80

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
EI= Emotional Intelligence
SES= Socio-economic Status

It can be seen in Table 4.4 that the correlation between emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status is .715 which is significant at the probability level of .000, which denotes a high correlation between these two variables.

Second, the correlation between emotional intelligence and reading comprehension was calculated. Table 4.5 indicates the results of this second correlation.

TABLE 4.5
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND READING COMPREHENSION

		Reading Comprehension
EI	Pearson Correlation	.798**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	80

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
EI= Emotional Intelligence

According to Table 4.5, the amount of correlation between emotional intelligence and reading comprehension is also high (r= .798) and is significant at the probability level of .000. Once again it can be said that these two criteria are also highly correlated.

Finally, the correlation between socioeconomic status and reading comprehension was determined. Table 4.6 depicts the results of this last correlational analysis.

TABLE 4.6
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS AND READING COMPREHENSION

		Reading
SES	Pearson Correlation	.736**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	80

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
SES= Socio-economic Status

One can see in Table 4.6 that, as with the other two correlations, this correlation is also high (r= .736) which is significant at the probability level of .000; in other words, these two variables are also highly correlated.

According to the results of the three correlational analysis presented above, it can be said that the null hypothesis can safely be rejected, and it can be claimed that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status, emotional intelligence and reading comprehension, and socioeconomic status and reading comprehension.

VI. DISCUSSION

The results described in the previous chapter show the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status and their effect on reading comprehension. The studies empirically support the positive relationship between EI, on the one hand, academic status (Besharatno et al., 2005; Stottlemayer, 2006), second language performance (Pishghadam, 2007), language learning strategy use (Aghasafari, 2006), academic success (Bozorgmehr, 2008), reliability and validity of EQ-I (Dehshiri, 2005), and self-efficiency (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2009), on the other hand. Higher socioeconomic background may attenuate children's long term academic difficulties with learning disabilities, with or without intervention (Telzrow, 1987).

The results from previous studies interpreted that EI is important for work settings (Carmeli, 2003), classrooms (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004) and contextual performance (Carmeli, 2003). EI predicts positive social and academic outcomes in children (Eisenberge et al., 2000, Schultz et al., 2004). Gardner (1993) states that in order to

understand the complexity of language learning process fully, we should pay attention to internal mechanisms and social interpersonal interactions involved in this process. The studies in the area of psychology support the positive relationship between EQ and second language performance , emotional intelligence can partly learned, however this study fail empirical evidence on how to improve EQ in the EFL context.

This is the point this study can significantly touch upon through the results obtained. Also, it is stated that EI consistently predicts positive social and academic outcomes (Eisenberge et al., 2000, Schulte et al., 2004), and positively predicts social skills such as assertion, cooperation, and self-control (Izard et al., 2002). The studies in the area of socioeconomic status in literature empirically support the positive correlation between SES and second language achievement and children's development (Humphrey, Farquhar, & Stein, 1993). SES has a systematic effect on reading skills, and the social context of language learning has powerful influence on language learning (Stern, 1998, p. 269).

VII. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, 80 homogenous female students (intermediate level) were selected after the Quick Placement Test administration and were subjected to the Bar-On Emotional Questionnaire, SES Questionnaire and three reading comprehension texts. The correlation between these Questionnaires was analyzed by SPSS. The major findings are summarized below.

First, the higher scores on reading comprehension show higher scores on SES, higher scores on EI show higher scores on reading comprehension, and finally, higher scores on SES show higher scores on EI, and vice versa, This study provides empirical evidences that socioeconomically-disadvantaged factors affect on learner's performance, the higher the socioeconomic status related to the higher learning performance and also this study presents evidences about relationship between EI, SES and reading comprehension. The relationship between EI and SES has had a large effect on reading comprehension (Report of the National Reading Panel, 2000). Higher socioeconomic background reduced learning difficulties. However, it is imperative that the effects of EQ variables (achievement motivation, flexibility, happiness) be examined in the context of a child's socioeconomic background. SES modulates the relationship between education performance and learning and has several important implications for education. Language learning can gain momentum through better socioeconomic status and improving the EI. EFL learners can enjoy communicative facility and experience high levels of emotional quotient and socioeconomic status if teachers rely on emotion-generating and emotion-managing techniques and pay attention to their social and economic status. In addition, some teachers and learners can appropriately tackle some of the affective and communication problems besetting in the classrooms and evaluate learners' language performance in an optimistic light, leading to better L2 learning performance. The empirical findings of the study on emotional intelligence and socioeconomic factors enable one to argue for the following pedagogical implications. Given that students can learn by observing symbolic and representing modeling, EI-based syllabuses can come into action with many liberal arts such as poetry, drama and stories. Young learners can learn much about their feelings when they read literary excerpts that depict characters with tendency to experience specific emotions.

Also, this study provided the empirical evidence for the therapeutic role of emotional intelligence and socioeconomic status in foreign language learning. EQ can be improved upon and learned, students can reduced their stress, recognize and also manage their emotions. It has also provided evidences about the relationship between EQ and SES, if socioeconomic status improved, students received high EQ and both teachers and learners can appropriately remove affective and communication problems affect their language performance and learning in the classroom. The teachers can use tool and strategies to investigate EQ skills of students in class, so based on they can to promote their learning performance and use some strategies for improving their socioeconomic status. They can also orient a curriculum towards helping students identify their own feelings and their own feeling to others so they can think rationally and preformed better in learning.

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Mohammad R. Talebinejad is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch. He is also an associate faculty member at Sheikhbahaee University, Iran. Dr Talebinejad received his BA in English Language and Literature, University of Isfahan in 1975. He then got his MA in TEFL from the University of Texas at Austin, USA in 1977. For his doctoral degree, Dr Talebinejad was admitted to the University of Sheffield, UK, where he did his PhD in Applied Linguistics in 1994.

He has widely published in Iranian as well as International professional journals such as Metaphor and Symbol, English Teaching Forum, Language Testing, IJAl, Language and Translation, Journal of Social Sciences, The International Journal of Humanities, and other local and international journals. Dr Talebinejad has presented papers in International conferences such as AILA, 2000; Atiner, 2011; RAAM, 2002, 2001 in Paris and Tunis, EUROSLA, Switzerland, 2006; Multicultural Conference, 2007, China. In addition, Dr Talebinejad has authored/coauthored eight books in related fields and ESP.

Zahra Rezaei Fard was born in Eghlid city, Fars Province. She received her BA in translation from Islamic Azad Abadeh University, Iran in 2008. She then got MA in TEFL from IAUSH in 2011. Ms REzaei Fard is currently teaching English in language institutes in Iran.

That-clause Subject/Object Asymmetry in Second Language Acquisition of ECP Principle by Iranian Learners

Marzieh Nezakat-alhossaini
English Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: Nezakat_m@yahoo.com

Ahmad Moinzadeh
English Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: amoinzad@hotmail.com

Abstract—This study is concerned with the question of whether Persian-speaking EFL learners recognize Empty Category Principle and 'that-trace' effect constraint. One-hundred fifty EFL learners participated in the study from among whom 90 language learners at Najafabad Azad University, selected by the OPT, participated in a decontextualized Grammaticality Judgment task. They were three groups of high, mid, and low. Another 60 English learners studying at Gooyesh Language Institute, selected based on their final scores, participated in a contextualized GJ task. They were two groups of 30 (high and mid). Two one-way ANOVAs were conducted for the decontextualized GJ task's results; one for each subject/objrct extraction tasks; two independent t-tests were conducted for the contextualized GJ task: one for each subject/object extraction tasks. It was concluded that participants of the study did not make a distinction between subject/object extractions and they did not recognize ECP and locality conditions in 'that' clauses.

Index Terms—*that*-trace effect, subject/object-extraction, ECP, GJ tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

'*Wh*-movement is a type of movement operation whereby a *wh*-expression is moved to the front of a particular type of structure (Radford, in press). It is a kind of movement by which an operator expression (i.e. who, what, when …) moves into the specifier position within CP. There are different *wh*-question types in different languages.

Cheng (1991) makes a distinction between languages in terms of *wh*-movement, such as English, and the ones which keep the *wh*-word in-situ, such as Chinese and Persian. The former group is called *wh*-movement languages and the latter *wh*-in-situ. Considering minimalist assumptions, it is claimed that movement is triggered by an uninterpretable *wh*-feature [+WH] on C (Chomsky 1995); consequently, the *wh*-word moves to [spec, CP] or the derivation will crash. Within this framework languages which show *wh*-movement have strong uninterpretable features and as a result the *wh*-word moves overtly, i.e. prior to spell out, in order to check the uninterpretable feature.

As opposed to *wh*-movement languages which have overt *wh*-word movement, in languages like Chinese or Japanese, however, *wh*-phrases do not have to be displaced in overt syntax. Huang (1982) has extended the domain of inquiry by treating *wh*-in-situ in terms of LF movement. According to Huang's proposal, *wh*-phrases undergo LF movement after mapping to PF to produce LF representation. Huang's LF movement approach to *wh*-in-situ languages like Chinese makes it possible to directly compare *wh*-in-situ languages with English-type languages where *wh*-phrases are overtly displaced (Watanabe, 2003).

A. Wh-movements in Persian

Persian is an SOV language which shows a free word order. Lotfi (2003) believes that due to scrambling, which is a common phenomenon in Persian, in addition to the basic SOV word order; there are SVO, OSV, and OVS word orders. The following examples show the possible word orders in Persian:

(1a) rmin Elnaz-o did.   (SOV)
    Armin Elnaz-OM saw.
    Armin saw Elnaz.
  (b)   rmin did Elnaz-o.   (SVO)
    Armin saw Elnaz-OM
    Armin saw Elnaz.
  (c) Elnaz-o   rmin did.   (OSV)
    Elnaz-OM Armin saw
    Armin saw Elnaz.

(d) Elnaz-o did   rmin   (OVS)
    Elnaz-OM saw Armin.
    Armin saw Elnaz.

As mentioned, scrambling lets Persian speakers to afford a variety of word orders which obeys movement restrictions; such as Minimal Link Conditions (MLC) (Karimi, 1999). Karimi and Taleghani (2007) suggest that the phrase structure of this language consists of two major domains (Karimi, 2005): the lexical domain and the operator/discourse domain. The lexical domain consists of VP, with T as an extension of this domain.

The operator/discourse domain consists of CP, which could optionally include two topic positions, and a focus projection. Each one of these positions appears in a fixed order relative to others. This is presented in figure 1:

[CP [TopP [FocP [TP [T' [[vP [v' [VP   ]v]]]]]]]]
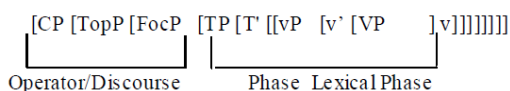
Operator/Discourse   Phase Lexical Phase

Figure 1. Structural domains in Persian, (Karimi & Taleghani, 2007, p. 2)

Persian is a topic prominent language in the sense of Kiss (1994, 1997, 1998, and 2003). That is, the element that moves out of the *v*P ranges over a number of different phrases, including the subject phrase. However, no element is extracted when the entire sentence is in focus. Furthermore, the language lacks structural passive, raising to subject, overt or covert expletives. Thus, the Spec of TP is not a typical subject position, but is projected when there is a background topic present in the clause. The Spec of TopP is reserved for another type of topic, most possibly a shifted topic in the sense of Karimi (2005).

Here some examples of *wh*-questions in Persian are reviewed to determine the property of movability in these questions. It is worth mentioning that these questions are unmarked; that is the most used by native speakers of Persian.

(2) a. ali hasan-o zad.
    Ali Hassan-OM hit.PAST.3SG
    'Ali hit Hassan'
  b. ki Hasan-o zad?
    Who Hassan-OM hit.PAST.3SG
    'Who hit Hssan?'
  c. ali ki-o zad?
    Ali who-OM hit.PAST.3SG
    'Who did Ali did?'
(3) a. ali ye ketab xarid.
    Ali a book buy-PAST.3SG
    'Ali bought a book.'
  b. ali chi xarid?
    Ali what buy-PAST.3SG
    'What did Ali buy?'

The surface word order of the examples in (2) and (3) suggest that Persian is a *wh*-in-situ language, as the *wh*-words occupy the same positions in the questions as their counterparts in the declarative sentences (Kahnemuyipour, 2001).

B. Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition

L2 learners face a task parallel to that of L1 acquirers, namely to arrive at a linguistic system which accounts for the L2 input, allowing the learner to understand and speak the second language. Given this apparent similarity, the question of whether UG also mediates L2 acquisition, and to what extent, has been investigated and debated since the early 1980s. The first decade of research on UG in L2 acquisition concentrated largely on the so-called access issue, namely, whether or not UG remains available in non-primary acquisition. This research has looked for evidence that L2 learners can (or cannot) apply principles of UG, and set or reset parameters, as well as investigating the extent to which the mother tongue (L1) was involved, for example through the adoption of L1 parameter settings in interlanguage grammars. Hypotheses varied as to whether L2 learners have *no access*, *direct access* or *indirect access* to UG.

One side of the debate, sometimes referred to as the *no access* position (for example, Cook 1988; Cook and Newson 1996; Epstain, Flynn and Martohardjono 1996), is represented by the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (Bley-Vroman 1990) and related claims (Clahsen and Muysken 1986; Schachter 1988). According to this view child L1 and adult L2 differ in major respects. Proponents claim that adult L2 acquisition is not constrained by UG, or that is only constrained by UG insofar as universal properties can be accessed via the L1 grammar.

On the other side of the debate is the position that L2 learners indeed have access to UG. Among the SLA research on the direct access Flynn, 1984; 1987; 1988; Mazurkewich, 1988; White, 1988 and Ohba, 2007 can be seen. An alternative kind of account recognized the role of both the L1 and UG: L2 learners are indeed assumed to have access to principles and parameters of UG. However, initially at least, access would be via the L1 grammar, with the possibility of subsequent grammar restructuring and parameter resetting, in the light of exposure to L2 input (e.g. White 1985, 2003). This position is sometimes referred to as *indirect access*.

C. The Empty Category Principle

According to minimalist assumptions there are some constraints on the way movements. Empty Category Principle is a principle according to which empty categories should be properly governed. They should be lexically/head governed, i.e. governed by a phrase head/X^0 or antecedent-governed, i.e. bound by (co indexed with and c-commanded) by a category that governs them (Lasnik and Saito, 1992). As the example below shows: t is ungoverned, therefore the sentence is ungrammatical:

(4) *Terry is crucial t to pay the bill

Well-known examples of ECP-violations are extractions of an adjunct out of an island as in (5) (containing a *wh*-island) and configurations displaying the *that*-trace effect in English, as in (6). In both cases, the trace cannot be properly antecedent-governed because of the intervention of a barrier.

(5) * how$_i$ did John ask [whether Bill fixed the car t_i]

(6) * who$_i$ does John believe [that t_i will fix the car]

One obstacle on the way of governing of the empty categories is the *that*-trace effect. According to Pesetsky and Torrego 2001 the *that*-trace effect is as follows:

(7) a. whom$_i$ do you think [$_{cp}$ that [$_{IP}$ Lord will invite t_i]]?
    b. whom$_i$ do you think [$_{cp}$ [$_{IP}$ Lord will invite t_i]]?
(8) a. *who$_i$ do you think [$_{CP}$ that [$_{IP}$ t_i will arrive first]]?
    b. who$_i$ do you think [$_{CP}$ [$_{IP}$ t_i will arrive first]]?

This effect is most often attributed to a local binding requirement on subject traces — the *Empty Category Principle* (ECP) (Lasnik and Uriagereka, 2005). The presence of the word *that* in examples like (8b) which have undergone *wh*-movement, is taken to block a crucial government relationship between the subject trace and some element in the C-system (In some accounts, the relevant member of the C-system is C itself (e.g. Rizzi, 1990). In others, it is an intermediate trace of successive-cyclic movement (Kayne, 1980; Pesetsky 1982).

The point is that objects can be extracted across overt complementizers as in (7) but subjects can only be extracted from clauses without overt complementizers (8). As discussed in ECP, traces of movements should be fully governed, both lexically and antecedent governed. The grammaticality of (7a, b) is because the trace is a direct object, which is well governed. The existence of the complementizer *that* makes no difference here and the trace of the extracted object is fully governed. The grammaticality of (8b) is because the trace of the extracted subject is governed and the ECP is satisfactorily met. The ungrammaticality of (8a) is because the trace of the extracted subject can not be governed, since the governing process is blocked by the complementizer *that* which is intervening between the trace and its antecedent which should govern it. And also it is not lexically governed, because, it is not a complement of a head.

As mentioned earlier, Persian is a focus fronting language considering *wh*-movements which is a very different feature from that of English; the movement to the specifier CP. Consequently the constraints on the way of movements do not exist in this language as it is shown below:

(9) a. Mina goft-3Per-Past ke Ali zudtar resid-3Per-Past
       Mina said that Ali earlier arrived
       Mina said that Ali arrived earlier
    b. Mina goft-3Per-Past ke ki zudtar resid-3Per-Past?
       Mina said that who earlier arrived?
       *Who did Mina say that arrived earlier?

This difference brings the question of whether Persian L2 learners of English will have difficulty learning these principles and their constraints or not? The research questions are as below:

1. Can Iranian L2 learners of English (L1=Persian) recognize the Empty Category Principle (i.e. ECP)?

2. Can Iranian L2 learners of English (L1=Persian) recognize the locality requirements in terms of subject/object extractions from *that*-clauses; i.e. the *'that*-trace effect'.

3. Is there a relationship between the proficiency level of Iranian L2 learners of English (L1 Persian) and the availability of Universal grammar Principles (i.e. empty Category Principle)?

4. Do Iranian L2 learners of English (L1=Persian) have access to UG principles (i.e. Empty Category Principle)?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. The Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted among a group of 90 English learners at Gooyesh Language Institute, Isfahan-Iran. Three groups of 30 were chosen from among these students. The criterion was the institute's placement tests. They were given a contextualized GJ task consisting of 10 conversations. Meanwhile the tests were checked by a native speaker. Based on the researcher's observation, the elementary group were not able to understand the conversations and the bold sentences since they were beyond their proficiency level. Therefore the elementary group was excluded in the main study. After the data collection and analysis, the number of conversations changed to 14. This was done because of statistical reasons in order to have an equal number of questions on object and subject extractions. The first test consisted of four subject extractions and six object extractions that caused some statistical problems; at the same time,

there were some words that had to be exchanged with some others to enhance the understanding rate of the factors in question (*that*-trace effect).

B. Participants

The participants of the study were selected from among Iranian second language learners of English. Two groups of these learners were chosen. The first group consisted of 130 students randomly selected from among university students of TEFL at Najaf Abad Azad University, Isfahan-Iran. This group took part in an Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The results of the OPT led to the selection of three groups, each containing 30 students. The remaining 40 were disregarded according to the instructions of grouping, provided by OPT developers which led to three statistically significant groups of high, mid, and low.

Another group of Iranian L2 learners were chosen from among Iranian English learners at Gooyesh Language Institute, Isfahan-Iran. They were a group of 60 students who were randomly selected; and were studying in Intermediate and Advanced levels of the institute (according to the institute's evaluations). Two groups of 30 were chosen from among these students (based on the results of the pilot study, no low group was selected). The criterion was the students' final scores in the last four terms.

For the intermediate group, they were all studying in the last term of the intermediate level (there are four terms for intermediate students); the students' scores in the last four terms were between 80-85 and the advanced group's scores who were again studying in the last term of the advanced level (there are four terms for advanced students) were between 75-80. Therefore, the groups were totally homogeneous in terms of proficiency.

C. Materials

Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

The Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 1992) was used in order to decide on the proficiency levels of those participated in the Decontextualized GJ task. The test contains 200 items and has two main parts. The first part deals with the listening test including 100 items. The participants listen to sentences read by a native speaker and choose one of the two options provided in each sentence. The second part which consists of 100 test items of grammar is divided into two fifty-item subsections where participants should choose one of the three options provided in each sentence. The proficiency level of the participants is decided on a table provided by the test maker.

The decontextualized GJ task

The task contained 30 *wh*-questions: 20 questions on the factor in question (subject/object extraction from '*that*' clauses) and 10 distractors; the distractors, simple *wh*-questions, were divided into two five groups of grammatical and ungrammatical; among the remaining 20, there were 10 subject-extraction *wh*-questions which were divided into five grammatical and five ungrammatical and the remaining 10 were object-extractions. Here are some samples:

a) What did John regret that he saw? (Object-extraction *wh*-question)
b) Who do you think will arrive first? (Grammatical subject-extraction *wh*-question)
c) Who do you think that will win the race? (Ungrammatical subject-extraction *wh*-question)
d) Which chair did Mr. James sit on? (Grammatical distractors)
e) Which telephone did ring? (Ungrammatical distractors)

All 30 questions were chosen from related texts on *that*-trace effect which were all written by the native authors.

The contextualized GJ task

The task contained 14 conversations between two speakers. In each conversation, a situation was given at the beginning and then at the end there was a *wh*-question written in bold on the factor in question (subject/object-extraction). The subjects were supposed to judge on the degree of acceptability of these questions after reading the whole conversation. There were seven subject-extraction and seven object-extraction *wh*-questions. The questions were checked by a native speaker and some changes were done based on his comments. The reason that this type of task was used in this study was, to have a different type of question which was contextualized and could reduce the possible ambiguities in a decontextualized task. Another reason for conducting such a task was a kind of double checking on the data obtained from the decontextualized GJ task.

D. Procedure

The decontextualized GJ task

The 90 participants chosen through the OPT took part in a decontextualized GJ task. The task contained 30 wh-questions on subject/object extractions from '*that*' clauses. There were 10 distractors to reduce the sensitivity of the test on the part of the participants. There were another 10 questions on object-extraction which were all grammatical in the sense that there was no ungrammatical version of these questions according to the 'that-trace' effect principle.

The remaining 10 were on subject-extraction which consisted of five grammatical and five ungrammatical extractions. The participants were asked to give scores to the sentences based on their judgments on the degree of acceptability of the sentences. The instructions were given in Persian. They were given a scale as below:

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              5        4        3        2        1
acceptable ...................................................... unacceptable
            100%      75%      50%      25%      0%
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The participants were supposed to give a score, ranging from 1 to 5, based on the degree of acceptability of the sentences given. As shown in the scale above, 1 indicates 0% which means it is not acceptable at all to 5 that indicates 100% and means it is totally acceptable. The scoring was as follows. For grammatical questions, the score given by the participant was the true score of the participant. It means if a participant recognizes a grammatical object or subject-extraction and gives 5 to it, the score 5 is going to be counted; or if she/he recognizes the same question as mostly acceptable and gives a 3, the very score will be counted. The scoring of the ungrammatical questions is the reverse process. If a participant recognizes an ungrammatical subject-extraction as grammatical and gives a score of 5 to it, she/he gets 1 because of the wrong judgment on the test. If she/he recognizes the ungrammatical sentence as ungrammatical and gives a score of 1 to it, she/he gets 5 because of the correct judgment on the question given. The total score of the object and subject-extractions was the same which was 50.

Contextualized GJ task

This test was given to a group of 60 English learners at Gooyesh Language Institute who were divided into two groups of 30. The test consisted of 14 conversations; seven items contained object-extractions and seven items contained subject-extractions. Each conversation had a situation at the beginning to make the ground clear to the participants. At the end of each conversation, there was a wh-question on subject/object extraction written in bold which the students were asked to judge on the degree of acceptability of the sentence. The scoring process was the same as the decontextualized GJ task, and the instructions were given in Persian.

III. RESULTS

A. OPT

The participants of the study who later participated in the decontextualized test, took part in an OPT and were divided into three groups of high, mid, and low according to their proficiency level. The mean scores of which are presented in Table 1. The high group 105.43 (SD = 4.28), mid group 91.93 (SD = 1.79), and the low group 75 (SD = 37).

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE DATA CONCERNING THE OPT

Dependent variable	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OPT	High	30	105.4333	4.28054
	Mid	30	91.9333	1.79911
	Low	30	75.0000	9.96546
	Total	90	90.7889	14.00521

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted as the OPT scores to be dependent variable and the three groups of high, mid, and low as the independent variables:

TABLE II.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR OPT

Dependant Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OPT	Between Groups	13951.756	2	6975.878	173.142	.000
	Within Groups	3505.233	87	40.290		
Total		17456.989	89			

There was a statistically significant difference among the groups (F = 173.14, p < 0.01). However, in order to detect the exact location of the difference, a *post hoc* Scheffe test was conducted; the results are presented in Table 3:

TABLE III.
THE POST-HOC TEST FOR THE OPT

Test	(I) Language Level	(J) Language Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Scheffe	High	Mid	13.5000(*)	1.63890	.000	9.4183	17.5817
		Low	30.4333(*)	1.63890	.000	26.3516	34.5150
	Mid	High	-13.5000(*)	1.63890	.000	-17.5817	-9.4183
		Low	16.9333(*)	1.63890	.000	12.8516	21.0150
	Low	High	-30.4333(*)	1.63890	.000	-34.5150	-26.3516
		Mid	-16.9333(*)	1.63890	.000	-21.0150	-12.8516

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

According to the results, the high group performed significantly better (M= 105.43, SD= 4.28) than the mid group (M= 91.93, SD = 1.79) and the low group (M= 75, SD= 37). Furthermore, the mid group (M= 91.93, SD = 1.79) performed significantly better than the low group (M= 75, SD= 37).

B. Decontextualized Test

The task contained two kinds of wh-questions; subject-extraction and object-extraction from that-clauses.

Subject extraction

The means for the groups were 30.36 (SD= 3.51), 30.06 (SD= 3.80), and 28.66 (SD= 3.71) for the high, mid, and low groups respectively:

TABLE IV.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SUBJECT-EXTRACTIONS FROM THAT-CLAUSES

Dependent Variable Groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
SE	High	30	30.3667	3.51826	.64234
	Mid	30	30.0667	3.80502	.69470
	Low	30	28.6667	3.71700	.67863
Total		90	29.7000	3.71589	.39169

To answer the research questions concerning the degree of the participants', recognition of the ECP and its first locality requirement subject-extraction in that-clauses, as well as investigating whether there was a significant difference in performance among the three proficiency groups of high, mid, and low in the decontextualized GJ task containing subject-extractions, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. The related dependent and independent variables were the proficiency groups and subject-extraction respectively:

TABLE V.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR SUBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	49.400	2	24.700	1.822	.168
Within Groups	1179.500	87	13.557		
Total	1228.900	89			

The results showed no significant difference among the three proficiency groups in terms of recognizing the ECP principle and its first locality requirement subject-extraction from that-clauses (F= 1.822, p< 0.01).

Object-extraction

Table 6 presents the mean scores for the second constraint in ECP principle; object-extraction. The mean scores were 37.13 (SD= 6.04) for the high group, 35.43 (SD= 6.53) the mid group and 34.70 (SD= 6.01) fir the low group:

TABLE VI.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

Dependent Variable	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
OE	High	30	37.1333	6.04998	1.10457
	Mid	30	35.4333	6.53206	1.19259
	Low	30	34.7000	6.01808	1.09875
	Total	90	35.7556	6.21942	.65558

A one-way analysis of variance, proficiency groups being the dependent variable and the constraint object-extraction the independent variable, was consequently conducted to answer the research question concerning the recognition of the ECP principle by the participants on the one hand and the degree of locality requirement recognition, object-extraction in that-clauses on the other:

TABLE VII.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR OBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	93.489	2	46.744	1.214	.302
Within Groups	3349.133	87	38.496		
Total	3442.622	89			

The results showed no significant difference among the three groups in terms of recognizing the ECP principle and its second locality requirement object-extraction from that-clauses (F= 1.21, p< 0.01).

C. Contextualized GJ Task

The second means of data collection was a contextualized GJ task. The task contained 14 conversations containing wh-questions. There were two types of questions; subject-extraction and object-extraction from that-clauses. After scoring the tests, some data was obtained based on which, the following statistical procedures were done.

Subject-extraction

Table 8 presents the mean scores concerning subject-extraction from that-clauses. The means were 20.5 (SD=2.66), and 21 (SD=3.57) for the high and mid groups respectively:

TABLE VIII.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SUBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

Dependent variable	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Subject-extraction	High	30	20.5000	2.66199	.48601
	Mid	30	21.0000	3.57192	.65214

An independent-sample t-test was conducted to compare the high and mid groups based on subject-extractions:

TABLE IX.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR SUBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
1.327	.254	-.615	58	.541	-.50000	.81332	-2.12804	1.12804
		-.615	53.619	.541	-.50000	.81332	-2.13088	1.13088

There was no significant difference in scores for the high group (M=30.36, SD= 3.51), and mid group M=30.06, SD= 3.80; t (58) = .615, p= .54 (two-tailed) with regard to subject-extraction from that-clauses in contextualized GJ task.

Object-extraction

Table 10 presents the mean scores for object-extraction from that-clauses. The mean scores are 26.53 (SD=3.90), and 26 (SD=5.63) for the high and mid groups:

TABLE X.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

Dependent Variable	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Object extraction	High	30	26.5333	3.90166	.71234
	Mid	30	26.0000	5.63854	1.02945

An independent-sample t-test was conducted to compare the results obtained from the object-extraction tasks for the two groups of high and mid:

TABLE XI.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR OBJECT-EXTRACTION FROM THAT-CLAUSES

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
6.578	.013	.426	58	.672	.53333	1.25188	-1.97258	3.03924
		.426	51.592	.672	.53333	1.25188	-1.97922	3.04589

There was no significant difference in scores for the high group (M=26.53, SD=3.90), and mid group M=26, SD=5.63; t (58) = .426, p= .67 (two-tailed) in terms of object-extraction from that-clauses in contextualized GJ task.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study tried to compare two different languages based on their behavior toward wh-movements. Persian as opposed to English is a wh-in-situ language or in other words, a focus fronting language in which no movements take place while making wh-questions and the wh-expressions remain in-situ and at least there is no movement to spec CP position as there is in English. To have different types of movement operations in Persian leads to having different constraints from those of English. We tried to understand whether this difference would be problematic for Iranian learners of English or not.

The first research question was to see whether Iranian L2 learners of English (L1=Persian) can recognize the Empty category Principle (ECP). Traces of moved phrases are subject to the ECP. ECP exits in both kinds of extractions from that-clauses; it is a constraint when there is a subject-extraction; it is not a constraint when there is an object extraction though. The data obtained from both types of tests (decontextualized and contextualized GJ tasks), showed that Iranian L2 learners of English participated in this study were not fully aware of this principle and overruled it during the tasks.

The second research question was whether Iranian L2 learners of English (L1=Persian) could recognize the locality requirements in terms of subject/object-extractions from that-clauses; i.e. the 'that-trace effect'. The locality

requirement for extracting from that-clauses while making wh-questions is to omit the complementizer that when extracting the subject, while removing it when extracting the object is not necessary. The data obtained from both types of tasks which were decontextualized and contextualized GJ tasks, showed that, Iranian L2 learners of English could not make a distinction between subject and object extraction from that-clauses, therefore, they moved the elements (object/subjects) from those clauses with no regard to the principles in question. Therefore, they did not recognize the 'that-trace effect' principle.

The third research question questioned the availability of UG with regard to Iranian L2 learners of English. According to Chomsky (1980), "UG is the set of properties, conditions, or whatever that constitutes the "initial" state of the language learner, hence the basis on which knowledge of language develops". According to this idea, UG is supposedly available to L1 learners. The question is whether it is available to L2 learners as well. Based on the data obtained in this study, the Iranian L2 learners of English who participated in this study could not recognize the UG principles and therefore did not have access to the UG principle in question, the Empty Category Principle (ECP). This finding is in line with Hawkins and Hattori (2006) who investigated the sensitivity of high proficiency Japanese speakers of English to superiority in bicultural sentences. Ameri-Golestan (2001), in another attempt, dealt with presentational and presuppositional arguments with regard to Subjacency principle, and Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou (2007) on interpretability hypothesis and evidence from wh-interrogatives in Greek second language learners of English (cf. Yu-Chang, 2009).

The fourth research question investigated the relationship between the proficiency level of the participants and the availability of Universal Grammar Principles (i.e. ECP). Based on the results discussed above, there was no significant difference among the three groups of high, mid, and low in the decontextualized GJ tasks and between the two groups of high and mid in the contextualized GJ tasks. Therefore it can be concluded that there was no relationship between the proficiency level of the participants in this study and the availability of Universal Grammar principles (i.e. ECP).

The results obtained from both decontextualized and contextualized GJ tasks indicate that the Iranian L2 learners participated in this study were not able to recognize neither the 'that-trace effect' principle nor the Empty Category Principle and overruled them.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study can be best explained by the maturation theory according to which the function that 'maps' acoustic input to knowledge undergoes change. That is, the mapping function is defined as UG itself. As such, UG will be different at different developmental stages in language acquisition. Such a model would suggest that for a language learner (L1 or L2), hearing sentences containing examples of a particular syntactic structure does not necessarily trigger knowledge of the structure (Cook, 2002).

For example, hearing the sequence of language sounds associated with the utterance 'John was arrested' does not give the learner the ability to understand that 'John' is the object of the verb 'arrested'. At some later developmental stage, however function defined as UG changes in such a way that such data-exposure does lead to a change in the learner's grammar.

This is because a maturational model would appear to predict that once a parametric value is established, the alternative value would cease to be available to the L2 learner if needed for the construction of a new target grammar. Only if the L2 can be directly modeled on L1 constructions can new language acquisition occur. Only a parameter value instantiated in the L1 would be directly available under the Maturation model.

UG in this model is not distinct from the language-specific grammar in the end state, and consequently the adult cannot access UG again, after the 'initial state', defined as S0. New language knowledge must of necessity be accessed through some other means, perhaps through L1 in some transfer-based way. The Maturation model would be predicted to hold, for example, if maturation under some form of genetic programming underlay much of the essential course of L1 acquisition. Presumably there would be actual 'brain change' (as yet undefined) under this model, which correlates with the course of acquisition of an L1. The brain would never be in the same state again in this model, after the language state S1 (or perhaps more accurately, state zero [S0]), with respect to the language faculty.

Adults, therefore, tend to use the general problem solver when attempting to learn language. Thus, these classroom learners are learning language in the way they would learn any other subject. They have conscious knowledge of the forms they have been taught and they apply only that language; they do not generalize beyond it; where they have not been taught, they deal with the problem as best as they can by transferring their knowledge of the L1 system. They are always conservative about generalizing into new areas, and the more advanced they are, the more wary the generalizations become.

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Marzieh Nezakat-Alhossaini is a Ph.D. student of Applied Linguistics at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. She received an MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Najafabad branch, Isfahan, Iran. Her main research interest areas are SLA and syntax. At present, she teaches ESP courses at Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.

Ahmad Moinzadeh is an associate professor of the faculty of foreign languages, English Department at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He received an MA in TEFL from Ferdosi Mashhad University, Mashhad, Iran. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Ottawa, Canada. At present he runs Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition, and First Language Acquisition courses. He has published several articles in the field of TEFL and has supervised many dissertations and theses.

Aspects of Textual Cohesion in Selected Poems of J.P. Clark-Bekederemo

Ebi Yeibo

Department of English & Literary Studies, Faculty of Arts, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria

Email: eyeibo@gmail.com

Abstract—**Previous studies on J.P. Clark-Bekederemo's poetry have concentrated on literary and some linguistic features, highlighting the relation of theme and figuration in the works. However, such studies have not paid attention to the discourse and pragmatic aspects of the texts, which are crucial for a thorough description and interpretation of the writer's idiolect. This study, therefore, examines aspects of textual cohesion in the poems, using the methods and insights of discourse analysis. With Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesive devices viz: ellipsis, references, and conjunction, as the analytical platform, the study shows some linguistic strategies used by the poet to achieve inter-sentence connection in the poetry. It also shows the network of interdependencies among linguistic and non-linguistic features, which give the poetry a thoroughly cohesive structure. The aim is to demonstrate that cohesive ties have the potentials to combine with other elements of language to unify different parts of a text. The study enriches our perspectives not only on the language of J. P. Clark-Bekederemo's poetry, but also on the language of poetic discourse in general.**

Index Terms—**textual cohesion, J.P Clark-Bekederemo, poetry, discourse analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

As one of the leading lights of Nigeria's first generation of modern literary scribblers, J. P. Clark-Bekederemo's works have attracted prodigious acclaim and critical attention. However, from the corpus of available literature, it is obvious that there is an acute dearth of critical works on the language of the poet by language scholars. The inference of this thesis is that most of the critical investigations of the poet's oeuvre are literary and thematic in focus (see Eyoh, 1997). This is a sharp contrast to the considerable volume of linguistic studies that the works of such poets as Soyinka and Osundare have evoked. In fact, Eyoh's (1997) *J.P Clark's Poetry: A Study in Stylistic Criticism*, which examines and characterizes the writer's poetic idiolect from phono-stylistic, lexical and paralinguistic affective levels, remains the only full-scale linguistic exploration of the writer's poetry. Significantly, the scholar himself acknowledges the inherent limitation of this work and suggests that it has opened up new vistas for research on the poet, particularly from the perspectives of syntax, tenor of discourse and graphology.

The present study seeks to fill the gap left by Eyoh's work, in the area of Discourse Analysis, by focusing on aspects of textual cohesion in the writer's poetry. Discourse itself is concerned with "… how different parts of the text are interwoven to achieve desired results" (Alo, 1998, p.131). In Crystal's (1987) view, it *implies* how sentences work in sequence to produce coherent stretches of language. Hornby (2000) sees the concept as

The use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning. Language that is studied, usually in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected. (p.331).

The cardinal point is that poetry texts are verbal constructs which can be classified as discourse, in the sense that they contain all the "properties" of discourse viz: structure, meaning, action (see Schiffrin, 1987). Although Widdowson (1984) avers that, "it is common to find instances of language use (in poetry) which cannot be accounted for by grammatical rules" (p.162), they are sequences of sentences, sequences which are not random but well-formed by virtue of what Halliday and Hasan (1976) call "cohesive" relationships tying one sentence to another. In fact, poetry is a social discourse, like other genres of literature (i.e. drama, prose) because we can relate the formal linguistic patterning in the poetry text to the given communicative context.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

According to Schiffrin (1994), discourse is often discussed along formalist and functionalist paradigms (p. 20). In formalist paradigm, also known as structuralist, discourse is described as a particular unit of language above the sentence. In functionalist, also known as emergent or interactive paradigm (May et al, 1992), it is described as a discipline which focuses on language use. These definitions essentially underpin the difference between formalist and functionalist approaches to discourse analysis. As summarized by Leech (1983), formalists tend to regard language primarily as a mental phenomenon, while functionalists regard it primarily as a social phenomenon (p.46).

The structuralist approach is particularly favoured by Harris (1952), the first scholar to refer to discourse analysis who, among other things, was of the opinion that discourse analysis should take into account other data e.g. the

morpheme, clause, sentence, the proposition, turns, speech actions and speech events, etc, believing that the sentence is the level (unit) of which discourse is composed. One strong criticism against this reliance on definitions and analysis of the smaller unit of "sentence" is that the units in which people speak do not always seem like sentences. This implies that, the structuralist or formalist approach to discourse analysis might not be sufficient for the analysis of spoken discourse which, in the words of Chafe (1980, 1987, 1992), is often produced in units with "intonational and semantic closure not necessarily syntactic closure", and other discourses in which information is not organized in underlying grammatical structure. In other words, formalist discourse analysts work with what Lyons (1977) describes as "system sentences" – those that satisfy the requirement of well-formedness (p. 385, 387). But since texts (i.e. literary) are not always composed of "system sentences" but also "text sentences" whose interpretations are context-dependent, it can be said that linguistic formalism is of limited significance in literary studies. This means that the approach has limited application to literary texts since it applies more to the analysis of dramatic discourse, which is closer to the spoken text than other genres of literature. This is because texts of all kinds have internal dependencies such that they don't need to be well formed to be acceptable. Halliday argues that language is a social semiotic and as such, needs to be studied in terms of the lived experience of its users rather than an abstract system of logically consistent rules.

In functionalist paradigm, on the other hand, the analysis of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use (Fasold, 1990, p.65). This analysis is not restricted to the description of functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs (see Brown and Yule, 1983, p.1). Discourse is assumed to be interdependent with social life, such that its analysis necessarily intersects with meanings, activities, and systems outside of itself. Analysts who adopt the functionalist view of discourse rely upon the strictly grammatical characteristics of utterances as sentences, than upon the way utterances are situated in contexts. The incontrovertible reality is that language and society functionally depend on each other.

The systemic functional grammar that provides the theoretical framework for the present study, is subsumed within functional linguistics. The interest of this grammar is not only in describing the structure of language, but also in explaining the properties of discourse and its functions. It revolves around the work of J.R. Firth in general and M.A.K. Halliday in particular. In Hallidayan (1970) perception, a formal feature is stylistic if it has a particular meaning, effect or value. This notion emphasizes how language functions in texts and the nexus between language and what it is used for, or to achieve. The critical point here is that, whatever linguistic resource that is worth describing must be put to use, in the sense that the description and interpretation are necessarily based on the situational variables that prompted its use. Hence Oha (1994) posits that the approach recognizes the interdependency of style, meaning and context of situation and that the latter should not be subjected to second fiddle position, or ignored, in the analysis of style (p.730).

In Systemic Functional Grammar, language structure is analyzed along semantic, phonological, lexical and grammatical lines. Language function, on the other hand, is examined from three angles viz: ideational, interpersonal and textual. These are referred to as the metafunctions of language. The ideational metafunction of language is synonymous with the field of discourse i.e. the subject matter or propositional content of the text and the context of language use i.e. is it a religious or socio-political subject? The interpersonal or interactional function, at another level, refers to the tenor of discourse i.e. the social relationship that exists among participants in a specific discourse situation, which can influence or shape language use. The textual aspect is particularly germane to the present study. It is concerned with the mode. Leech and Short (1985) see Halliday's textual functions of language as "…ways of using language to organize, understand and express information for effective communication" (p.209). The main point is that, the textual metafunction relates what is said in a text to ideas outside the discourse, as we shall demonstrate in the present study. It is concerned with the internal organization and communicative nature of a text. In this model, cohesion is examined both lexically and grammatically. The lexical aspect examines sense relations and lexical repetitions. The grammatical aspect on the other hand, examines repetition of meaning through reference, substitution and ellipsis, as we shall see in the present study.

Importantly, we can glean from the foregoing that the view of discourse analysis we apply in this study is that which employs the tools of grammarians to identify the roles of wordings in passages or texts, and employs the tools of social theorists to explain why they make the meanings they do. This is inevitable because an interpretation of a literary work as a piece of discourse, involves correlating the meaning of a linguistic item as an element in the language code with the meaning it takes on in the context in which it occurs.

III. THE CONCEPT OF TEXTUAL COHESION

The concept or notion of cohesion simply refers to the relations or interdependence among linguistic elements in a text, for the ultimate realization of textual meaning. Osisanwo (2003) sees it as "… the linguistic means by which a text functions as a single unit" (p.31). According to Alo (1995), It is "… essential for showing relationships among different parts of an essay" (p.99). The aspect of meaning is very crucial in any organic relations of linguistic items for, the underlying function of such relations is to enhance the encoding and decoding process of meaning or textual message. Osisanwo (2003) explains that, "If the message is to be meaningful, the various parts or segments must be brought together to form a unified whole" (p.31). Halliday and Hasan (1976) corroborate this viewpoint inter alia:

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on another.

As we have indicated in the preceding section, textual cohesion is achieved through lexical and grammatical elements. This thesis explains Osisanwo's (2003) view that the concept "…accounts for how …tests are held together lexically and grammatically" (p31). Grammatical devices of cohesion include: substitution, ellipsis and reference; while lexical cohesion is achieved through collocation and reiteration. Conjunction, which is used to achieve conjunctive relations in a text, is on the "borderline" between lexical and grammatical cohesion.

IV. BRIEF BIO-DATA OF THE POET

Born December 6, 1933 in Kiagbodo in the Ijaw area of present-day Delta State of Nigeria, to Ijaw and Urhobo parents (His father was Ijaw and mother Urhobo), Johnson Pepper Clark-Bekederemo had his primary school at Okrika (1940-1948) and Jeremi (1948), before proceeding to Government College, Ughelli, for his secondary education (1948-1953). He attended the University of Ibadan between 1955 and 1960. At Ibadan, together with a handful of other writers, he played a prominent role in establishing Nigeria and the continent of Africa as one of the major centres of Literature in English in the twentieth century. Of his Ibadan years, Wren (1984) remarks that Clark-Bekederemo "showed the most precocious talent that West African literary history had yet seen." The poet has worked as an information officer, journalist, and University professor. Apart from his poetry, Clark-Bekederemo is also a frontline African dramatist and scholar. He has also written a novel (travelogue) *America, their America* (1964) , which is an account of his sojourn in America as a Parvin fellow at Princeton University (1962-63)

V. CONTEXTUAL ISSUES IN THE POETRY

That language and context are two inseparable phenomena is a fact that has been long standing and established (see Leech, 1983, p.13). Morley (1985) points out that, "context serves to itemize those aspects of the situation which have a bearing on the form used" (p.4). The critical point in that, context is an important aspect of language use. As we shall demonstrate in the analysis of the texts, the true meaning of a text can be thought of as a relationship between its linguistic elements and whatever contextual evidence is available for clarifying it. In J. P. Clark-Bekederemo's poetry, certain variables constitute the context of situation. These include: genre type, background experiences of the poet, socio-political realities, and subject-matter.

VI. TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

Following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) view that cohesion in texts is achieved through the following five lexical and grammatical devices viz: substitution, ellipsis, reference, conjunction and lexis, we shall examine cohesion in Clark-Bekederemo's poetry with three of these devices as our guide (i.e. ellipsis, reference, conjunction). We believe that the three aspects selected for exploration, would bring out the significant cohesive designs and patterns in the poems under study. We also need to establish that it is impossible to examine all the poems of a writer like Clark-Bekederemo, whose literary career has spanned over fifty (50) years (i.e. 1958- date), in a study of this nature. We shall, therefore, focus on representative poems from the following collections; *Poems* (1962), *Casualties* (1970), *State of the Union* (1985), *A Lot from Paradise* (1999), *Of Sleep And Old Age* (2003), and *Once Again a Child (2004)*. We believe that these poems would not only sufficiently exemplify the various cohesive devices, but would also help us to achieve a temporal balance between the writer's early and later poetry.
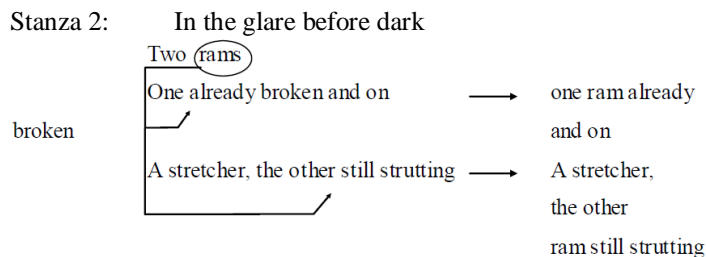
A. Elliptical Operation

Ellipsis refers to the omission of items in a sentence. The omitted item may have appeared before the omission or after it and may not be recoverable at all from the sentence. The first category of ellipsis can be referred to as cataphoric ellipsis while the second is anaphoric. The third category can be described as zero-ellipsis and can be referred to as exophoric ellipsis, for, the discourse analyst has to look beyond the sentence to recover the omitted item.

Asiyanbola (2005) identifies eight types of ellipsis that can occur in sentences: ellipsis of subject, ellipsis of subject and auxiliary, ellipsis of auxiliary only, ellipsis of predicate, ellipsis of the whole predication, ellipsis of subject and predicator and ellipsis of adverbials (p.174-175). Olaosun (2006), using the example of the design in commodity advertisement, points out that ellipsis serves the following purposes: to serve the grammatical purpose of indicating word omission and "as pragmatic indicator that there are more things to be written than are written" (p.78). He points out further that when the omitted item is not recoverable from the text, ellipsis serves to give a discourse or a text "some kind of interpretive elasticity". In what follows shortly, we shall consider elliptical practices in the poems under study.

This device is used in such poems as "A photograph in the Observer" *(Casualties)*, "Cave Call" *(A Decade of Tongues)*, etc. It is, however, more strategically used in "Benin Sacrifice" *(Casualties)*, which we analyze here to exemplify the textual role/ function of the device.

In "Benin Sacrifice", the strategy is copiously employed. Two types are noticed: ellipsis signaled by the graphological mark (…) and those not marked at all. Ellipses that are marked are basically zero type as no basic sentence element is missing from the texts in which they occur. This device is used in connecting what is said with what is not verbalized, indicating that the two are equipollent and thereby impress on the readers the question what else needs be said that has not been said. Ellipsis is used in the last line of five of the six-stanza poem. This makes them stand out

for interpretation. Unmarked ellipsis is noticed in the second and fourth stanzas of the poem reproduced and analyzed below:

Stanza 2:   In the glare before dark

Two (rams)

One already broken and on   ⟶   one ram already

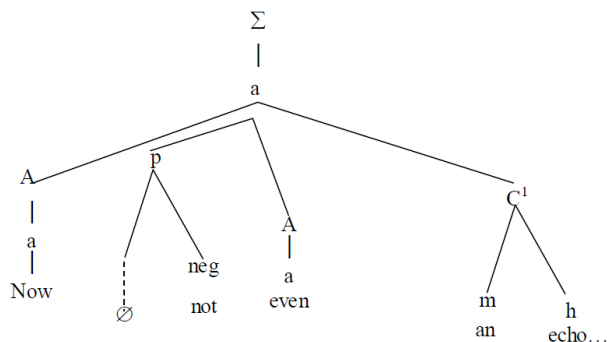broken   and on

A stretcher, the other still strutting   ⟶   A stretcher,

                                                                      the other

                                                                      ram still strutting

On his own steam…

Stanza 4:

(Rams)

They are strung upright.

One seems at a stand still   ⟹   of the rams

With the hour, the other   ⟹   the other rams(s)

Rippling as the crowd now

And many decades before…

In *Once Again A Child*, there is no instance of elliptical operation, especially the one indicated by elliptical dots. In *Of Sleep and Old Age*, there is only one instance found in "My Father's House". The whole poem is a one-sentence poem with no predicator. This type of ellipsis is known as verbal ellipsis or using the words of Asiyanbola (2005), ellipsis of predicator. There is also an instance of Zero ellipsis in the poem as in the expression "Now, not even an echo…" This expression, as could be noted, lacks both the subject and the predicate. This lack of essential elements relates to or amplifies the sense of loss and degeneration experienced by the household being described in the poem. It may be necessary to reveal the internal structure of this expression to show the points at which elements are omitted:

$$\Sigma$$

a

A   p   A   C¹

a   neg   a   m   h

Now   ∅   not   even   an   echo…

As indicated by the null symbol (o) in the tree diagram analysis above, the expression "there is" is lacking in the sentence. The zero ellipsis graphologically marked by the dots (…) is indicative of the mood of the poet (narrator). It is capable of producing several appeals in the poem. It can be indicative of the fact that the matter at stake is more than what words can express. It can also serve to express the disappointment felt by the narrator and infect readers with the seem emotion.

Also, in *A Lot From Paradise,* there is no instance of elliptical operation. We find it in seven poems in *Poems (1962):* "Ivbie or Oya (a song of wrong)", "His Excellency the Masquerader", "Boeing Crossing", "I Wake to the Touch", "Cave Call", "Benin Sacrifice" and "Easter 1976".

The rarity of ellipsis in all of these poems point to their unity. This unity also serves to reduce the heuristic tasks of readers. The point also relates to the simplicity and clarity of the poems. Based on these findings, it can be established here that the poems under study are characteristically simple and clear.

B. Reference

Inter-sentence connection or cohesion is also achieved in the poetry under study through reference. Generally, in texts of all kinds, inter-sentence connection through reference is expressed through pronouns (personal, interrogative, indefinite, etc), demonstratives, adverbs (locative and temporal). Pronoun is certainly the most basic of the English referential elements. It is the dominant feature of the poems under study. A few of the cases are presented and analyzed shortly. For clarity, the entire poems illustrating the feature are presented and the intra and inter-sentential linkages are shown by analytical string.

Progress (*State of the Union*)

The sandboats on the lagoon,
Will they make the last mile
Home by sunset? The wind,
Stalling in their sails,
Has traveled a thousand miles
Since they set out at dawn.

The Cleaners (*State of the Union*)

Look at the crew
Who after each
Take over a public place
To was it new
They are themselves so full
of dirt nobody can see
The bottom of the pool
For the mud they carry

And cast so freely at a few.

The analysis above clearly shows that the poems are highly unified because they foster adequate reference. This is very typical of almost all the poems in the three volumes chosen for this study, as revealed further in the following analysis of another poem drawn from *"Of Sleep and Old Age" (2003):*

Niger Delta Burning

The once evergreen trees
Now standing sear in the swamps
Lift their arms to the skies
They are filled with gas clouds and flares
And all the flotsam oil in the rivers
Brings home on the banks is fresh blight…

Going by the analysis of the three poems above, particularly because of the ways the various parts are properly linked, J. P. Clark-Bekederemo's poetry can be said to be written in clear style. However, we have few cases of pronominal that do not *foster adequate reference*, particularly in "Victoria Island Revisited" (*Poems)* The poem is reproduced below:

They say the sea is raging at the Bar
Beach of Lagos, knocking at the doors
Of homes built by contract finance
On public land for a few to collect
Millions. How has it harbored
For so long this structure with a bottom
So patently false and rotten
It can not but founder one day?
Next they will be drawing upon
The public purse to salvage the bulk.

In the poem above, J. P. Clark-Bekederemo does not furnish readers with an antecedent referent to the pronoun "they". Since pronouns ought to presuppose the existence of their referent, the use of "they" in the poem can be said to provide a deviant example. The referent of this pronoun is not clearly discernible except readers do some semantic calculation. A close study of the poem indicates that the referent of the pronoun is the government (federal, state or local) or people in positions of authority in the country. The expression "drawing upon the public purse" points to the referents that are not explicitly mentioned. The expression suggests authority and power, to draw upon public funds, and it is only people in government that have such powers and authority. As used in this poem, the pronoun irregularity

is a self-protectionist device, used by the poet in order not to incur the wrath of anybody in position of authority, for instance, considering the fact that the poem is an exposition of the negligence and deception of the Nigerian leaders.

Similarly in "An epidemic without a name" reproduced below, the pro-form "one" and pronoun "it" do not foster readers with adequate references":

Another one gone
It was never like this before
Not when there is no war
Or a dread disease widespread
What feast among the dead
Calls them home at such a run?
Fear beats the drum
Let them run who can
Fear beats the drum.

In the poem reproduced above, the following words are used in a way that is not in conformity with their convention of use: "one", "it", "this", "them", and "the drum". None of them has an antecedent or any referent. The poem is therefore structurally loose. However, the following words used in the poem provide clues to their referents: "war", "disease", "the dead", "call … home". All of them connect logically with the title, "An Epidemic Without a Name". By grammatical calculation, the pro-form "one" in the first line of the poem can be said to refer to the rate at which the unnamed epidemic claims the lives of people. The idea of homecoming at a run describes that sort of killing or death characteristic of the spread of an epidemic in an area. The "drum", as used in the poem, is a drum beaten by death and thus the reason why people must run. The second to the last line of the poem illustrates what Halliday and Hasan (1976) describe as "substitution by zero" (p.145). The verbal element "run" which is ellipted in that line is replaced with nothing. However, by looking backward in the poem, the word is recoverable.

The dominant demonstrative used in the "The Casualties" *(Casualties)*, for instance, is 'those'. It occurs six times in the poem. Its discourse function is to make reference to the casualties of the Nigerian civil war, which is the subject of this poem. This non-inclusive demonstrative, considered alone, can be said to serve in counting the poet out of the group of casualties of that war, but if considered in the context of "the casualties are not only", it points to the fact that there are other casualties. These other casualties are indicated by the personal pronoun "we", used in three places in the last part of the poem. The two combine in the poem to answer the question "who are the casualties?", which the title of the poem might impress on readers. They indicate that "we" and other people are the casualties of the Nigerian civil war. The poet defines clearly the other referents of the word "casualties" as the dead, wounded, prisoners, exiles, and those who lost persons and property. The vividness of the poem is further enhanced by the use of locative and temporal adverbs, which serve in relating the event in the poem to the past and present times. Generally, the basic function of the adverbial element is to make textual information specific and splendid. The locative adverbs "there" (1st stanza) and "outside" (2nd stanza), and temporal adverbs "by night" (stanza 2, line 1), "by installment" (stanza 1, line 4), serve this basic function in the poem.

Similarly, in *"Party Song" (Casualties),* the locative adverb "here" is repeated three times in the first stanza of the poem viz:

Here we mill drinking by midnight
Here we mill bobbling by fairylight
Here we mill glowing by dimlight

Other locative adverbs used in the poem are "away" in "A floor away" (line 1, stanza 2) and nominal adverbial i.e. "by night and day". All these contribute to specificity of information and narrative splendour in this poem.

C. Conjunction

Conjunctive elements also serve as elements of cohesion in the poetry under study. Functionally, conjunctive elements help to link clauses (i.e. both major and minor) in discourse. In J.P Clark-Bekederemo's poetry, the additive 'and', for instance, links harmonious natural order, while the contrastive 'but' brings together contradictory or negative phenomena i.e. conflict in human relations. For exemplification or illustration, the cases of this device found in "New Year" *(A Decade of Tongues)* and "The Reign of the Crocodile" *(Casualties)*, for instance, are strategic.

In "New Year", Bekederemo uses the additive conjunct "and" in the third line of each of the first and second stanzas of the poem. This device is used in connecting the idea of the natural flow of time into time and in presenting a harmonious picture. In the third and last stanzas the adversative "but" is used to contrast the harmonious metaphors in the first and second stanzas. The harmonious natural order suggested by the imagery of the continuously flowing water is negated by "artificial" walls which men create amongst themselves (see "self-split selves" in the last line of the second stanza).

Similarly, in the "The Reign of the Crocodile", the additive conjunct is copiously used. Four occurrences of this cohesive device are noticed in the poem but only one of them actually connects related ideas. Their use negates the general notion that the additive conjunct "and" should be used in connecting items of equal status. In the context of this poem, the additive "and" is used to model the narrative formula in traditional folktales from which the subject of the poem is derived. The only "normal" additive conjunct in the poem is the tenth line of the first stanza:

He punted upon his tail,

And like the whirlpool of Gangana,

Swallowed his own head

If the interrupting clause is removed or deleted from the excerpt above, the pattern we would have is:

He punted upon his tail

And swallowed his own head

If this pattern is compared with the ones in the second stanza of the poem, the two instances of the use of conjunct described above will become clear:

And so for six months a mighty river

Silted in the mouth

Lacking distributaries,

For six months field upon banks

Crackled to the sky,

Lacking distributaries

And in caves flooded by them

Tied feet and tongue at the pleasure of the leopard

And the lous palms peeled at palms.

VII. CONCLUSION

In the foregoing discourse, we have shown that J. P. Clark-Bekederemo's poetry under study, reflects significant aspects of textual cohesion. We have shown how the poet links various words and linguistic patterns in his poems to achieve connectedness of meaning. Specifically, we have shown that linguistic devices such as ellipsis, reference, and conjunction, have text-binding value i.e. they can function as agents of cohesion in a text. This confirms our earlier position that poetry is discourse, in the sense that it shows "… how different parts of the text are interwoven to achieve desired results" (Alo, 1998, p.131).

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Ebi Yeibo was born in Bomadi, Delta State, Nigeria, on February 24, 1969. He obtained degrees in English from the Delta State University, Abraka (1996) and the University of Ibadan (2000), Nigeria, specializing in discourse analysis and stylistics.

He teaches stylistics, discourse analysis, applied linguistics, semantics and history of the English language at the Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria, and has published scholarly papers on these areas in local and international journals. An award-winning poet, his published volumes of poetry include: *Maiden Lines* (Ibadan: Akol Press, 1997), *A Song for Tomorrow* (Ibadan: Kraftbooks Ltd, 2003), and *The Forbidden Tongue* (Ibadan: Kraftbooks Ltd, 2007).

Mr. Yeibo is a member of various professional and learned associations in Nigeria: Association of Nigerian Authors (ANA), Linguistic Association of Nigeria (LAN), and Nigerian Institute of Public Relations (NIPR).

The Ecology of First Language Acquisition Nativism and Empiricism: An Appraisal and a Compromise

Ali Asghar Kargar

English Department, Islamic Azad University, Abadeh Branch, Iran

Email: Kargar928@Gmail.com

Abstract—**Contrary to the common belief that nativism and empiricism are two distinct theories of first language acquisition, both have some contribution to our understanding of the process of language acquisition; however, Neither of them is able to provide testable accounts of the details of language acquisition. As a result, Emergentism is proposed as an alternative with a wider scope to cover more of the realities about language acquisition. According to this paradigm, "formal structures of language emerge from the interaction of social patterns, patterns implicit in the input, and pressures arising from the biology of the cognitive system" (MacWhiney, 1998, P. 200). In this paper, it is attempted to match the picture of the first language acquisition with the metaphor of "the ecology of language" proposed by Brown (2000) for second language acquisition. The picture shows that genetic, physiological, cognitive, developmental and environmental factors before and after birth are at work, and language acquisition, in fact, is the consequence of interactions among all these factors.**

Index Terms—**first language acquisition, empiricism, nativism, emergentism**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language acquisition is one of the most intriguing aspects of human development. It seems that it is a tremendous task to find an answer to the question of how a language is acquired. How do children accomplish language acquisition? What pushes them to go on developing complex grammatical languages? What factors inside and outside the child help this remarkable development happen? One of the most critical theoretical issues is whether the knowledge the child acquires is innately specified or is learned through environmental interaction (Tartter, 1998). The first view is held by the nativists, while the second one refers to the empricists'. Nativists believe that children are born with an innate predisposition to acquire language without which language acquisition would be unfeasible. Empricists, on the other hand, assign the crucial role to environmental input. In most cases, the two theories are perceived as two opposite views about the same phenomenon, though both have some contribution to uncovering the mysteries of language acquisition. To make a compromise between these two broad theories of FLA, the researcher has borrowed the idea of "the ecology of language acquisition" (fig.1) from Brown (2000, P.295). He uses the idea to elaborate on how different factors, innate and environmental, are involved in second language acquisition. He extends a "seed-flower" metaphor to the language acquisition. He says that language acquisition develops like "a flower seed whose genetic makeup predisposes it to deliver, in successive stages, roots, stem, branches, leaves and flowers"; simultaneously, "the rain clouds of input stimulate seeds of predisposition" (P. 294). Hence, if FLA is a natural phenomenon, using a metaphor from the nature may help reveal the relative value of the host of factors contributing to the acquisition of language, although the amount of correspondence remains controversial. To accomplish this, first the idea will be presented in pictorial form (fig. 2); then nativists' as well as four empricists' theories including statistical learning, chunking, social interactionism and relational frame theories will be matched with different parts of the picture. Finally, emergentism will be presented as a compromise between nativism and empiricism.
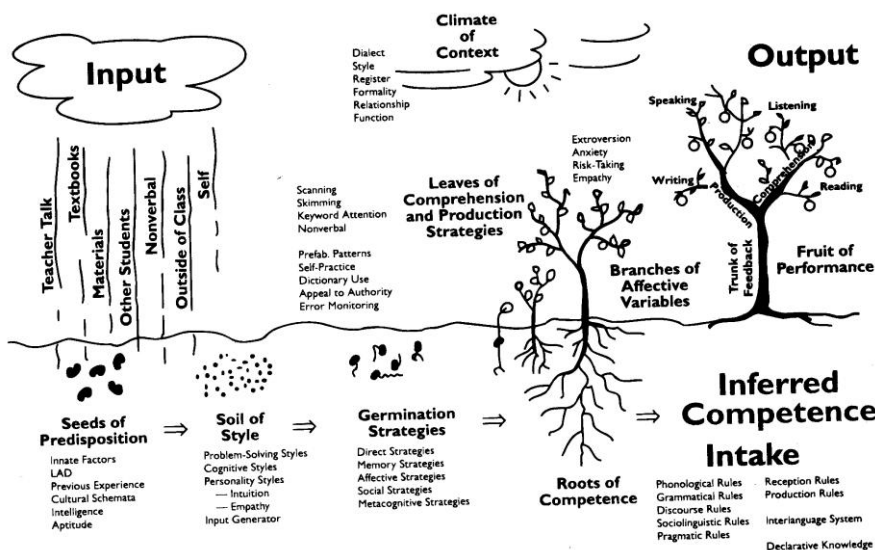
Figure1. Ecology of second language acquisition (Brown, 2000)
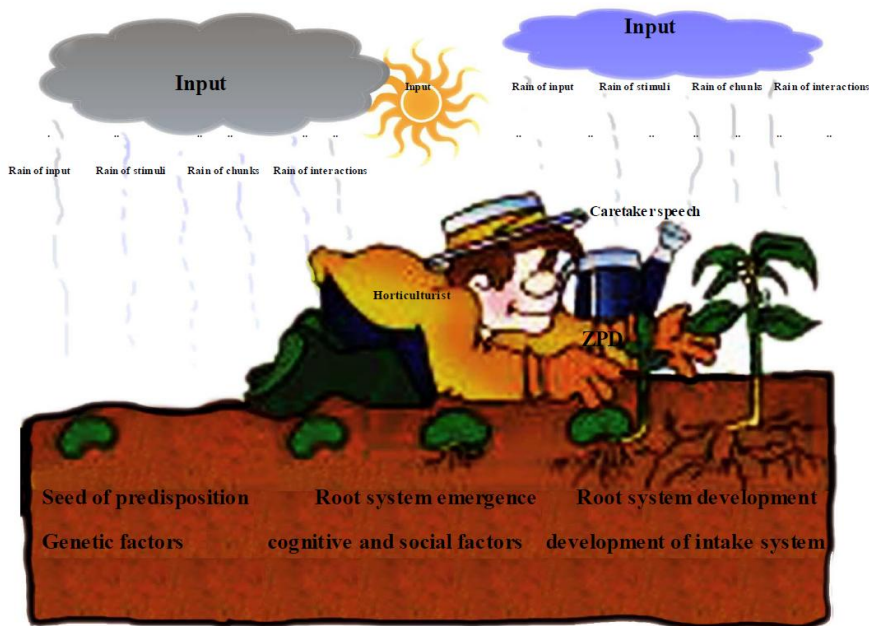
The Ecology of FLA

Figure2. The ecology of first language acquisition: language emergence and development are the result of innate and environmental factors.

II. NATIVIST'S VIEW

Nativists believe that language is a part of human genome, and "language acquisition is innately determined" (Brown, 2000, P.24). Chomsky asserts that from a Martian's eye-view all humans speak a single language, implying that the same symbol-manipulating machinery underlies the human languages. In Chomsky's words;

'The facts are known without experience, and they need not be taught to a person learning Spanish or English…. . Evidently, the facts come to be known on the basis of biological endowment that is prior to any experience and that enters into determining the meaning of words with remarkable precision and surely not in any way that is logically necessary.' (Chomsky, 1980, p. 28)

Chomsky believed that the child is exposed to a language in the environment full of confusing information such as false starts, incomplete sentences or slips of tongue, so it cannot provide all the information which the child needs (Lightbown & Spada, 2000). The idea was discussed by innatists as the "poverty of stimulus". They concluded that children are by no means systematically connected or instructed on language. They claim that not only are parents inconsistent in their correction, but also they do not correct some of the children's errors. Moreover, even if they correct errors, children often ignore the corrections, continue to use their own ways of saying things. Chomsky (1969 cited in

Brown, 2000) proposes that children are able to learn language because they are equipped with a language acquisition device (LAD). Only small language samples from the environment serve as a "trigger" to activate the device. When it is activated, the child is able to discover the structure of the language by matching the innate knowledge to the structure of the particular language in the environment.

Following Chomsky, White (1989) argued that without Universal Grammar, it would not be possible for a child to acquire language. The child needs to be constrained from incorrect hypotheses, but these constraints are not provided by the input data. They must be part of the child's biologically determined endowment. This supposition is nurtured by the idea that the language the child is exposed to is disorganized, ungrammatical and confusing. Furthermore, Chomsky (1969) argued that it would be a simplistic view to think of children as coming to language with a blank mind and then being conditioned to it through parental and social approval. Rather, there must be a very considerable innate disposition to language.

Chomsky argues his inateness hypothesis on basically three accounts: firstly, the existence of language universals. It is argued that the similarity in languages cannot possibly be due to anything other than a specific cognitive capacity in man. The universals of language to which Chomsky refers to are of two types: formal universals referring to the way language works and substantive universals, the categories which language uses.

The second count on which Chomsky argues his innateness hypothesis is the fact of language learning. He argues that the adult speech which a child hears around him is so poorly structured and impaired in performance (by hesitation, repetition, false start and so on) that he could not possibly learn language unless he brought to the task a very specific capacity. In particular, a child must be pre-tuned to some of the formal universals by which language operates. The learning theory states that events in the child's environment shape language behavior. The verbal behavior, like any other behavior, is acquired and maintained by the consequences it generates .The environment clearly plays a role in language acquisition. When talking to young children, parents and other adults use a kind of language that is dubbed as child directed speech (motherese). Characteristics of motherese include higher pitched voice, greater pitch variations, slower rate of speech, shorter, simpler sentences, simple and concrete words, clearer articulation, repetitive speech, and exaggerated facial expression. Language development requires social interaction and a nurturing environment. However, beyond motherese, children seldom receive consistent modeling of and reinforcement for their language behavior. Young children typically encounter fragmented and incomplete utterances and a variety of reactions (annoyance, approval, rejection, ignoring, etc.) to their utterance. Studies show that children are reinforced for truth-value of their utterances and not for grammatical accuracy, yet children master grammar. Ironically, children grow up to speak grammatically but not always truthfully!

The existence of the mother-to-child code which appears simpler than adult-adult speech is often considered evidence for the influence of environmental variation on children's language acquisition (Feldman & Shen, 1971). A conclusion to be drawn is that while the motherese evidence is suggestive, it does not demonstrate environmental effects on language acquisition.

The third count of Chomsky's argument concerns the speed of acquisition of language. Language could not be learnt with the speed it is unless the child were programmed to do so. The amazing speed with which children acquire their first language is said to substantiate an innate ability in them to learn language. In Chomsky's (1988, P.28) words;

"The child, equipped with the endowed innate language faculty, observes people around them using the language, the set of expressions in the language which the child hears- and the contexts in which they are used- in the course of acquiring language constitute the child's linguistic experience of the language. This experience serves as input to the Child's language faculty."

Furthermore, Lenneberg (1967) proposes that language is "species specific" behavior, and its mechanisms are biologically determined. In other words, the fact that only human beings are able to develop language can obviously be attributable to language genes operating in all humans as the result of evolution (Rutter, 2006). According to Lenneberg (1967), the appearance of language primarily depends on the maturational development of states of readiness within the child. Correspondingly, all children learn language in spite of environmental differences and in some cases deprivations. In other words, poor language environment does not prevent child language acquisition.

Some nativist theoreticians even go that far to hold language as a human instinct (Pinker, 1994). In their view, language is considered a distinct piece of the biological makeup of the brain. It grows on humans as an organ like ear grows on the head. Rutter (2006) referring to the studies on some specific developmental disorders of language called Specific Language Impairment (SLI) (e.g. Viding et al.'s 2004) concludes that such disorders (SLI) have substantial heritability. SLI symptom is marked delay in language comprehension, production and social communicative aspects of language development in children with normal physical and psychological development.

In line with nativists' expectations, Anthony Monaco of the University of Oxford, England, leading a genetic aspect of a study, found that a gene called FOXP2, located on chromosome 7 is associated with language (Trivedi, 2001). They found that a family identified as "KE" family, were unable to select and produce the fine movements with tongue and lips necessary to speak clearly. Moreover, members of the family had dyslexic tendencies as well as difficulty processing sentences and poor spelling and grammar.

In the metaphor of the flower seed, the role genes play is to determine the emergence of different parts of the plant. The genetic predisposition cannot be seen directly, but it has the crucial role in the growth of the flower. It controls the

development of different parts of the plant. Brown (2000), in his illustration of "the ecology of language" for SLA refers to the seeds of predisposition consisting of "innate factors, LAD, previous experience, cultural schemata, intelligence, and aptitude" (p.295). However, in our illustration for FLA, the flower seed refers to the idea proposed by nativists that language is first "species specific" possessed only by humans, and the fact that language development starts by biological impetus led by language genes, though they have not been fully identified yet. Without language genes or the seed of language no growth is possible. This is what Chomsky calls LAD or UG; however, due to the abstractness of his ideas, while genes are objectively and scientifically proven, it is very difficult to relate them together.

III. EMPIRICISTS' VIEW

While nativists try to find what happens under the ground before and at the time of the growing of the language, empiricists look above the ground to see how it blossoms. Relational Frame theory is a good example. It has been developed largely through the efforts of Steven C. Hayes and Dermot Barnes-Holmes and currently being tested in about three dozen laboratories around the world. Its focus is on how humans learn language through interactions with the environment (Hayes, Barnes-Holmes & Roche, 2000).The theory rejects the nativists' view as:

"We don't need the idea of a language device any more than we need a "walk device," a "watch TV device," or a "play it off and try to look cool when you stumble because you really *meant* to do that device." (Blackledge, 2003, P.425)

Consequently, RFT like behaviorism focuses on language experience and its value in process of language acquisition, although unlike behaviorism it distinguishes human being from other creatures for his extraordinary cognitive ability to distinguish and create relations, as key concepts in RFT, among stimuli (Blackledge, 2003). In other words, humans are able to respond to relations among stimuli as well as responding to each stimulus separately. As the theory suggests, language acquisition is the result of the interaction between stimuli and the organism. Matching the idea and our illustration, we can say that the plant of language grows as result of absorbing water and other minerals by its roots. The root system is able to distinguish and absorb input and send it to other parts of the plant. According to such theories, abundant input like spring rain makes the flower seed grow and blossom.

Another theory which emphasizes the crucial role of input is statistical learning theory. According to the theory, infants are able to detect phonetic distributions using statistical information of input (Peperkamp, Le Calvez, Nadal & Dupoux, 2006). Based on the frequency and order of occurrence of certain sounds and syllabi in the language being exposed to, infants are able to form hypotheses about the phonology of the language. The same mechanism can be used to track grammatical structures (Endress & Mehler, 2009; Johnson & Riezler, 2002). Although this theory like RFT considers human cognition as the center of processing input, they both see input itself as the crucial factor for the growth. RFT calls it stimuli, where as in statistical learning theory, infants use the statistical information of input to acquire the language. Applying it to the illustration we depicted, we can conclude that it can also magnify the way root system distinguishes and absorbs water and minerals for the plant to grow.

According to their definition in Wikipedia Encyclopedia, chunking theories also assume that the input from the environment plays an essential role. They are based on the idea that language development is the result of "incremental acquisition of chunks" of language including phonemes, syllables, words and sentences. Clark (1974) argues that "routines or chunks do evolve into patterns which in turn become creative language… child's speech becomes creative through the gradual analysis of the internal structure of sequences which begin as prepackaged routines" (p. 9). In this paradigm, even meaningless pattern practice may provide some input for the creative construction to process. Similarly, acquiring lexical phrases is easy, since they are highly frequent chunks that can be associated with their contexts (Huang & Hatch, 1978). Finally, chunks lead to a degree of automaticity to take over in both comprehension and production. Like other empiricist theories, chunking theories can be pasted to our picture. It also emphasizes the role of the rain of input. Rain of language chunks can be considered as a main factor in growing the flower of language. The root system functions as the processor of the chunks of water, minerals and other nutrients.

The next empiricist theory which seems to have something new to add to our picture is social interactionism first proposed by Lev Vigotsky. Interactionists attribute more importance to the environment (Lightbown &Spada, 2000). They emphasize the role of the child directed speech which is adjusted in ways that make it easier for them to understand the language. It is believed that children develop their language through interaction and conversation with adults and other children. Van Der Veer (1986 cited in Ghassemzadh, 2005) distinguishes the child's environment from the animal environment in that "human environment is a social environment, that the child is part of a living environment". Many researchers have studied child-directed speech, the language which adults use with their children. It is believed that the language adults use when talking with children is a modified language with certain characteristics. Lightbown and Spada (2000) state that in English the language adults use when talking with children involves "a slower rate of delivery, higher pitch, more varied intonation, shorter, simpler sentence patterns, frequent repetition, and paraphrase" (p.24). In addition, topics of conversations are usually limited to the "child's immediate environment" or what the child is aware of. According to Lightbown and Spada (2000), what is important to children is the interaction they have with more proficient speakers intuitively adjusting the language to their level of understanding rather than mere simplification or modification.

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is considered Vygotsky's "most important psychological methodological discovery" (Newman and Holzman, 2005, P.52). Vygotsky (1987 cited in Newman and Holzman, 2005, P.53) defines it as,

The state of development is never defined only by what has matured. If the gardener decides only to evaluate the mature or harvested fruits of the apple tree, he cannot determine the state of his orchard. Maturing trees must also be taken into consideration. The psychologist must not limit his analysis to functions that have matured. He must consider those that are in the process of maturing. If he is to fully evaluate the state of the child's development, the psychologist must consider not only the actual level of development but *the zone of proximal development*.

The central point in the definition as Newman and Holzman (2005) pointed is the "relationship between 'matured' and 'maturing' processes. In fact, it refers to what the child can do independently and in collaboration with others. A child can accomplish more with collaboration, help or support than he can alone. However, Vygostsky believes that the child's potential is not unlimited even if he is helped (Newman & Holzman, 2005, P.54). As a good example for this, they refer to the idea of child's imitation,

For example, the view that imitation is a purely mechanical process and that therefore the child is capable of imitating virtually anything was, according to Vygotsky, incorrect. The child—and the rest of us, for that matter—can only imitate what is in the range of our developmental level (the ZPD): 'If I am not able to play chess, I will not be able to play a match even if a chess master shows me how'. Studies of early language acquisition conducted in the 1970s gave further empirical weight to Vygotsky's argument. It was found that individual children not only vary in the amount they imitate the language they hear, but they are selective in what they imitate, i.e. children do not imitate what they know well nor what is far beyond their linguistic level.

Vygotsky (1982 cited in Daniels, 2003, P.48) explains the zone of proximal development as follows,

The child is able to copy a series of actions which surpass his or her own capacities, but only within limits. By means of copying, the child is able to perform much better when together with and guided by adults than when left alone, and can do so with understanding and independently. The difference between the level of solved tasks that can be performed with adult guidance and help and the level of independently solved tasks is the zone of proximal development.

Lantolf (2000) reminds us that "the ZPD is not a physical place situated in time and space; rather it is a metaphor for observing and understanding how meditational means are appropriated and internalized"(P. 16). According to this author, what someone can achieve with support from others and/or cultural artifacts is different from what he/she can achieve when acting alone. However, it is not the matter of simple copying of the behavior rather the children "transform what the experts offer them as they appropriate it". The key to this transformation is "imitation, which along with collaboration in the ZPD" is the cause of human development (Lantolf, 2000, P.18). Here imitation is considered more complex than pure copying, and it is believed to involve communicative activities. The following conversation is a good example for the effectiveness of imitation in ZPD framework:

Child: (opening cover of a tape recorder) open, open, open
Adult: Did you open it?
Child: (watching tape recorder) open it
Adult: Did you open the tape recorder?
Child: (watching tape recorder) tape recorder
(Newman and Holzman 1993, cited in Lantolf, 2000, P.18)

As the result of the imitation of adult's utterances, the child has been able to produce something new (open → open it → tape recorder). Based on the concept of ZPD, development occurs only if the child needs an optimum level of help; when the task is not too difficult or too easy for the child to do (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

On the other hand, according to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) having the same actual level of development does not guarantee the same potential level of development. It means two children may have different levels of potential level of development and consequently a different rate of development based on how well they respond to the help provided by others.

In our metaphor, social interactionism adds the role of horticulturist as a person who waters with sprinkler, adds fertilizers, cuts the extra branches and helps the plant grow. This type of input really works in agriculture, and so does in language acquisition.

IV. MERGING THE THEORIES

The metaphor used to depict language acquisition proved that neither nativism nor empiricism can present a complete picture of the process. The comprehensive picture can only be achieved from merging all the theories. Each theory only reveals the partial fact about language acquisition. Merging the theories of both sides can show the overall picture. Both nativistm and empiricism have some contributions in revealing the mysteries of language acquisition. Meanwhile, both have the pitfall of exaggerating the effect of either genetic or environmental factors.

Emergentism, as MacWhinney (2002) proposes, allows us to consider "new ways of dealing with age-old confrontation between nativism and empiricism" (p.4). He puts that,

Emergentism does not imply a radical rejection of either nativism or empiricism. On the contrary, emergentism views nativist and empiricist formulations as the partial and preliminary components of a more complete account. The

traditional contrast betweennativism and empiricism revolves around the fact that they describe developmental processes that operate across different timeframes.

He adds that everything in human development is the result of "some unspecified interaction between nature and nurture" (P.4). In other words, Emergentism tries to remove the opposition by proposing that language acquisition is the result of an interaction between biological and environmental factors. It seems that it fits our metaphor and can explain the illustration more comprehensively.

MacWhiney (2002) asserts that there are many examples for emergence in the nature. One example is the outline of the beaches resulting from the interactions between geology and ocean current. Another example is weather patterns like Jet Stream or EL Nino emerging from the interaction of factors like the rotation of the earth, solar radiation, and the shape of the ocean bodies. He says that biological phenomena have similar patterns. The shapes of the spots on a leopard or the stripes on a tiger are other good examples (Murray, 1988 cited in MacWhinney, 2002). They emerge due to operating color related genes across the developing leopard or tiger embryo. Contrary to the nativists' belief, no single gene directly controls the pattern. Instead, they emerge from the interactions of the genes on the physical surface of the embryo. Correspondingly, the emergence of the language is the result of interaction of the host of genetic and environmental factors. It is too simplistic to think that there is only one single gene responsible for language. Our naturalistic metaphor can also depict how all these factors including genetic and environmental interact to grow the flower seed of language. In fact, emergentism can best explain the metaphor of "the ecology of FLA".

Bates and MacWhinney (1988) say that language is a "new machine built out of old parts" (p. 147). It refers to the fact that old theories are not descriptively adequate to show complete picture of language acquisition. They say that old parts include features like physiology and perception, processing and working memory, pragmatic and social interaction, input and the learning mechanisms.

Emergentism is similar to nativism in that both believe that the brain is innately structured and that there are some language related genes. However, it opposes "representational nativism" meaning there are direct innate grammatical principles and parameters as proposed by UG (Elman et al. 1996, P.369). In addition, it rejects that there are specific language or grammar genes. Considering the case of KE family and FOXP2, they assert that the family members also had problems with swallowing, finger tapping, mouth control and other fine actions. This pattern of impairment, as Pinker (1991) concluded, showed that FOXP2 is neither the "gene of language" nor "the gene of grammar".

Contemporary emergentism also makes use of the empiricists' frameworks to explain linguistic development. They believe that there are learning mechanisms like inductive generalizations that help extract statistical regularities from experience in forms of associations and memorized chunks (Ellis, 2002), or computational routines (O'Grady, 2005). Emergentism rejects the idea of "poverty of stimulus" proposed by Chomsky and asserts that input is crucial especially for the acquisition of vocabulary (Tomasello, 1986).

However, emergentism does not reject nativism and empiricism completely and tries to make a compromise between their formulations as the partial components of a more complete paradigm. According to MacWhinney (2005), the traditional contrast between nativism and empiricism originates from description of developmental processes that operate across different timeframes. He distinguishes seven separate timeframes for emergent processes and structures:

1) Evolutionary or Phylogenetic Emergence: These emergent structures are those that are encoded in the genes affected by natural selection.

2) Epigenetic Emergence: It refers to the translation of the DNA in the embryo, triggering a further set of processes from which the initial shape of the organism emerges.

3) Developmental Emergence: It consists of the basic learning process that involves the continual learning of new facts, forms, relations, names and procedures as well as learning of new strategies and frameworks that can alter the overall shape of language and cognition, often through cue focusing.

4) Online or Processing Emergence: It indicates how language structure emerges from the pressures and loads imposed by online processing including social processes, memory mechanisms, attentional focusing, and motor control.

5) Diachronic Emergence: It shows the changes that languages have undergone across the centuries, emerging from the interaction of the previous three levels of emergence (evolutionary, developmental, and online).

6) Social Emergence: As the result of long-term social commitments, we learn to choose appropriate vocabulary, slang, topics to emphasize solidarity, impose our power, or seek favors.

7) Interactional Emergence: It refers to short-term commitments to ongoing social interactions.

Each timeframe explains how language acquisition might be affected by the nature or the environment. In other words, it suggests that the process can be more under the influence of one factor regarding the time of its emergence. In first and second timeframes, language acquisition is more governed by the nature, but in later timeframes its role is gradually blurred, and in sixth and seventh timeframes seems to reach it minimum level.

To sum up, language acquisition is a natural phenomenon, and like other natural phenomena is affected by lots of factors including natural and environmental ones. Ecology of first language acquisition can be used to cover both types of factors. To understand what factors are involved in the process of language acquisition, both under and above the surface of the ground should be investigated. Before the flower seed starts to grow, genetic and innate factors determine the route of the growth. In line with emergentism, even genetic domain of language acquisition should be subject to scientific investigation. Clouds of input, experience, parents' talk and interactions then stimulate the growth. This is

highlighted in timeframes proposed in emergentism as well as interactionists' findings. Roots and leaves of cognitive ability have the ability to absorb and process and use water, minerals and other nutrients. As the root system extends, the plant takes more and grows faster than before. Interaction among internal and external factors increases, and the plant grows more and more. The sixth and the seventh timeframes pinpoints the effects of social interactions. The overall growth of the plant is the result of interaction among genetic endowment, different types of input and absorbing system. Finally, it begins to blossom and flower. Full growth is possible only if the plant is protected, watered and pruned by a skilled horticulturist.

V. CONCLUSION

Neither nativism nor empiricism is able to provide testable accounts of the details of language acquisition; however, both of them shed some light to our understanding of its process. Emergentism, as a result, was devised as an alternative with wider scope to cover more of the realities about language acquisition. At the same time, it rejects the empricists' negligence of genetic factors as well nativists' approach to make vague stipulations about hidden part of language acquisition. According to this newer paradigm, "formal structures of language emerge from the interaction of social patterns, patterns implicit in the input, and pressures arising from the biology of the cognitive system" (MacWhiney, 1998, P. 200). In this paper, it was attempted to match the picture of the first language acquisition with the metaphor of "the ecology of language" proposed by Brown (2000) for second language acquisition. The picture shows that genetic, physiological, cognitive, developmental and environmental factors before and after birth are at work, and language acquisition, in fact, is the consequence of interactions among all these factors.

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Ali Asghar Kargar is a PHD student in TEFL at Shiraz University, Iran. He has been a lecturer in the Department of English at Islamic Azad University, Abadeh branch. He has been teaching different courses in TEFL and English Translation for 10 years. His research interest includes teaching and testing language skills especially reading and writing as well as teaching methodology. He has also published a book in essay writing entitled "easy essay".

On the Cognitive Style of Field (In)dependence as a Predicator of L2 Learners' Performance in Recognition and Text-based Tests of Metaphor

Mahmood Hashemian
English Department, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran
Email: m72h@hotmail.com

Ali Roohani
English Department, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran
Email: roohani.ali@gmail.com

Batool Fadaei
English Department, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran
Email: b.fadaei125@gmail.com

Abstract—Not only being a linguistic device to add color to texts, metaphor is an important feature of our thinking and education (Jensen, 2006). In the same line, Kövecses (2002) believes in the important role of metaphor in human thought, understanding, and making our social, cultural, and psychological reality. Yet on a closer look, L2 pedagogy has piqued L2 educators' interest in understanding of L2 learner differences. One is the attempt to match the kind of instructional activities to L2 learners' preferred styles. This study is an attempt to investigate the role of cognitive style of field (in) dependence (FI/FD) on L2 learners' performance in recognition, text-based true-false, and text-based scriptally implicit tests of metaphor. For the purpose of this study, 80 senior undergraduate university students majoring in English Translation were selected from among 110 students through a 50-item Nelson English Language Proficiency Test adopted from Fowler and Norman Coe (1978) with reasonable measures of validity and reliability. Then, the cognitive style of FI/FD and metaphorical performance were assessed, respectively. As for the former, GEFT developed by Witkin, Raskin, Oltman, and Karp (1971) was run. Regarding the latter, refined through conducting factor analysis, the tests of metaphor were run. After running a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), the data revealed a significant difference between the cognitive style of FI/FD on all kinds of metaphor tests. The study could have some implications for L2 research and pedagogy that will be discussed throughout the paper.

Index Terms—conceptual metaphor, cognitive style of filed (in) dependence, recognition, text-based true-false, and scriptally implicit tests of metaphor, conceptual mapping, conceptual blending

I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor has long played an important role in an L2 as an omnipresent phenomenon not only in everyday speech but also in human thinking (Kövecses, 2002). In light of this fact, the use of metaphor is so widespread that an understanding of these invaluable expressions is essential to successful communication, whether in listening, speaking, reading, or writing. In addition, upon reading a written discourse, the potential readers may be amazed by the great abundance of metaphorical uses of language.

As Jensen (2006) explains, metaphors have filled our language, literature, and art. However, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) go far beyond this and contend that "metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action" (p. 4). Unlike this ubiquitous role of metaphor in thought and language, which assigns a main role to the contemporary view of metaphor, Aristotle, who believes in the classical view of metaphor deems metaphor as an ornamental tool suitable for poetry and as a useless device for scientific discourse. But Kövecses (2002, p. 199) takes this idea way more steps forward and regarding the classical view of metaphor is against the view that metaphors are "consisted of two or more words and that the overall meaning of these words cannot be predicted from the meaning of constituent words."

To put it plainly, Kövecses (2002) argues that metaphor is not an expression that has a special meaning in relation to the meanings of its constituting parts, but "it arises from our more general knowledge of the world embodied in our conceptual system" (p. 201). All the same, within the framework of L2 research, the empirical works from cognitive science (e.g., Gibbs, 1994; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Turner, 1996) show that metaphor is not a sheer linguistic or rhetorical figure, but is a fundamental part of people's ordinary thought.

Kövecses (2002) defines metaphor as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain called conceptual metaphor (p. 4). Thus, it is possible to talk about *life* in terms of *journeys, arguments* in terms of *war, love* also in terms of *journeys*, *theories* in terms of *buildings, ideas* in terms of *food,* and *social organizations* in terms of *plants.* Technically speaking, every conceptual metaphor "consists of two conceptual domains, in which one domain is understood in terms of another" (Kövecses, 2002, p. 4). The source domain is a more concrete or physical concept that helps us draw metaphorical expressions and understand another conceptual concept. The target domain is a more abstract concept that is understood. Thus, *argument, love, idea,* and *social organizations* are all target domains, and *war, journey, food,* and *plant* are source domains, respectively.

Recognizing the source of metaphor in literature and art is an idea among lay people. Lay people think that creating metaphor is the work of poets and artists. These ideas are believed in classical view of metaphor, but they are only partially true from the cognitive linguistics point of view. Nevertheless, by introducing the contemporary view of metaphor developed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in their book *Metaphors We Live By*, the ideas changed dramatically. In fact, metaphors are a matter of thought in the contemporary view. Contrary to the classical view, metaphors are not just poetic expressions but apply to much of the ordinary everyday language.

At any rate, it is a truism that L2 teaching has changed as a result of curricula and teaching methods to meet the changing needs of L2 learners. Therefore, investigating the factors influencing L2 test scores has long been focused in different scientific inquiries (e.g., Alderson, 1991; Anivan, 1991; Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006, 2009). Upon these attempts, different factors have been identified. Individual L2 learner differences are one such category influencing the performance of L2 test-takers.

An awareness of individual differences in L2 learning will make L2 educators and program designers, in all probability, more sensitive to the roles of these differences in L2 teaching (Kang, 1999). One of the highly fruitful and important dimensions of the individual L2 learner differences is L2 test-takers' cognitive styles.

In the case of the cognitive style, one such area that has received attention from L2 researchers (Altun & Cakan, 2006; Daniels, 1996; Ford & Chen, 2001) is the cognitive style of filed (in)dependence (FI/FD) having possibly the widest application to the educational concerns. According to Brown (2000), FD learners pay attention to the whole of a learning task containing many items and rely on the surrounding field. On the contrary, FI individuals pay attention to particular items and perceive objects as separate from the field. In a nutshell, as it is evident from Ford and Chen□s (2001) assertion, FD L2 learners concentrate first on making an overall picture of the subject area, and then, consider the details.

It is worth mentioning that reviewing the miscellaneous research studies (e.g., Amanzio, Geminiani, Leotta, & Cappa 2007; Blasko, 1999; Charteris-Black, 2000; Charteris-Black & Ennis, 2001; Delfino & Manca, 2007; Kövecses & Szabo′, 1996; Leavy, McSorley, & Bote′, 2007; White, 2003) conducted in the field of metaphor revealed the pervasive use of metaphor in different domains. Metaphor comprehension has also been a matter of enquiry in neuropsychology since the late 1970s. In this regard, Blasko (1999, cited in Chiappe & Chiappe, 2007, p. 174) found a link between working memory capacity and metaphor comprehension. By studying 163 male and female individuals, Blasko found that high working memory individuals produced deeper interpretations of metaphors. This study jumped on the bandwagon of Chiappe and Chiappe (2007) who believed in effectiveness of working memory capacity as an important factor in metaphor processing based on the fact that high working memory capacity individuals could make better interpretations of metaphors.

In their study of L2 learners' explanations of conceptual metaphor and cognitive style variables, Boers and Littlemore (2000), through using the Riding□s (1991) computer-assisted test of the cognitive styles, asked a group of 71 students of business and economics in the University of Brussels to explain three conceptual metaphors. Then, Boers and Littlemore classified the participants' cognitive styles into *analytic* or *holistic* and *imager* or *verbalizer.* The results revealed that the holistic thinkers tended to blend their conception of the target domain with the source domain and the imagers were more likely to refer to images to explain the metaphors.

Concerning the correlation between L2 learners' cognitive style and choice of metaphor, Palmquist (2001) hypothesized that understanding and choice of metaphors would be dependent on L2 learners' cognitive style. In order to test this hypothesis, Palmquist investigated which metaphors were preferred by L2 learners, and then, measured their cognitive styles. Palmquist gave a list of metaphors to L2 learners, asked them to choose their favorite metaphor, and then, to explain the reason for choosing that metaphor. Then, by using GEFT, the L2 learners' cognitive styles were determined. Although no correlation was found between the cognitive styles and L2 learners' choice of metaphors, the FD learners tended to use social topics and such broad terms as *vast* and *uncharted* to explain the reason for their choices. Conversely, the FI learners were action-oriented and tended to use verbs to do this task.

True as it may seem, due to lack of any clear methodology, one can claim that L2 research domain has had its main focus of attention on the comprehension processes of metaphorical language rather than the production side (Harris, Friel, & Mickelson, 2006). With all this amount of emphasis laid on such vital and fruitful area as the comprehension side of metaphorical language, most advanced L2 learners likely experience moments of difficulty in reading a passage containing metaphors.

In a nutshell, the area of L1 and L2 research abounds with miscellaneous studies on the figurative use of language and the cognitive style of FI/FD, respectively. However, regarding the relationship between this ilk of cognitive style

and metaphorical use of language in recognition and text-based tests of metaphor, upon examining the relevant literature, one would spot areas of neglect in this research domain. Thus, if the study of the relationship between the cognitive style of FI/FD and performance in metaphor tests is so important for L2 learner's success, both in their academic studies and communication in L2, it makes sense to try and probe into such area.

From the above discussion and to the best of the present researchers' knowledge, almost no attempt has been made to investigate the difference between the FI/FD cognitive style and the metaphorical test performance, whereas, according to Kövecses (2002), metaphor has an important role in human thought, understanding, and making our social, cultural, and psychological reality. Therefore, the specific focus in this study is to assess the L2 learners' metaphorical test performance in recognition, text-based true-false, and text-based scriptally implicit tests of metaphor. In line with the above sections, the present study is an attempt to provide answers to the following questions:

    1. Is there any difference between the performance of FI/FD learners in recognition test of metaphor?

    2. Is there any difference between the performance of FI/FD learners in text-based true-false test of metaphor?

    3. Is there any difference between the performance of FI/FD learners in text-based scriptally implicit test of metaphor?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

For the purpose of this study, 80 senior undergraduate university students including both male and female, majoring in English Translation were selected from Isfahan University, Shahrekord University, and Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz. Their age ranged from 19 to 26 with Persian as their L1 language. The participants were selected in line with their mean scores and standard deviations, from among 110 students through a 50-item Nelson English Language Proficiency Test with reasonable measures of validity and reliability. The reason for the selection of the aforementioned L2 learners was that they had passed a course on *Application of Idiomatic Expressions in Translation/Language*. Therefore, it was assumed that these undergraduates had familiarity with metaphors.

B. Materials

For the present study, the materials were as the followings: The first material was a 50-item Nelson English Language Proficiency Test, most commonly used for the advanced level, adopted from Fowler and Coe (1978) to make sure that all the participants enjoyed the same level of proficiency, and accordingly, to homogenize them prior to the study. In the current study, the reliability coefficient of this test was high (Cronbach's Alpha = .82).

The second material was a paper-and-pencil test of GEFT adopted from Witkin, Raskin, Oltman, and Karp (1971) to assess the cognitive style of FI/FD. The previously mentioned test required the participants to separate an item (i.e., a simple geometric shape) from a background (i.e., a more complex shape). In this test, the participants who managed to recognize a hidden figure from a field were FI and those who failed to do this task were FD. Of the vital importance is that Witkin et al. (1971) reported a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of .82 for their instrument. It should be mentioned that the reliability of the aforementioned test was also examined for the current study via Cronbach □ s Alpha that turned out to be .78.

The third material was a metaphor test consisting of three parts: recognition, text-based true-false, and text-based scriptally implicit tests from the books *English Idioms in Use* (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2002), *Idiom Organizer* (Wright, 1999), and *Practicing Idioms* (Watson, 1991) given to the participants in order to investigate their metaphorical performance (see Appendix). The metaphor test was a multiple-choice test consisting of 15 recognition tests of metaphor and three passages as the text-based tests of metaphor. Each passage consisted of five true-false and five scriptally implicit questions, respectively. Thus, every passage included 10 questions and the total number of the questions regarding the passages was 30.

Concerning the true-false questions, each item was followed by three answers of *true*, *false*, and *not given*. In addition, the scriptally implicit questions were 15 open-ended sentences to be completed by one of the alternatives presented in the form of multiple-choice test. In fact, according to Alderson (2000, p. 87), these questions require readers to integrate text information with their background knowledge to find the correct responses to the questions. Every correct answer had one score. Therefore, the total score for the recognition test of metaphor was 15 and for the passages 30, respectively.

Furthermore, in order to refine the test items and form a smaller number of coherent subscales, prior to use them, Factor Analysis was conducted. The 60 items of the metaphor tests were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS Version 16. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value was .618, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett □ s Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The results of parallel analysis showed only three components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (60 variables ×160 respondents).

The three-component solution explained a total of 44.85% of the variance. To aid in the interpretation of these three components, Oblimin rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure (Thurstone, 1947), with the three components showing a number of strong loadings. The results of this analysis

supported the use of recognition, text-based true-false, and text-based scriptally implicit tests of metaphor as separate constructs.

C. Procedure

All in all, this research study consisted of three phases: Assessing Proficiency, Cognitive Style, and Metaphorical Performance, each with its own specific procedures.

To collect the data, first, a 50-item Nelson English Language Proficiency Test was administered. As Table 1 shows, according to the proficiency mean score ($M = 26$) and standard deviations ($SD = 11$) assessed by SPSS, 80 participants from among 110 ones whose scores were from 15 to 37 were selected:

TABLE 1.
THE MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE NELSON TEST

Scores	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
	110	6.00	46.00	26.26665	11.36109

Second, in order to assess the participants' cognitive style of FI/FD, the selected participants were given GEFT. This paper-and-pencil test contained three sections including 25 figures. The participants were asked to identify eight simple shapes labeled A to H in the complex figures. The criterion for the participants' dichotomization is 11. Those who got scores above 11 are considered as FI and those below 11 are considered as FD. It should be mentioned that the seven figures in section 1 of the test are just for the purpose of practicing and familiarizing the participants with the test procedure, and they are not considered in the test scoring. Thus, the scores range between 0-18. The second and third sections for identifying the FI/FD learners were both five minutes long and consisted of 9 items, respectively (the test totally lasted 12 minutes). The possible scores ranged from 0 to 18. A score of 11 and above showed the FI learners and a score of below 11 identified the FD learners. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study before collecting the data.

As the last part of data collection, in order to assess the participants' metaphorical performance, three kinds of metaphor tests—namely recognition test of metaphor, text-based true-false test of metaphor, and text-based scriptally implicit test of metaphor—were given to the participants according to their code for GEFT. The aforementioned metaphor tests consisted of 15 recognition questions and three passages as text-based part. Each passage consisted of five true-false and five scriptally implicit questions to be completed by one of the alternatives, respectively. Thus, every passage included 10 questions and the total number of the questions regarding the passages was 30. The participants had to choose their alternative by putting a check mark (√) in the answer sheets distributed among them.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The raw data gathered from the FI/FD learners in such three kinds of metaphor tests as recognition, text-based true-false, and text-based scriptally implicit questions were submitted to the SPSS, and the subsequent computations were made as presented in Table 2:

TABLE 2.
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS

Dependent Variable	Cognitive Style	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Recognition	FD	8.159	.404	7.355	8.963
	FI	9.944	.446	9.056	10.833
T-F	FD	10.477	.455	9.572	11.382
	FI	8.333	.502	7.333	9.334
Scriptally Implicit	FD	9.386	.194	9.001	9.772
	FI	8.639	.214	8.213	9.065

In recognition test of metaphor, the mean score for the FD learners is 8.15 and for the FI learners is 9.94, respectively. Although statistically significant, the actual difference in the two mean scores is small, almost less than 2 scale points. In text-based true-false test of metaphor, the mean score for the FD learners is 10.47 and for the FI counterparts is 8.33, which shows a statistically significant difference. At last, in the scriptally implicit test of metaphor, the mean score for the FD participants is 9.38 and for the FI ones is 8.63. Although statistically significant, the actual difference in the two mean scores is small, almost less than 1 scale point.

In order to compare the FD and FI groups and analyze the mean differences between the aforesaid groups in all three kinds of metaphor tests, MANOVA was done. In this study, the aforementioned metaphor tests were recognized as the dependent variables and the cognitive style of FI/FD was recognized as two levels of the independent variable. To test for multivariate normality, the present researchers calculated Mahalanobis distances:

TABLE 3.
RESIDUALS STATISTICS

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.00	1.89	1.45	.199	80
Std. Predicted Value	-2.280	2.196	.000	1.000	80
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.064	.228	.100	.031	80
Adjusted Predicted Value	1.00	2.09	1.45	.206	80
Residual	-.876	.755	.000	.459	80
Std. Residual	-1.871	1.612	.000	.981	80
Stud. Residual	-2.088	1.707	-.001	1.008	80
Deleted Residual	-1.091	.847	-.001	.485	80
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.136	1.730	.000	1.013	80
Mahalanobis Distance	.508	17.767	2.962	3.071	80
Cook's Distance	.000	.267	.014	.031	80
Centered Leverage Value	.006	.225	.037	.039	80

In order to decide whether a case was an outlier, the present researchers compared the Mahalanobis distance value against a critical value reported by Pallant (2007, p. 280) through using a chi-square critical value table as provided below:

TABLE 4.
CRITICAL VALUES FOR EVALUATING MAHALANOBIS DISTANCE VALUES

Number of Dependent Variables	Critical Value	Number of Dependent Variables	Critical Value	Number of Dependent Variables	Critical Value
2	13.82	5	20.52	8	26.13
3	16.27	6	22.46	9	27.88
4	18.47	7	24.32	10	29.59

According to Pallant (2007), individuals whose mah-1 scores exceed these critical values are considered outliers. In Table 3, under the column marked maximum, Mahalanobis distance value is 17.76. Then, this number is compared to the critical value determined by the number of dependent variables being the value for degree of freedom (df). The number of the dependent variables in this study is three. Thus, the critical value in this case is 16.27.

In the current study, Mahalanobis distance value (17.76) is larger than the critical value (16.27). Thus, there are multivariate outliers in the study. Through looking at the data file, one of the cases exceeded the critical value of 16.27, suggesting the presence of one multivariate outlier. This was the person with $ID = 9$ and a score of 17.76. Because there was only one person and his score was not too high, the present researchers left this person in the data file. In the next stage, the assumption of linearity between the dependent variables was checked. There was a straight line relationship between each pair of the dependent variables. To test whether the data violates the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, Box□s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was studied. The Box□s M$Sig.$ value is .116 that is larger than .001; therefore, this assumption is not violated:

TABLE 5.
BOX'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRIX

Box's M	10.658
F	1.701
Df1	6
Df2	3.954E4
Sig.	.116

To test equal variances, the next box to look at is the Leven's Test of Equality of Error Variance shown in Table 6:

TABLE 6.
LEVEN'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Recognition	1.486	1	78	.226
T-F	.198	1	78	.658
Scriptally Implicit	1.625	1	78	.206

p < .05

In the $Sig.$ column, none of the variables are less than .05. In fact, they do not record significant values. Therefore, equal variance is assumed, and the assumption of the equality of variance is not rejected. In order to see whether there were statistically significant differences among the groups on a liner combination of the dependent variables, the set of

multivariate tests of significance was studied. One of the most commonly reported statistics, according to Pallant (2007), is Wilk□ s Lambda as presented in Table7:

TABLE 7.
MULTIVARIATE TESTSB

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.989	2.229E3[a]	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
	Wilks' Lambda	.011	2.229E3[a]	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
	Hotelling's Trace	87.979	2.229E3[a]	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
	Roy's Largest Root	87.979	2.229E3[a]	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
Cognitive Style	Pillai's Trace	.158	4.746[a]	3.000	76.000	.004	.158
	Wilks' Lambda	.842	4.746[a]	3.000	76.000	.004	.158
	Hotelling's Trace	.187	4.746[a]	3.000	76.000	.004	.158
	Roy's Largest Root	.187	4.746[a]	3.000	76.000	.004	.158

a. Exact Statistics
b. Design: Intercept + Cognitive Style

In the second section of the Multivariate Tests Table, in the row labeled with the name of the independent variable (cognitive style), the value for Wilk□ s Lambda and its associated significant level are presented. The Wilk□ s Lambda value is .842, with a significant value of .004 that is less than .05; therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the FI/FD learners in terms of their metaphorical performance. Because a significant result was obtained on the multivariate test of significance, there is a chance to investigate further in relation to each of the dependent variable. Thus, the Test of Between-Subject Effects output box should be studied.

Due to a number of separate analyses, Pallant (2007) suggested a higher alpha level to reduce the chance of a type 1 error. The most common way of doing this is to apply what is known as Bonferroni adjustment. In its simplest form, this involves dividing the original alpha level of .05 by a number of analyses that the researchers intends to do. In this study, there are three dependent variables to investigate (recognition test of metaphor, text-based true-false test of metaphor, and text-based scriptally implicit test of metaphor); therefore, .05 is divided by 3, giving a new alpha level of .017. The result is considered significant only if the probability value (*Sig.)* is less than .017.

Thus, in the Test of Between-Subjects Effects box presented in Table 8, the values in a row labeled with the independent variable (cognitive style), each of the dependent variables is listed with their associated univariate *F*, *df*, and *Sig*. values.

TABLE 8.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Cognitive Style	Recognition	63.112	1	63.112	8.794	.004	.101
	T-F	91.010	1	91.010	10.013	.002	.114
	Scriptally Implicit	11.063	1	11.063	6.703	.011	.079
Error	Recognition	559.775	78	7.177			
	T-F	708.977	78	9.089			
	Scriptally Implicit	128.737	78	1.650			
Total	Recognition	7049.000	80				
	T-F	8039.000	80				
	Scriptally Implicit	6692.000	80				
Corrected Total	Recognition	622.887	79				
	T-F	799.988	79				
	Scriptally Implicit	139.800	79				

a. R Squared = .101 (Adjusted R Squared = .090)
c. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .067)
b. R Squared = .114 (Adjusted R Squared = .102)

Upon looking for any values that are less than .017 (our new adjusted alpha level) in Table 8, the *Sig*. column for all the three dependent variables in the row labeled with the independent variable (cognitive style) reported a significant value less than the cut-off point (with the *Sig*. values of .004, .002, and .011). Thus, the significant difference between the FI/FD learners was on all kinds of metaphor tests.

The importance of the impact of cognitive style on metaphorical performance was also evaluated using the effect size statistics provided in the final column. Partial Eta Squared represents the proportion of the variance in the dependent variables (recognition, true-false, and scriptally implicit) that can be explained by the independent variable (cognitive style). Utilizing commonly used guidelines (.01 = small, .06 = moderate, .14 = large) proposed by Cohen (1988, p. 284-287), this value of .101 for the recognition test of metaphor is considered somehow a large effect and represents 10.1% of variance explained by cognitive style. The aforementioned Partial Eta Squared for the text-based true-false test of metaphor is .114, which again is considered somehow a large effect and represents 11.4% of variance explained by cognitive style. Finally, Partial Eta Squared for the scriptally implicit test of metaphor is .079, which is considered quite a moderate effect and represents 7.9% of variance explained by the cognitive style of FI/FD.

IV. CONCLUSION

Being at the nexus of mind and language, metaphor has been studied by different scholars (Gibbs, 2006; Lankton, 2002; Roberts & Kreuz, 1994; Tendahl & Gibbs, in press;) in order to define this ilk of metaphorical language and, in main, understand its function in language, thought, and culture. This manifests itself in a unanimous agreement among the aforesaid scholars who astonishingly believe that the mind is also metaphorical in nature.

Thus, metaphor is not merely a figure of speech, but may as well be attributed to the mental mappings in which one conceptualizes source and target domains of metaphor (Tendahl & Gibbs, in press). Tendahl and Gibbs justify the idea that particular keywords from the source domain may activate a conceptual metaphor that involves understanding one conceptual domain in the light of another conceptual one; and accordingly, the inference occurs. The aforementioned model is in accord with Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) model of conceptual mappings. Just the same, through proposing conceptual blending theory, Fauconnier and Turner (2002) introduce another major development being of paramount importance in cognitive linguistics relevant to metaphor. Through extending this theory to the realm of metaphorical language, metaphorical meaning is captured by a blended space having in common some structure from both source and target domains. In other words, blending theory extends conceptual mapping by creating mappings that are not unidirectional between source and target domains (Tendahl & Gibbs, in press).

Thus, the findings of this study are consistent with the one by Boers and Littlemore (2000) who explain that the possibility of different approaches towards conceptual metaphor may be related to different cognitive style. To explain the reason for the aforesaid metaphorical performance, based on Boers and Littlemore (2000), the analytic participants, or FI learners are more likely to conceive the two domains of metaphor (i.e., source domain and target domain) as distinct domains, whereas the holistic participants, or FD ones are less able to ignore irrelevant contexts.

To jump on the bandwagon of Boers and Littlemore (2000), L2 learners with different cognitive style understand conceptual metaphors in two ways. FI L2 learners use the approach of mapping across two distinct domains of source and target ones that is in accord with Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) model of conceptual mappings. Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual mappings assume that all the concepts are structured through more basic concepts and they argue that metaphorical conceptual mappings are not only reflected in the expressions that one may use, but also one use these conceptual mappings to understand metaphorical expressions. As a result, this capacity facilitates metaphor recognition.

On the other hand, using the model of blending or conceptual integration of different domains, Fauconnier and Turner (1994, 1995, 1998) believe that FD L2 learners conceive the source and target domains of metaphor as an integrated entity, whereas analytic L2 learners are more likely to conceive the source and target domains of a metaphor as separate parts.

These explanations, in turn, count as a piece of corroborative evidence for the view held by Oxford and Anderson's (1995) hypothesis, explaining that the holistic individuals, or FD ones study the whole picture of a problem, whereas analytic individuals, or FI ones will focus on the separate parts of the problem. As in the current study, the holistic individuals focused on the text-based tests of metaphor consisting of true-false and scriptally implicit questions, whereas the analytic participants outperformed in the recognition test of metaphor.

Besides, the findings are somehow in line with Palmquist's (2001) conclusion. To determine which metaphors are preferred by L2 learners and why, Palmquist (2001) found that the holistic participants tended to see metaphors with a broad concept base. In a similar vein, the results of the current study reported that L2 learners' cognitive style resulted in statistically significant differences in the recognition and text-based tests of metaphor. To put the same thing differently, the FI L2 learners focused more on sentences than on the overall organization. Hence, the analytic participants attended to the isolated parts of a whole and outperformed in the recognition tests of metaphor, whereas the holistic learners attend to the overall organization of a field and outperform in text-based tests of metaphor, respectively.

In addition, the findings of the present study support the claims of recent researchers like Salmani-Nodoushan (2006) who claim that the cognitive style of FI/FD can be a factor affecting the participants' performance on such different reading task types as true-false. Because holistic L2 learners should read the passage, gain a holistic understanding of each passage, and then answer the questions, they outperform their analytic counterparts on the true-false task.

The findings are obviously in consonance with the one by Brown (2000) explaining that the cognitive style of FD is a style in which an individual tends to look at the whole of the learning task containing many items, and accordingly, the

FD individuals have difficulty studying a particular item when it occurs within the field of other items. FI, on the other hand, refers to a cognitive style in which an individual is able to identify and focus on particular items or events.

However, different L2 learners apply various strategies, albeit with a preference for one and their preferred strategies match the aspects of their cognitive styles. The results suggest that L2 learners with different cognitive styles process conceptual metaphors in different ways. FI L2 learners seem to involve the projection of structures across distinct domains resulting in a better performance regarding metaphor recognition, and accordingly, FD L2 learners perform on metaphor tests through conceptual integration of source and target domains and outperform in text-based tests of metaphor, respectively.

APPENDIX METAPHOR TESTS

Recognition Test of Metaphor
Code: …….   Time: 15 min
Directions: *Please read the following sentences and choose the best choice. Tick (√) your choices on the answer-sheet.*

1. When you start negotiating, let the other person make the first offer. Never ….. too early.
    a. set your sights on   b. open your eyes
    c. show your hand   d. swing a cat
2. I feel sick today because I ….. last night.
    a. hit the spot   b. porked out
    c. got the picture   d. saw through
3. It will be a(n) ….. before I see her again.
    a. old hand   b. early bird
    c. bad apple   d. cold day in hell
4. Mary is very moody: One minute she is …..; the next she is very depressed.
    a. at the drop of a hat   b. against all the odds
    c. on top of the world   d. in the nick of the time
5. My sister is a dreamer. She goes through life ….. .
    a. at the end of her rope   b. at her fingertips
    c. in her heart of hearts   d. with her head in the cloud
6. How is it going, Betty? I haven't seen you ….. . How is your father?
    a. on cloud nine   b. for the birds
    c. out of the woods   d. for donkey's years
7. Even if you are going to have some bad luck, it isn't the …..! Why worry before it happens.
    a. end of the world   b. luck of the draw
    c. spice of life   d. black sheep of the family
8. My grandmother died last night, and I will receive all her wealth. I guess I have ….. .
    a. called the shots   b. rocked the boat
    c. hit the jackpot   d. seen the point
9. Tom: I need someone to write a short report of meeting. Can you write it?
    Tim: Ok, I will ….., but I don't promise.
    a. smell a rat   b. have a shot at it
    c. horse around   d. feel fragile
10. I wish you'd tidy your flat up! It is like a ….. .
    a. cross-fertilization   b. dead-end
    c. tongue-in-cheek   d. pig-sty
11. Mr. Smith was tired, so he ….. over to Mr. Brown to speak for the audience.
    a. cost an arm and a leg   b. let the cat out of the bag
    c. handed the baton   d. played it by ear
12. My father's company in Tehran is a(n) ….. of his main company in Isfahan.
    a. pig-sty   b. off-shoot
    c. up-rooting   d. short-sighted
13. We didn't tell anyone the news because it was a secret. But she ….. and now everyone knows.
    a. let the cat out of the bag   b. had the world by the tail
    c. went to the dogs   d. call it a day
14. I think the boss is in a bad mood. Just get on with your work and ….. .
    a. keep your head down   b. show your hand
    c. be a drop in the ocean   d. be on the cards
15. I knew all Justin's stories were exaggerated. I ….. him the first time I met him.
    a. played it by ear   b. went to the dogs
    c. faced the music   d. saw through

Text-Based True-False & Scriptally Implicit Tests of Metaphor

Name: …………………… Booklet No: …...

Time: 40 min

Directions: *Please read the following passages and choose the best choice in Parts* Ⅰ *and* ⅠⅠ*. Tick (√) your choices on the answer-sheet.*

Passage 1

When Mark started work, he was at the very bottom of the career ladder. He had quite a dead-end job doing run-of-the mill tasks. He stayed there for a couple of years, but then decided that he had to get out of a rut. He pulled out all the stops and managed to persuade his manager that he should be given more responsibility. The deputy manager got the sack for incompetence and Mark stepped into his shoes. For several months, he was rushed off his feet and he had something very difficult to do to keep on top of things. As a result, he was soon recognized as an up-and-coming young business man and he was headhunted by a rival company for one of their top jobs and so he climbed to the top of the career ladder. He had difficult days at work. He was all snowed under because their company had some important visitors. So, Mark put long-term tasks on hold and took rest for a short time.

Part Ⅰ *:*

1. Mark was up to his eyes because their company had a lot of visitors.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
2. Mark was certainly on the go and he thought of a short break.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
3. Mark didn't find his feet in other companies.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
4. Companies suggested him a project in the pipeline.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
5. Mark got the sack and the company took on extra staff.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given

Part ⅠⅠ *:*

6. Mark was headhunted by a rival company and ………. .
   a. went over his head   b. took on extra staff
   c. got the sack   d. was a drop in the ocean
7. Mark ………. at work and couldn't take rest.
   a. was at a loose end   b. was up to his ears
   c. didn't lift a finger   d. didn't burn a candle at both ends
8. Because Mark's tasks were ………., he put long-term tasks on hold.
   a. short-sighted   b. down-and-out
   c. run-of-the mill   d. out-and-out
9. Mark was really busy in his company and ………. .
   a. swanned around   b. horsed around
   c. put a face to a name   d. had enough on his plate
10. Because Mark was really busy, he didn't have time to just sit at his desk and ………. .
   a. twiddle his thumbs   b. put a face to a name
   c. be a drop in the ocean   d. be on the cards

Passage 2

Dear Paula, I'm 22 and work in a theater. I have been going out with a boy for the last 6 months, but lately it has all gone wrong. In fact, it was love at first sight. When I first saw him, he just took my breath away. I could hardly speak; he was so attractive and intelligent. We started going out. I have always had a soft spot for penniless artists like him. I didn't know whether he is keen on me or not. Then, I realized he had fallen for a good friend of mine. They had fallen head over heels in love. The news was so terrible that upon its hearing I started to cry. I just didn't know what had hit me. I asked him about it, but he got angry and told me that side of his life had nothing to do with me. I have mixed feelings about this news, and I don't know which way to turn. What should I do?

Part Ⅰ *:*

11. According to the passage, she is feeling down in the dumps.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
12. Her boyfriend was in his bad books when she asked him about his new girlfriend.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
13. According to the passage, we can infer that she and her boyfriend are on the same wavelength.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
14. She and her boyfriend can get on like a house on fire.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
15. When she saw her boyfriend for the first time, she took a shine to him.
   a) True   b) False   c) Not Given

Part I I :

16. When she understood her boyfriend had fallen for a good friend of her, she ………. .
    a. had it out with him   b. kept himself to himself
    c. got on like a house on fire   d. took a shine to him
17. Her boyfriend ………. her because he had fallen for one of her friends.
    a. was up-rooting   b. was two-timing
    c. was short-sighted   d. was dead-end
18. She has written a letter to Paula because she is ………. .
    a. shillyshallied   b. tongue-in-cheek
    c. short-cut   d. dead-end
19. She wrote the letter to Paula because she ………. .
    a. paid through the nose   b. had the world by the tail
    c. was a drop in the ocean   d. needed a shoulder to cry on
20. She didn't know which way to turn because she ………. .
    a. came from a broken family   b. played her cards right
    c. got off on the wrong foot   d. knew the ropes

Passage 3

My father had been feeling under the weather and he was at death's door. If you had seen him, you would have thought the same: He looked like death warmed up. He was in hospital for a couple of weeks, and then he came to stay with us for a week while he was on the mend. When he seemed as right as rain, we told him to go away for a few days to recharge his batteries. After one day beside the sea, he no longer felt off-color and by the second day he knew he was on the road to recovery. He sent us a post card and we were all glad to learn that he was alive and kicking again. By the end of the week, he returned to work as fit as a fiddle.

Part I :

21. My father practically had one foot in the grave.
    a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
22. When he was in the hospital, doctors told him that he had a new lease of life.
    a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
23. In order to sugar the pill, we asked him to go on a trip.
    a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
24. My father had a screw loose.
    a) True   b) False   c) Not Given
25. Finally, he kicked the bucket.
    a) True   b) False   c) Not Given

Part I I :

26. My dad's feeling much better. He is well ………. .
    a. on the way to recovery   b. in a rut
    c. at stake   d. against all the odds
27. There is nothing to worry about. He was given ………. .
    a. all in the same boat   b. a clean bill of health
    c. a bone of contention   d. a sore point
28. After one day beside the sea, he was ………. .
    a. at a drop of a hat   b. in a flap
    c. in a rut   d. in the picture of health
29. After coming back from his trip, he is ………. .
    a. black sheep of the family   b. down in the dumps
    c. back on his feet   d. left, right, and center
30. Because he has been feeling under the weather, we infer that he was ………. .
    a. dragging his feet   b. going down with something
    c. playing his cards right   d. paying through the nose

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Mahmood Hashemian is an assistant professor at Shahrekord University. His area of research includes cognitive-semantic linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. He has published articles in academic journals such as IJAL, IJLS, JALS, Linguistik-Online, JLTR, TPLS, Iranian EFL Journal, and International Journal of Social Sciences. Also, he has given lectures in several national and international conferences such as TELLSI (4, 7, 8, & 9), LDP2010 (Ahvaz, Iran), ELT in the Islamic World (Tehran, Iran), 2nd International Language Conference 2011 (Malaysia), and the 1st Thammasat ELT International Conference: Voices in ELT (Thailand).

Ali Roohani is an assistant professor at Shahrekord University. His area of research includes emotional intelligence, affective variables in L2 learning, language learning strategies. He has published articles in academic journals such as IJAL, Asian TEFL, and JTLS. Also, he has published three books on affect, applied linguistics, and vocabulary learning. Moreover, he has given lectures in several national and international conferences.

Batool Fadaei got her B.A. in English translation from Shahrekord University and is now an M.A. TEFL student at the same university. Her areas of interest include psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and cognitive linguistics. And, she has been teaching English at various language institutes for more than three years.

Taiwan EFL Learners' Pronunciation Strategies in Two Learning Contexts

Ting Fang
English Department of National Taiwan Normal University, 162, Heping East Road Section 1, Taipei, Taiwan
Email: B93102115@ntu.edu.tw

Chih-Cheng Lin
English Department of National Taiwan Normal University, 162, Heping East Road Section 1, Taipei, Taiwan
Email: cclin@ntnu.edu.tw

Abstract—**The study investigate the nature of two learning contexts, computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) and classroom-based pronunciation training (CBPT), and learners' strategies in them. 120 valid questionnaires were collected from college students who learned in CAPT and CBPT at one university in Taiwan. The results showed firstly, pronunciation learning activities are distributed differently in CAPT and CBPT. More learning activities are used in CBPT than in CAPT, and this may be related to teachers' help in the classroom. Students in CAPT used more activities related to suprasegments than segments (minimal pair drills). In CBPT, learners used activities related to both segments and suprasegments often. In both contexts, learners often relied on teachers' demonstration and their imitation, but seldom received explicit strategy teaching. These activities employed may affect learners' strategy choice. Secondly, learners in either CAPT or CBPT showed similar performance in strategy use. In both learning contexts, learners relied on memory and imitation very much, but rarely noticed different qualities of sounds. When learning in both contexts simultaneously, learners' use of strategies increased obviously. It is possible that this increase results from more opportunities for learners in both contexts to notice and practice. Implications are discussed in the paper.**

Index Terms—**pronunciation strategies, learning context, computer-assisted pronunciation training, EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is believed that strategic competence helps learners learn how to learn a language as well as raise their awareness of learning (Oxford, 1990). As a part of communicative competence, strategic competence in pronunciation facilitates learners' manipulation of their accent to reach eventual comprehensibility. However, even though researchers have studied learners' strategic awareness in writing (Victori, 1999; Schoonen et al., 2003), reading (Schoonen, Hulstijn, & Bossers, 1998), and listening (Goh, 1997; Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006), scarce research can be found on learners' strategy use in pronunciation learning. Learners' strategic awareness in pronunciation may facilitate their acquisition of comprehensible pronunciation, and thus to decrease the opportunities of being placed unequally in L2 societies because of their strong foreign accents (Morley, 1991). Besides, with the help of their strategic awareness, learners can manipulate their pronunciation learning and find out the most appropriate way by themselves, especially when many pronunciation teachers lack sufficient knowledge about pronunciation teaching due to their little or no training (Breitkreutz, Derwing, & Rossiter, 2002).

Pronunciation learning at present is not confined within traditional classroom-based pronunciation training (CBPT); computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) has provided learners another way to access it. Researchers have been comparing the effectiveness of language teaching and learning in traditional classroom and computer assisted language learning (CALL) environments (Engwall & Ba lter, 2007). These comparisons render a more integrated picture of language learning. Therefore, investigating learners' strategies use in CAPT and CBPT helps delineate learners' pronunciation learning process in different contexts and evaluate these two learning environments.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foci of Pronunciation Teaching

As for pronunciation teaching, some common learning activities and foci are shared by teachers and learners, and reflect the nature of learning contexts. They include segmental teaching, pronunciation teaching beyond segmental, and pronunciation feedback.

Segmental Teaching

Based on Derwing and Rossiter (2002, p. 156), teachers initially "focused on L1-L2 segmental differences and the discrimination and articulation of individual sound segments in single-syllable words." This pronunciation teaching approach was mainly based on contrastive analysis of L1 and L2, and can still be found in many language textbooks

with the drills of minimal pairs, pictures, or teachers' demonstration. Learners can understand how a sound is pronounced by viewing the place or manner of articulation in pictures.

Pronunciation Teaching beyond Segmental

Many studies have shown the effectiveness of suprasegmental instruction (including intonation, stress, and rhythm) as a pronunciation learning activity and its superiority over segmental instruction (Derwing et al., 1998; Moyer, 1999; Munro, 1995; Pennington, 1989). Compared to focusing on segmentals, suprasegmental instruction is more context-based and function-orientation since different intonation or stress of target language leads to changes in meaning based on the needs of interlocutors in communication. In addition to prosodic features in pronunciation, researchers have expanded their view of what constitute the pronunciation we know, including voice quality and body language in oral communication (Morley, 1991).

Pronunciation Feedback

Another important focus in pronunciation teaching is the role of feedback or interaction. Pronunciation errors by learners take place very often, and teachers who attempt to correct their errors have to identify possible reasons for these errors (Mackey, 1965). Hammerly (1973, pp. 107-108) thus suggested that teachers should "isolate the error" and "differentiate the error" so that students know where and what their errors are. As for the correction of prosodic errors, visualization of gestures helps students' understanding of intonation pattern, stress, and rhythm. With these activities, whether students' mispronunciation results from their vague conception about the right form, or inability to pronounce relies on teachers' judgment. In this respect, teachers act like coaches who not so much teach as assist learners' pronunciation (Morley, 1991). The role of the coach is to give models, feedback, practice opportunities, and support.

These foci of pronunciation teaching not only promote learning activities relying on teachers (e.g. demonstration), but also on learners (e.g. imitation, two-way feedback or interaction, and segmental or suprasegmental recognition). Learners' awareness thus plays a role in pronunciation learning. Learners' no or few responsibility in pronunciation improvement has now been replaced by their self-monitoring, awareness, and strategies (Scarcella & Oxford, 1994).

B.   Learners' Strategic Awareness in Pronunciation Learning

In order to raise learners' awareness and facilitate their strategy use, researchers have proposed multifarious strategies for pronunciation teaching (Scarcella & Oxford, 1994; Lin, Fan, & Chen, 1995), and identified pronunciation strategies (PSs) used by learners (Osburne, 2003). For example, Derwing and Rossiter (2002) investigated 100 ESL learners' perception of their pronunciation difficulties and possible strategies they use to compensate for their communication breakdown, through interviews and survey questions. When learners are misunderstood in communication, the top five common strategies employed are paraphrase, self-repetition, writing/ spelling, volume adjustment, speaking clearly, and slowing speech rate. Osburne (2003) also used oral protocols to investigated 50 adults learners' use of strategies in their pronunciation improvement. He identified eight PSs mostly used by advanced learners, which are global articulatory gesture; local articulatory or single sound; individual syllables; clusters below the syllable-level; prosodic structure; individual words; paralanguage; memory or imitation. The result shows that learners use strategies to help their pronunciation, and the most common pronunciation learning strategies used by learners is imitation, followed by their focus on paralanguage. On the other hand, strategies related to segmental phonology (such as syllable structures, consonant clusters, and individual sound) and suprasegmental phonology were seldom employed by learners.

From these studies, the image of learners is no longer passive knowledge recipients, but active practitioners who employ any possible ways to solve pronunciation problems with their cognitive and metacognitive abilities. Students' strategic awareness plays a role both for learners to facilitate their learning (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999; Hacker, Dunlosky, & Graesser, 1998), and for us to explain the process of their pronunciation learning (Joseph, 2010). As claimed by Osburne (2003), it is important to analyze learners' PSs for the following reasons. First, by investigating all facets of second language phonology, such as PS, researchers can construct a sound linguistic theory with the information provided by second language phonology, and assist learners' learning. Second, in response to pronunciation instruction, researchers need to study learners' PSs, which may assist the development of effective techniques. Studies of PS in second language acquisition, therefore, have both theoretical and pedagogical implications.

C.   Computer-assisted Pronunciation Training

It was found that learning context may determine learners' PS use (Haslam, 2010). Computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) provides another different context from traditional classroom-based pronunciation training (CBPT), and some studies agree that CAPT has its place in oral training (Pennington, 1999; Neri, Mich, Gerosa, & Giuliani, 2008).

There have been legions of studies investigating the effectiveness of CAPT in language learning (Johnson, Dunkel, & Rekart, 1991; Schwart, Markoff, & Jain, 1991; Stenson, Downing, Smith, & Smith, 1992; Neri, et al., 2008). Pennington (1999) claims that in terms of capacities, CAPT is faster than CBPT in analyzing learners' output and providing immediate feedback, and the analysis from CAPT is also repeatable, so as to increase its reliability. Besides, CAPT is also beneficial to students by its multi-modal presentation and individualization. Based on these capacities in CAPT, the positive potentials include increasing learning motivation, and students' effort on pronunciation, raising learners' awareness, understanding, and skills on the varieties of phonological feature in different languages, and improving their learnability of phonology. Therefore, learners may reach automaticity of pronunciation after practice

and their confidence may be built in the process of individualized and private practice.

Despite these advantages, CAPT also have some limitations in language teaching and its application (Pennington, 1999). One of the main limitations for CAPT is that certain features of pronunciation are restricted by showing visual representations only, and its individualization makes it difficult for the whole class instruction. CAPT is also criticized by its decontextualized learning environment when giving certain bottom-up pronunciation mechanics. Besides, students can not have an integration of their learning or monitor their progress since available programs seldom contain curriculum. Moreover, the most urgent requirement for CAPT is to have pedagogical foundations and support. Neri et al. (2008) suggest that much available pronunciation software is the product of a technology push that may impress the users firstly by its fancy looking, but has weak pedagogical theories to support.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Recognizing the foci or learning activities in CAPT and CBPT and comparing learners' strategy use in them allow us to understand better the nature of these two contexts. It also reveals how contexts work with learners' strategic awareness and knowledge. For pronunciation teaching teachers and software designers, this comparison further helps them make appropriate decisions for learners. The research questions for the present study are as follows:

1. What are learning activities in CAPT and CBPT? Is there any significant correlation between learners' pronunciation activities employed in CAPT and CBPT?

2. Are there any significant differences in learners' strategies between learning contexts of CAPT and CBPT?

3. Are there any significant differences in strategy use between learners studying in either context (i.e. CAPT or CBPT) and learners studying in both contexts (i.e. CAPT and CBPT)?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The study was administrated from fall 2010 to spring 2011 (i.e. two semesters). One hundred and twenty valid questionnaires were collected from college students who attended pronunciation training classes and who used the computer-assisted pronunciation training program at one university in Taiwan. These 120 questionnaires were derived from participants of four groups, including CAPT (n=30), CBPT (n=30), Both-A (n=30), and Both-B (n=30). Participants in CAPT only learned pronunciation by using the software in the lab at least two hours per week; participants in CBPT only learned pronunciation by attending the weekly classes; participants in Both-A used both trainings, but only their responses to pronunciation training program were collected; participants in Both-B also used both trainings, but only their responses to pronunciation classes were collected. These four groups consisted of students from different disciplines. In order to measure and level participants' English proficiency, a pre-test was conducted in the beginning of the first semester. Based on participants' English scores and their percentile rank, only students before 25% were chosen for this study. In other words, participants in these four groups are advanced learners or high achievers in English.

B. Instruments

Pronunciation Training Classes

The pronunciation training classes are only available and required to English majors and minors. Students in these classes are taught and guided by professors from English department for two semesters, two hours a week. In the classroom, teachers would follow teaching materials and the textbook to guide students in pronunciation learning (Focus on Pronunciation 3 by Lane, L. 2005. New York: Longman). These courses are to help students improve their pronunciation of the English language as they speak it. With a brief introduction to the nature of English consonant and vowel production, as well as the peculiar characteristics of the suprasegmental features of the language, these courses provide students with various kinds of listening and speaking practice. Special focus of the oral/aural practice will be placed on pairs/groups of potentially confusing sounds, linking of sounds across syllable/word boundaries, stress, intonation, rhythm, etc. It is hoped that through the intensive drills students may develop their sound awareness, become conscious of their pronunciation problems, and further adopt the most efficient way to solve the problems and improve their pronunciation.

Computer-Assisted Pronunciation Training Programs

As for computer-assisted pronunciation training programs, the pronunciation learning software is applied in this study. Different English learning programs can be used freely in the computer labs by the students, including college students and postgraduates. Some of these programs are developed to promote students' oral skills, including Tell Me More, Traci Talk, and My ET (My English Tutor). This study focuses on the students who use My ET to promote their pronunciation skills, because this is the program best known to and used most by learners in Taiwan. The automatic speech recognition and analysis technology of My ET can analyze learners' pronunciation, pitch, timing (fluency), intonation and volume as well as indicate their pronunciation problems of a particular sound. After using microphone to record and imitate the sentences from models of native speakers, students receive a total score and four sub-scores for each utterance. The score and feedback are offered according to the criteria composed of pronunciation (50%),

timing/fluency (20%), intonation (20%), and volume (10%). Some features of My ET include its design for learners' individual differences by providing a range of lessons for different language proficiency levels. Learners can choose the lesson and task that best suit their needs and interest, and low proficiency learners can even slow down the delivery speed of the audio files. Also, the program provides learning strategies to help learners build a step-by-step process to improve their pronunciation. Finally, both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced grades are offered to learners so that they can monitor their own learning progress.

Pronunciation Strategies Survey (PSS)

Pronunciation Strategies Survey (PSS) is a questionnaire of 5-point Likert scales, containing eight most commonly used PSs found in Osburne's (2003) study, including PS1 *Local articulatory* or *single sound*

PS2 *Focus on sounds below the syllable-level*

PS3 *Focus on individual syllables*

PS4 *Focus on prosodic structure*

PS5 *Global articulatory gesture (the quality of pronunciation, overall mouth posture, such as the emphasis on the quality of [i] and [ɪ], rather than on their length difference)*

PS6 *Focus on paralanguage (attention to the speed, volume, and clarity of the speech)*

PS7 *Focus on individual words*

PS8 *Focus on memory or imitation*

Osburne's (2003) eight PS categories were used in the current survey study because they are generalized and identified from observations of learners' actual use, rather than invented to conform to certain learning model or construct. This survey aims to identify the frequency of each strategy employed by participants from always to never use it. The researcher used responses from participants in the pilot study, which yielded a Cronbach alpha value of .86.

List of Pronunciation Learning Activities Identification

The List of pronunciation learning activities identification is designed for students to identify the pronunciation learning activities they had from a list. The purpose of this survey is to analyze how often certain pronunciation activities appear in different learning environments. The nine common pronunciation activities (see Table 1 for the activities included) in the list were chosen based on previous studies (Derwing et al., 1998; Moyer, 1999; Munro, 1995; Pennington, 1989), observation on pronunciation courses, and interviews with pronunciation teachers in colleges. The results in the pilot study shows that these activities are sufficient enough for participants to choose from.

C. Procedures

In the beginning of the first semester, an English test was conducted to the students in the study to level their English proficiency. This pre-test includes vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension, and writing test. Since only English majors and minors were able to attend pronunciation classes and their English proficiency is within top 25%, the researcher only chose participants within top 25% in this study to ensure their equal proficiency level. The participants were then divided into four groups (i.e. CAPT, CBPT, Both-A, and Both-B) based on their learning contexts and responses to the survey.

Students in CAPT learned the software in the lab in the first week and then used the learning program freely based on their needs two hours a week. Tutors in the lab would check their attendance. Students in CBPT were instructed by teachers in the classroom according to the weekly schedule. Students in Both-A and Both-B attended weekly pronunciation classes and used the learning program in the lab altogether. In addition to following weekly teaching schedule, the teacher in Both-A and Both-B also introduced students the learning program in the beginning of the first semester. These students were expected to use the software two hours a week outside the classroom.

The current study is a one cross-sectional design, and data were collected through the survey. Near the end of the second semester, these participants were invited to answer PSS and list of pronunciation activities identification in class or lab. At first, the researcher explained the purpose of the study and helped students understand that their answers would not affect their grades. These participants were explained how to fill out these questionnaires and meaning of certain items. For students in CAPT and CBPT, they answered the questionnaire according to their learning experience in each context. Students in Both-A were asked by the researcher to answer based on their pronunciation program learning experience in the lab, and students in Both-B were told to recall their pronunciation learning in the classroom for the survey. If learners have any question about the terms in the surveys, they are free to ask the researcher for clarity by raising their hands. With statistics tools like SPSS, responses from participants of different learning contexts were compared to see whether any significant difference exists.

V. RESULTS

A. Pronunciation Activities in CAPT and CBPT

To begin with, Frequency count and percentage of pronunciation learning activities in each context was calculated to answer the first research question. In Table 1, detailed information about the distribution and percentage of learning activities in CAPT and CBPT was provided. The results show that almost all pronunciation activities were used more frequently by students in CBPT than in CAPT.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY COUNT AND PERCENTAGE OF PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES IN CAPT AND CBPT

Pronunciation Activities		Learning Context of Pronunciation		Total
		CAPT	CBPT	
1. Pictures or videos showing how to pronounce	Count	19	38	57
	% within context	6.9%	9.1%	8.2%
	% within activity	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
2. Teacher's demonstration	Count	55	54	109
	% within context	19.9%	12.9%	15.7%
	% within activity	50.5%	49.5%	100.0%
3. Imitation	Count	43	51	94
	% within context	15.5%	12.2%	13.5%
	% within activity	45.7%	54.3%	100.0%
4. Minimal-pair drills	Count	12	55	67
	% within context	4.3%	13.1%	9.6%
	% within activity	17.9%	82.1%	100.0%
5. Intonation, stress, or rhythm practice	Count	40	58	98
	% within context	14.4%	13.8%	14.1%
	% within activity	40.8%	59.2%	100.0%
6. Pronunciation activities based on different levels	Count	22	36	58
	% within context	7.9%	8.6%	8.3%
	% within activity	37.9%	62.1%	100.0%
7. Pronunciation activities based on different topics	Count	39	49	88
	% within context	14.1%	11.7%	12.6%
	% within activity	44.3%	55.7%	100.0%
8. One on one oral interaction and feedback from teachers	Count	30	43	73
	% within context	10.8%	10.3%	10.5%
	% within activity	41.1%	58.9%	100.0%
9. Pronunciation strategies given by teachers	Count	17	35	52
	% within context	6.1%	8.4%	7.5%
	% within activity	32.7%	67.3%	100.0%
Total	Count	277	419	696
	% within context	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% within activity	39.8%	60.2%	100.0%

Firstly, we can see from this Table the different weight of activities in each learning context. In CAPT, Teacher's demonstration (19.9%) is the learning activity used the most by students, while other four activities were relatively seldom used, including Pronunciation activities based on different levels (7.9%), Pictures or videos showing how to pronounce (6.9%), Pronunciation strategies given by teachers (6.1%), and especially Minimal-pair drills (4.3%). On the other hand, in CBPT, the activity used the most by teachers and learners is Intonation, stress, or rhythm practice (13.8%). Three other activities were relatively seldom used, including Pictures or videos showing how to pronounce (9.1%), Pronunciation activities based on different levels (8.6%), and Pronunciation strategies given by teachers (8.4%).

In the comparison of the number and percentage of learning activities between CAPT and CBPT, some findings were discovered. Firstly, the total number and percentage of learning activities in CBPT (60.2%) are generally higher than those in CAPT (39.8%). Secondly, both CAPT and CBPT have low number and percentage on Pronunciation strategies given by teachers. Besides, a sharp contrast is observed between learners' use of Minimal-pair drills in CAPT (17.9%) and CBPT (82.1%), and the frequency count of Minimal-pair drills is also the least in CAPT. Teacher's demonstration is the activity highly favored by both CAPT (50.5%) and CBPT (49.5%) with almost equal number and percentage. A Chi-square test was conducted to investigate the relationship between pronunciation activities used in CAPT and CBPT, as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE TESTS FOR PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES IN CAPT AND CBPT

	Value	df	Asymp.Sig.(2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.973	8	.003*
Likelihood Ratio	24.434	8	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.467	1	.494
N of Valid Cases	696		

* $p < .05$

Table 2 presents the results of Chi-square test for the correlation between pronunciation activities employment and different pronunciation training environments. As shown in Table 2, there exists significant difference between pronunciation activities in CAPT and CBPT at the .05 level ($p < .05$). It means that firstly, the distribution of pronunciation activities between CAPT and CBPT are different; secondly, learning context and pronunciation activities are related.

B. Learners' Strategy Use in Different Learning Contexts

The current study also investigates the participants' PSs scores in different learning environments of CAPT, CBPT, Both-A, and Both-B. The results were showed in Table 3. The result of one way ANOVA indicated that learners used

different PSs in different groups, since significant differences were observed (F (3, 116) = 5.38, p =0.00).

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRONUNCIATION STRATEGY SCORES

Group	Mean	SD
CAPT (*n*=30)	3.62	.69
CBPT (*n*=30)	3.55	.81
Both-A (*n*=30)	4.08	.59
Both-B (*n*=30)	4.08	.56
Total (*N*=120)	3.83	.71

To address the influence of learning contexts on learners' strategy use, a post-hoc test was used to compare the results obtained by the subjects exposed to the different contexts. Results show that no significant difference was found at the p < .05 level between the CAPT and CBPT groups. In contrast, there were significant differences between the CAPT and Both-A groups (p = .01), and between CBPT and Both-B groups (p = .00).

Strategy Use between CAPT and CBPT

Though no significance was found between the CAPT and CBPT groups in their strategy use, the study further analyzed the mean scores of each PS to discover some shared similarities. Firstly, PSs with high mean scores were identified. The results show that the mean scores of PS4 Focus on prosodic structure (3.73), PS6 Focus on paralanguage (3.77), and PS8 Focus on memory or imitation (3.70) are the highest in CAPT. Besides, the mean score of PS8 (3.80) is also the highest in CBPT, followed by PS7 Focus on individual words (3.67) and PS6 Focus on paralanguage (3.60). Thus, PS8 was used highly often by both groups. As for the PSs with low mean scores, PS5 Global articulatory gesture (3.37) has the lowest score is in CAPT. In CBPT, the lowest score is PS2 Focus on sounds below the syllable-level (3.43) and also PS5 Global articulatory gesture (3.43). Based on the results, PS5 was considered the least used pronunciation learning strategies by both groups.

Strategy Use between CAPT and Both-A

Significance differences were observed between the CAPT and Both-A groups. Compared with the mean scores of PSs from learners who used CAPT only, all the mean scores of each item from learners who used both CAPT and CBPT are much higher. Mean scores of six items (PS2, PS3, PS4, PS6, PS7, and PS8) are above 4.00. The results showed that the highest scores in Both-A include PS4 (4.50) and PS6 (4.50), and the lowest score is PS5 (3.47). Generally speaking, PS4, PS6, and PS8 were highly used by both groups, and both groups show the lowest score in PS5 (3.37 in CAPT; 3.47 in Both-A). In both CAPT and Both-A, scores in PS4 (3.73/ 4.50) were higher than PS1 (3.50/ 3.67), indicating learners' more focus on prosodic than segmental features.

Strategy Use between CBPT and Both-B

Significance differences were also found observed between the CBPT and Both-B groups. Both-B also showed obviously higher mean scores than learners who used CBPT only, with six items (PS1, PS2, PS3, PS4, PS6, and PS8) showing mean scores above 4.00. The results indicate that the highest scores in Both-B include PS2 (4.27) and PS8 (4.27), and the lowest is PS5 (3.70). Thus, PS8 was highly used by CBPT and Both-B, and both groups show the lowest score in PS5 (3.43 in CBPT; 3.70 in Both-B). It was also observed that CBPT and Both-B showed similar scores in PS1 (3.47/ 4.10) and PS4 (3.47/ 4.13), showing learners gave equal weights on segmental and prosodic features.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Comparison of Learning Activities between CAPT and CBPT

According to the earlier results, students use pronunciation activities in CAPT and CBPT with different numbers and percentage, suggesting that learning context and pronunciation activities may be correlated. Although all these pronunciation learning activities were used in both CAPT and CBPT, their distributions are significantly different. Generally speaking, teachers or students employ more and versatile pronunciation learning activities in the traditional classroom, rather than in CAPT. One possible explanation is that it may be easier for learners to notice these learning activities in the classroom with the help of teachers. Learners may have more opportunities to notice different learning activities in the classroom with the teacher's introduction. In CAPT, however, learners usually use computer software for pronunciation training alone. They need to rely on their own judgment to decide learning activities available to them. In other words, learners have to resort to their capabilities to set their goals, select their preferable or suitable learning activities, and monitor their own learning. With so much working load, therefore, learners may not be able to notice these activities easily without the help of teachers, except some salient ones. Learners may choose the activity more suitable or appropriate for them, and thus ignore other available learning activities. Teachers' guide in the classroom might be the reason why more learning activities were employed in CBPT rather than CAPT.

In the further detailed analysis of learning activities in each context of CAPT and CBPT, it shows different distributions of pronunciation activities exist within each learning context. Learners in CAPT often seek demonstration from tutors on the screen and imitate their pronunciation. This is probably because learners in CAPT can actively manipulate the frequency of the model's demonstration for the convenience of their imitation. One of the advantages of demonstration and imitation is to help learners notice the gap and compare their own pronunciation with the model.

Besides, with automatic speech recognition, learners' pronunciation is recorded and analyzed. Learners could further modify their pronunciation until they are able to produce their own desirable output based on the feedback given. The pronunciation activity students used the least in CAPT is minimal pair drills, and they used more activities focusing on prosodic features such as intonation, stress, and rhythm in CAPT. This unequal preference and distribution may reflect the activity design of the software, and the need of the students who see suprasegmental feature learning as the priority. Learners in CAPT also seldom receive certain strategies instructions in pronunciation learning from the computer. This may suggest that pronunciation learning strategies are not taught explicitly, but taught implicitly in the form of different learning activities, or not taught at all. When students use CAPT alone, it might be difficult for them to build strategic competence well without the facilitation of explicit strategy instruction. The importance of explicit strategy instruction was proposed by Chamot (2004), who evaluated three models of strategy instructions in language learning. Such explicit strategy instructions were rarely employed in CAPT, and this may explain why learners received few explicit PSs from the computer.

In CBPT, students employed activities focusing on prosodic features the most. However, it does not mean that learners ignore segmental features of language. In fact, from the results, the percentage of minimal drills use is almost equal to that of the intonation, stress, and rhythm tasks in the classroom. In other words, students and teachers in the classroom emphasize the importance of both segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation. A systematic strategy instruction on pronunciation from teachers also seems unavailable in the classroom.

B. Learners' Strategy Use between CAPT and CBPT

Based on the analysis of learners' learning strategy use in pronunciation between CAPT and CBPT, there is no significant difference. The average scores of learners' PSs are around 3.60. These results suggest that learners' strategy use score in pronunciation is slightly higher than the average score as a whole. Although learners did use strategies to solve difficulties in pronunciation learning, they did not use them to a very high degree in CAPT and CBPT. This phenomenon could be explained from the earlier investigation of learning activities in pronunciation that teachers or software designers seldom provide strategy-based instruction in pronunciation teaching, or pinpoint certain strategies for use. Besides, learners' similar behaviors and strategy use between CAPT and CBPT suggest that the computer pronunciation learning software could simulate the learning context of traditional classroom instruction at least in terms of learners' strategic competence. However, it also suggests that though such a simulation is obvious, both CAPT and CBPT do not emphasize learners' building of strategic competence in their learning contexts.

In both CAPT and CBPT, firstly, learners use memory and imitation to learn pronunciation to a very high degree. This suggests that learners consider teachers' demonstration and imitation the most effective way in pronunciation learning. This also reflects the earlier results that activities of demonstration and imitation are favored in overall pronunciation learning. Secondly, learners pay little attention to the quality of pronunciation, and that is what makes a foreign accent. For example, ESL or EFL learners usually perceive that the difference between two vowels [i] and [ɪ] simply lies in their length, rather than the nuance of their qualities (Bohn, 1995). However, for native speakers, they can perceive this qualitative difference and recognize the accent (Hillenbrand & Clark, 2000). It indicates that learners in CAPT and CBPT are not aware of this issue when learning pronunciation. These two findings altogether suggest that when learners imitate teachers' pronunciation, they do not notice its qualitative features. Possible reasons could be that teachers do not give appropriate feedback when demonstrating, or they are even not able to recognize the qualitative differences themselves. Wang and Munro (2004) mentioned about the latter possibility, suggesting such a pedagogical misdirection could reinforce learners' impression on the false pronunciation and thus leads to fossilization.

In the micro-view of each PS use, some preferences were also discovered in each learning context. As mentioned earlier, learners' more focus on paralanguage and prosodic features of language than on a single sound or syllable in CAPT reflects the general design of the software. It may imply traditional minimal pair drills could no longer satisfy those who wish to learn suprasegmental features of language. CAPT provides practice of intonation, stress, and rhythm of sentences and words, and it also requires learners to focus on speed, volume, and clarity when recording their own speech. In CBPT, learners also have lots of emphasis on paralanguage. Learners in both learning contexts highly evaluate the importance of the speed, volume, and clarity of the speech in order to make themselves understood and comprehensible. Compared with other strategies making a speaker sound more like native (e.g. sounds below the syllable-level and the quality of sounds), learners' attention to paralanguage seems to imply that comprehensible pronunciation as the goal is more prevalent nowadays than native like pronunciation nowadays.

C. Learners' Strategy Use in Both CAPT and CBPT

Significant differences were observed in strategy use between learners studying in either CAPT or CBPT, and learners in both contexts (Both-A, Both-B). This comparison aims to investigate the effectiveness of pronunciation learning in both contexts simultaneously.

The results indicated that learners studying pronunciation in both CAPT and CBPT showed higher frequency in their strategy use than learners studying in either one. Though there is a general increase in strategy use for learners who had learned pronunciation in both contexts, exceptions were also observed. In context of CAPT, receiving both trainings did not increase the use of strategies focusing on the articulation of a single sound (PS1) and on sound qualities (PS5) very much. This may reflect the less use of minimal pair drills in CAPT, and learning activities in pronunciation training thus

possibly serve as one factor determining the frequency of certain PS use by learners. In other words, although learners receiving both trainings showed obvious increase in PS use, such an influence is constrained by the nature of the learning context, such as learning activities. On the other hand, in CBPT context, although minimal pair drills were used often and they helped learners focus on articulation of a single sound, they did not promote learners' use of strategy focusing on sound quality (PS5). It seems that, teachers in minimal pair drills seldom pinpoint the importance of sound quality in pronunciation teaching, and learners also often overlook this fundamental difference in pronunciation learning. Teacher thus needs to provide appropriate guidance along with these drills.

These results bring one important question. Why did the frequency of PS use increase from learners who had learned in both contexts? One possible explanation is that when learning in both contexts, students are more aware of specific needs for each learning context, and have opportunities to compare their learning strategies. This comparison may promote learners' ability to notice the effectiveness of PSs, and employ the strategies they had used in the earlier context to the context where they are. In other words, with the prior experience of pronunciation learning, learners can take advantage of the schema in strategy use, especially those effective ones. Besides, involvement of more learning contexts implies more opportunities for learners to practice. In Anderson's (1983) ACT Model, practice is believed one important factor helping language learners achieve proceduralization. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) further adapted Anderson's theory to explain language strategy from a process-based perspective. They see strategies as "special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of the information" (p. 1), and strategy use also requires proceduralization. This proceduralization may be facilitated by learning pronunciation in both contexts.

VII. CONCLUSION

A. Summaries of the Findings in the Current Study

This current study investigated the effectiveness and nature of pronunciation learning in CAPT and CBPT. Firstly, the main findings suggest pronunciation learning activities are distributed differently in CAPT and CBPT. More learning activities are used in CBPT than in CAPT, and this may be related to teachers' help in the classroom. Students in CAPT used more activities related to suprasegments than segments (minimal pair drills). In CBPT, learners used activities related to both segments and suprasegments often. In both CAPT and CBPT, learners often relied on teachers' demonstration and their imitation, but seldom received explicit strategy teaching. These activities employed may affect learners' strategy choice.

Learners in either CAPT or CBPT showed similar performance in strategy use. In both learning contexts, learners relied on memory and imitation very much, but rarely noticed different qualities of sounds. When learning in both contexts simultaneously, learners' use of PSs increased obviously. It is possible that this increase results from more opportunities for learners in both contexts to notice and practice.

B. Pedagogical and Theoretical Implications

Based on the findings derived from the current study, some pedagogical and theoretical implications are proposed for pronunciation teaching and learning.

Firstly, according to the findings, CAPT can simulate traditional pronunciation classroom teaching in terms of strategic awareness and knwledge. This may help those who cannot learn from pronunciation classes plan, monitor, and evaluate their own pronunciation learning as well as construct autonomy outside the classroom. Besides, learning activities revealed in each context reflect the focus and belief of teaching materials and syllabi. Teachers and researchers could be more aware of them, and make appropriate decisions in pronunciation teaching.

Secondly, teachers or program designers need to raise learners' strategic awareness in pronunciation more effectively. One way to do so is through the use of both CAPT and CBPT altogether. That learners' focus more on segments in CBPT and suprasegments in CAPT may be related to activities in each learning context suggests the need to keep balance of both trainings. Learning in both contexts simultaneously may effectively raise learners' awareness of learning strategy use, help transfer their problem solving abilities from one context to the other, and provide more opportunities to practice for the final autonomous stage, as claimed by Anderson (1983). Another way is to develop learners' strategic competence embedded in the teaching curriculum or materials through different models of strategy instruction. In this way, teachers really teach learners how to pronounce in a desirable way, rather than simply test or check their pronunciation based on demonstration and imitation.

Moreover, teachers and learners should emphasize more on qualitative features of language, which might have been ignored in both CAPT and CBPT. Our earlier analysis shows that the role of teacher is important in helping learners to notice such nuance. Even though in CAPT where no particular human teachers are available to learners, the system needs to be well organized to facilitate learners' recognition of some blind spots in pronunciation learning.

Learners of different levels may apply different strategies in language learning, reflecting their general stage of second language development (Ellis, 1994). In this current study where participants are high achievers in English, learners' pronunciation learning strategies revealed may reflect their current stage of second language acquisition. This finding can help researchers to have a clearer picture of parallel between language learning strategy and second language development. It also helps teachers explore strategies that are appropriate for their students according to their proficiency.

C.   Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

  Some limitations can still be noted on the design of the current study. First of all, these participants are mainly English high achievers, and thus may have some effects on the final results. Second, we have limited sample size for the reason of availability, which could be improved in the future research. Also, the effectiveness of different pronunciation training programs can be analyzed to generate a more representative model for CAPT. Finally, researchers can investigate learners' strategic knowledge more deeply through face-to-face interviews. In this way, researchers can have a better understanding of the actual process of how and when learners utilize these knowledge and strategies.

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Ting Fang got his B. A. in Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures from National Taiwan University, and got his M. A. and is currently a PhD student in English Department (TESOL) of National Taiwan Normal University. His main research interest is second language acquisition, particularly language strategies and psycholinguistics.

Chih-Cheng Lin is an associate professor in English Department of National Taiwan Normal University. His main research interest is computer assisted language learning and teaching.

The Application of Syntactic Priming in Second Language Research

Ahmad Ameri-Golestan
Department of English, Majlesi Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran
Email: a.ameri@iaumajlesi.ac.ir

Marzieh Nezakat-Alhossaini
Department of English, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—In this report, we provide a brief discussion of syntactic priming and how this methodology has provided insight into issues of syntactic representation, specifically in terms of the autonomy of syntax and the relationship between production and perception in syntactic representation. We present results from studies related to syntactic priming in bilinguals and second/foreign language learners that focus on the ways in which syntactic priming can illuminate the representation of syntax in acquisition and bilingual grammar. Finally, we suggest further paths of research using this methodology.

Index Terms—syntactic priming, second language research, L2 learners, L2 syntax

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most difficult issues in language research is trying to determine what occurs when an individual is processing a second language. This question is related to the nature of representations the learner draws upon and also the way in which incoming information is integrated into these representations. Syntactic priming, as a research methodology, has been employed in order to deal with such issues since the mid 1980s. Syntactic priming occurs when a speaker produces a structure they have recently heard, and is defined as the tendency to produce a particular structure a speaker has encountered in their recent discourse, as opposed to an alternative structure (McDonough & Mackey, 2008); similarly, syntactic priming can be defined as a proposal that processing a specific syntactic structure will affect the subsequent processing of the same or related syntactic structure (Branigan, Pickering, Liversedge, Stewart, & Urbach, 1995) and may happen when repeating syntactic structures across unrelated sentences (Bock, 1986; Branigan, 2007). Priming effects may be interpersonal, that is, a speaker may repeat a structure they heard someone else use or else they may be intrapersonal, which occurs when a speaker repeats a structure they have already used.

Syntactic priming is both a mechanism and a method. As a method, it can be used to address theoretical questions in linguistics and psycholinguistics, such as, the representation of language as well as language comprehension and production (Bock, Dell, Chang, & Onishi, 2007). As a mechanism, it has to do with mechanisms of learning that are relevant to first language acquisition and production, especially in terms of the residual activation of syntactic representation (Branigan, 2007).

After the discovery of syntactic priming (also called structural persistence and structural priming), there have been numerous studies across a wide variety of populations. Syntactic priming has been the focus of studies with children (e.g. Garrod & Clark, 1993), aphasiacs (e.g. Saffran & Martin, 1997), bilinguals (e.g. Bernolet, Hartsuiker, & Pickering, 2007; Schoonbaert, Hartsuiker, & Pickering, 2007), and second/foreign language learners (e.g. Gries & Wulff, 2005; Kim & McDonough, 2008; McDonough, 2006).

II. NATIVE LANGUAGE SYNTACTIC PRIMING

Bock (1986) was the first study which specifically applied structural priming to investigate the process and representation of language. In her study, speakers repeated prime sentences (transitive and dative structures) and afterwards they described target pictures which were semantically unrelated to one another. The results showed that speakers tended to use an active description of the target picture after an active prime structure and a passive description after a passive prime structure. This also happened with dative sentences.

Bock's (1986) investigation of syntactic priming has stimulated numerous scholars to answer a variety of questions related to the implications of syntactic priming. In a paper reviewing the most important studies on syntactic (or structural) priming, Pickering and Ferreira (2008) reported studies which used syntactic priming to provide evidence for autonomous syntax indicating that the production of a sentence largely depends on an abstract syntactic form which can be defined in terms of part of speech forms and phrasal constituents organized from these and they believed that this abstract syntactic form has a large impact on syntactic priming.

Another line of research stimulated by earlier studies of syntactic priming has concerned the question of (implicit) learning. In fact, recent research has examined syntactic priming as possibly facilitating implicit learning. Seger (1994) defined implicit learning as involving knowledge which is not accessible to consciousness; implicit learning is, to some extent, complex and abstract; it incidentally happens as some tasks are being performed, and finally, it is preserved in cases of amnesia (Bock & Griffin, 2000). Bock and Griffin (2000) believed that all these four characteristics can be attributed to syntactic priming as facilitating implicit learning.

Conflicting results have emerged from this body of research. On the one hand, the results from certain studies suggested that syntactic priming effects, used in language production, are quite short-lived (Branigan, Pickering, & Cleland, 1999). Although they demonstrated syntactic priming in written production, they could not find any evidence for the durability of syntactic priming. This rapid decay happened when other structures intervened between the prime and target. They presented that reliable priming occurred in situations when the target immediately followed the prime. In other words, priming between consecutive completions is not likely to be affected by earlier completion.

On the other hand, Bock and Griffin (2000) came to the conclusion that priming does result in implicit learning. The authors defined implicit learning as the automatic non-deliberative character of structural representation, its abstractness, and its persistence over time. They investigated the issue to see whether syntactic priming leads to implicit learning. In their experiments (Experiment 1: priming over short lags, that is, two intervening sentences; and Experiment 2: priming over longer lags, that is, 10 intervening sentences), they demonstrated priming effects. Specifically their results showed that syntactic priming can persist over short and long filled intervals because other utterances which were produced during these intervals suggested that syntactic priming would not easily be disrupted by general interference from other events. (see also Bock & Kroch, 1989; Hartsuiker & Kolk, 1998; Weiner & Labov, 1983 for studies of persistence of priming).

Bock and Griffin (2000) pointed out although lexical repetition enhances structural repetition, it is not essential to it. That is because there are two different factors at work. First, the activation of specific words in memory supports the subsequent activation of a recently used structure, creating structural repetition. Furthermore, when sentences are generated from non-verbal message representation, messages produced in any of the two alternative ways tend to be formulated in terms of primed procedures, reflecting structural priming.

An important question that might come up at this stage is what the authors mean by "learning." Bock and Griffin (2000) interpreted their results as "learning to talk" rather than "learning language." They pointed out that the results obtained from the two studies suggested that syntactic priming occur within a system specialized for learning how to produce sequences of words. They believed that this kind of learning is the consequence of the learning processes themselves (pp. 188-189).

III. Second Language Learner and Syntactic Priming

In addition to the investigation of syntactic priming among native language speakers, numerous studies have also been conducted on syntactic priming among second language learners (bilinguals, second/foreign language learners). Different aspects of these language users were examined, in terms of representation, comprehension, and production.

One of the most important issues that have concerned second language/bilingual researchers is the representation of the two languages in the bilinguals' brain/mind. Are the two languages integrated/shared or separate among bilinguals? That is, if the two languages are shared, the bilingual has a single store for the two languages, and if the two languages are separate, the bilingual has separate stores for them (Hartsuiker, Pickering, & Veltkamp, 2004). Hartsuiker et al. (2004) pointed out that although much research has been conducted investigating this question in terms of the representation of words or concepts (e.g., Kroll & Stewart, 1994; McElree, Jia, & Litvak, 2000), little has been done on whether other aspects of language (e.g., syntax) are shared or separate (see also Hartsuiker & Pickering, 2008). Hartsuiker et al. (2004) investigated the question of whether syntax is separate or shared among Spanish-English bilinguals. They tested the shared-syntax account taking into consideration the evidence from syntactic priming. They believed that if syntax is shared between the two languages, it would predict cross-linguistic syntactic priming. Using a picture description task which contained active/passive constructions and the confederates in order to collect the data, Hartsuiker et al. (2004) came to the conclusion that the experiment showed cross-linguistic syntactic priming in dialogue. They reported that Spanish-English bilinguals produced English passive sentences more often after a Spanish passive sentence than after a Spanish intransitive or active sentence. They pointed that the results demonstrated cross-linguistic syntactic priming between production and comprehension in the context of interactive language use between the languages that are moderately related.

McDonough (2006), in line with previous research on interaction studies, explored whether syntactic priming plays a role in L2 development through interaction. She tried to answer two research questions. Does syntactic priming occur during interaction between L2 English speakers, and whether English L2 speakers show increased use of the target structure following exposure to the confederate's primes? In order to answer her research questions, she used a picture description task and dative alternation as the target structure. Furthermore, to increase the authenticity of interaction among the participants, she used the 'modified confederate scripting technique' (Branigan, Pickering, & Cleland, 2000). Here, confederates are advanced language learners or research assistants who participate in picture description sessions

instead of the researcher. They have the same pictures as the participants, but their pictures are scripted for the prime *only*.

In order to answer the questions, McDonough (2006) conducted two experiments. The results of the first experiment showed that the interaction between these ESL speakers (the L2 learner participants and the confederates) showed evidence of syntactic priming for prepositional datives, but not for double object datives. She believed that one reason why syntactic priming was not effective for the double object construction could be because these ESL learners had not learned the complex semantic and morphological rules required for the production of the double object datives. To explain the results, McDonough (2006) pointed out that previous research which adopted a usage-based approach (Bley-Vroman & Yoshinaga, 1992; Inagaki, 1997), where development starts with formulaic expression and proceeds to a limited scope pattern, and eventually to abstract representations (Tomasello, 2000), has shown that second language learners are not sensitive to all of the narrow-range rules (Pinker, 1989). Therefore, it can be inferred that these second language learners resort to an item-based learning where they are more sensitive to the number of times a particular verb appears in the double object dative form (McDonough, 2006, p. 193). She believed that her participants could not have mastered the abstract representation yet; consequently, their production of double object datives was limited to specific lexical items.

In order to answer the second research question, McDonough (2006) conducted a second experiment in which she used the same procedure as in the first experiment, except for the target structure. Although the target structure was, like the first experiment, dative alternation, she only used double-object datives as primes. The results of the second experiment showed that the interaction between the interlocutors showed no evidence of syntactic priming. The experiment showed that the participants tended to use significantly more prepositional datives than double object datives. It seems that exposure to the confederates and being provided with primes (double object datives) had no significant effect on their subsequent production.

Kim and McDonough (2008) examined the impact of syntactic priming on Korean EFL learners' production of passive sentences. Taking EFL proficiency into account, they explored the question of whether syntactically primed passives would result in increased production of such structures among their Korean EFL participants. The participants, divided into three proficiency groups, took part in individually held picture description sessions. The results indicated that all three proficiency groups produced significantly more passives when primed by the researcher. However, the difference for the low group was more significant than for the middle and high groups, which could be because the impact of individual lexical items was greater for those learners, which is in line with previous research in L1 (Pickering & Branigan, 1998). Kim and McDonough (2008) explained that these learners are more dependent on individual lexical items compared with advanced learners.

Ameri-Golestan (2010) investigated syntactic priming effects on Persian speaking L2 learners of English production of indirect questions/requests. In Experiment 1, which intended to see whether priming facilitates the subsequent use of the target structure, the participants took part in individually held picture description sessions. The results showed that syntactic priming was effective and, actually, increased the likelihood of subsequently producing indirect questions/requests among the participants. In Experiment2, which dealt with the impact of syntactic priming on modality transfer, the participants were asked to provide a written description of the pictures they had described in the previous session. The results indicated that the participants of the high-proficiency group outperformed those of the mid-proficiency and control groups in transferring syntactic priming effects from one skill to another. He pointed out that one important explanation for such results could be presented in terms of *inverse-preference effects* (Pickering & Ferreira, 2008) according to which structures that are less preferred (indirect questions/requests among Persian-speaking EFL learners) seem to exhibit higher syntactic priming. They believed that these effects could be because of the way speakers process prime structures, or the way they process target structures (see also Hartsuiker & Kolk, 1998; Hartsuiker, Kolk, & Huiskamp, 1999; Scheepers, 2003).

IV. THE RELEVANCE OF SYNTACTIC PRIMING FOR L2 SYNTAX

But what does all this mean for L2/bilingual syntax? The most important contribution of syntactic priming studies to L2 syntax is that such studies tap into mental representation of language in a bilingual mind: whether it is shared or separate. That is, when the bilingual is primed for a particular structure in one language, they tend to use the same type of structure in the other. For example, Spanish-English bilingual participants of Hartsuiker et al.'s (2004) experiment, who had been primed by Spanish passives, tended to use a passive structure when describing a picture in English.

We also agree with Pickering and Ferreira (2008) who believed that syntactic priming is informing linguistic theory. Not only syntactic priming studies have investigated the representation of language in adult monolingual native speakers, it can also help determine the linguistic systems of other populations as well; such as, children, second language learners, bilinguals, and aphasiacs. Particularly, cross-linguistic priming is especially seen as informative about the extent to which structures in different languages should be analyzed in the same way.

V. CRITIQUE

Syntactic priming, like any other research methodology, is not without any criticism. An important critique that can be leveled at syntactic priming studies is that of scope. Most syntactic priming studies have dealt with a limited number of structures among a variety of populations. For example, while numerous studies have focused on dative alternation (double-object vs. prepositional object) and passives, very few studies have examined other structures.

Another criticism that can be put forward is that syntactic priming effects might be semantic rather than syntactic or structural, and that speakers may repeat abstract aspects of semantic structure (Garrod & Anderson, 1987). Furthermore, Bock, Loebell, and Morey (1992) showed that the semantic features which are assigned to a specific position in the sentence (when an animate is the subject, for example) seem to play some role in syntactic priming.

Some other studies have shown that syntactic priming effects might be lexical rather than syntactic. For example, Kim and McDonough (2008) pointed out that their results can be interpreted in terms of the impact of individual lexical items. That is, the fact that their participants produced more passives when primed by that particular structure was because of the difference in the impact of individual lexical items among the proficiency groups. That is, the less proficient the learner, the more they depended on individual lexical items. This interpretation questions the conclusion that syntactic priming played any role in the results they obtained with low-proficiency group.

Furthermore, there is a possibility that syntactic priming is strategic. That is, people deliberately choose to use the same syntax as another speaker, perhaps to make the other speaker feel positively towards them (Branigan, p.c.).

VI. FURTHER RESEARCH

It seems obvious that syntactic priming studies are new to the investigation of language studies both L1 and, particularly, L2. There are numerous directions to further research using priming as an alternative research methodology. One of the most interesting and promising areas of L2 syntactic priming research is the representation of language, considering the role language proficiency plays into account. One of these issues is cross-linguistic syntactic integration (De Bot, 1992; Ullman, 2001), that is, to what extent the two languages are separate. This question can further be investigated using syntactic priming methodology. Different structures can be used, especially those which are different between languages and usually learners have problems with.

One of the most important problems with studies which have been conducted on syntactic priming is that they use a very limited number of structures. For example, so many studies have investigated double-object vs. prepositional object priming, and some studies have dealt with active vs. passive priming and noun phrases. It seems that much more structures can be dealt with using syntactic priming as a research methodology; such as, indirect speech, relative clauses, wh-questions, tag questions, etc.

Another important line of research can be the investigation of classroom context. Syntactic priming can be used as a research methodology to investigate classroom interaction, that is, learner-learner interaction as well as teacher-learner interaction. For example, in order to present grammar points using more traditional methodology, they can be primed. The teacher can prime the structure and then encourage the students to use that particular structure in their two-by-two interaction and classroom activities.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study intended to present a 'short report' on some of the studies that have been conducted on syntactic priming as a research methodology which investigated different aspects of language acquisition in terms of representation, comprehension, and production. Our main purpose in this paper is to encourage researchers to consider syntactic priming as an alternative research methodology. We believe that the issues we introduced in this report are worth contemplating, and considering for further research; lots of studies can be done to investigate the representation of language among bilinguals to see whether the two languages are shared or separate, considering a variety of languages, participants, and tasks. Furthermore, the role language proficiency plays in the process of second language acquisition and EFL/ESL classroom context can be investigated by syntactic priming as a research methodology.

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Ahmad Ameri-Golestan, born in Isfahan, Iran, obtained his PhD in Teaching English as Foreign Language from Khorasgan Azad University, Isfahan, in 2010.

He currently works as the HEAD OF ENGLISH DEPARTMEN at Islamic Azad University- Majlesi Branch, Isfahan. His academic papers are published in national and international journals. He has also presented papers in national and international conferences, such as the Second International IDEA Conference, Ankara, Turkey, 2007 and the 7th International TELLSI conference, Yazd, Iran. He has also published an ESP textbook: English for Students of Medicine (second edition) (Tehran, SAMT publications, 2011). His main research interests are syntactic priming and second language acquisition research.

Dr. Ameri is currently a member of TELLSI (Teachers of English Language and Literature Society of Iran).

Marzieh Nezakat-Alhossaini, born in Isfahan, Iran, obtained her MA in Teaching English as Foreign Language from Islamic Azad University –Najafabad Branch, Isfahan, in 2007. She is a PhD candidate of TEFL at University of Isfahan.

She currently works as an instructor in Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan. She has also presented papers in national and international conferences, such as the Second International IDEA Conference, Ankara, Turkey, 2007 and the 4th and the 7th International TELLSI conferences, Shiraz and Yazd, Iran. Her main research interests are syntactic priming and second language acquisition research.

Ms. Nezakat is currently a member of TELLSI (Teachers of English Language and Literature Society of Iran).

Translation of Poetic Diction in Literary Translation: A Case Study of *Macbeth* and Its Persian Translations

Sajjad Jahansepas
Department of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: sajjadjahansepas@gmail.com

Manijeh Youhanaee
Department of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Hossein Pirnajmuddin
Department of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—This study is an attempt to identify and examine the poetic diction in dramatic/literary texts and their translations. Diction is an important stylistic element of all literary texts. The present study focuses on this element in texts of drama and the strategies used for its translation. To show such strategies at work a dramatic/literary text, namely *Macbeth* by Shakespeare, and its four Persian translations, (Ahmadi (1957) - Shadman (1972) - Ashouri (1992) and Pasargadi (1999)), were selected. A descriptive/comparative analysis was done on the original text and its translations and their use of adjectives as a component of poetic diction. To see how the poetic diction of the ST in terms of adjectives is rendered in the translations the following were considered: the selection of appropriate equivalents in terms of semantic/thematic aspects as well as stylistic aspects and the literary discourse patterns. Also of importance is the role of diction in making a dramatic text performable/speakabel, hence its further significance in the translation of such texts. Thus the present study has paid close attention to aspects of each of the translations as the effectiveness of the procedures applied by translators for translating them.

Index Terms—literary translation, drama translation, poetic diction, style, *Macbeth*

I. Introduction

Many literary and translation critics have written books dealing with the literary translation and translated literature; particularly, the difficulties of "translating well" and being "faithful" either in message or in form, especially in poetry, were the main concern of them. The clash has always been between the beauty of form and fidelity to the message. It is obvious that our definition and identification of translation differs depending on whether we have the product or the process of translation in mind. When the translational stylistics is at issue, then, the stylistic elements of source and target texts are considered more closely.

According to Jakobson, "in nonliterary discourse, the word is a mere vehicle for what it refers to. In literary discourse, the word or phrase is brought into a much more active and reinforcing relationship, serving, as it were, to echo, mime, or somehow represent what is signified, as well as to refer to it" (Lianeri & Zajko, 2008, p.38).

Speaking of stylistics, we have to keep in mind that every piece of written text has its own style, i.e. no written text or in bigger scale no discourse is styleless. In fact, style is one of the most tormented terms in literary criticism because of its controversial meaning and its disputed relevance. All that makes the notion of style a controversial one is the "manner of expression" which differs from one writer to another one or even from one text of a writer to the other text of the same writer.

II. The Study

The present study was designed to provide answers to the following questions:

1. How much the translators of *Macbeth* have considered the elements of diction of the ST in their translations into Persian language?

2. What procedures each translator has used in rendering the stylistic elements of the ST? And how effectively?

III. Study Background

Hatim and Munday define translation as "an incredibly broad notion which can be understood in many different ways" (2004, p. 3). Nevertheless, as a general understanding of translation they use a simple sentence to clarify the notion,

"more typically it just refers to the transfer of written texts, the term sometimes also includes interpreting" (Hatim and Munday, 2004, p.1).

Newmark (1988, p.8) defines translation as "in a narrow sense, translation theory is concerned with the translation method appropriately used for a certain type of text, and it is therefore dependant on the functional theory of language.

Literary translation is one of the four principal categories of translation. The others are interpreting, scientific and technical, and commercial/business translation. Literary translation in not confined to the translation of great works of literature. All kinds of books, plays, poems, short stories and writings are covered, including such items as a collection of jokes, the script of a documentary, a travel guide, a science textbook and an opera libretto. Baker believes "the very use and combination of literary and translation is symptomatic of the casual way in which the concepts of literature and of translation have so far been taken for granted. Neither concept is simple nor well defined in most cultures" (Baker, 2001, p.130). Hermans also considers literary translation as a different kind of translation and believes that "literary translation represents a distinctive kind of translation because it is concerned with a distinctive kind of text" (Hermans, cited in Kuhiwczak & Littau, 2007, p.77). According to Peter France's *Oxford Guide to Literature in English Translation* (2000, p. xxi) literary translations are "designed to be read as literature" and France cites with approval Gideon Toury's distinction between 'literary translation' and the 'translation of literary texts', the latter, nonliterary form of translation being described as 'informational'. Andre Lefevere downplays the importance of linguistic aspects of translation and highlights instead the role of poetics and of ideological factors and institutional control (Bassnet & Lefevere, 1998).

Aesthetic translation, however, is a kind of translation that emphasizes the aesthetical possessions of a text in its source language and culture. The most important factor about carrying out an aesthetic translation, as Casagrande (1954) puts it, is to keep the text as beautiful in translation as it is in its own language, culture and context. Casagrande (1954) states that the meaning is not sacrifiesed for the sake of beauty in such a translation. The importance of aesthetic-poetic factor in such a translation does not mean the impossibility of transferring the meaning or content; on the contrary, this means a double burden for the translator to keep them in his translation. Casagrande believes that "of the several aims, the aesthetic-poetic is the most difficult of realization and the most demanding of the translator's art and skills" (p.1). He also names rhyme, meter, imagery, metaphor, onomatopoeia, and style the particular form into which the work of translation is cast. He adds that these are the most difficult elements for any translator to keep in translation. Casagrande considers the style of the writer as an idiolect defying translation (ibid).

Dramatic Translation

Only limited scholarly attention has been devoted to the translation of drama, probably owing to the special problems confronting the translator translating for the stage. Unlike the translations of a novel, or a poem, the duality inherent in the heart of the theater requires language to combine with spectacle, manifested through visual as well as acoustic images and other dramatic components of theater in general. As Van Den Brook puts it (1988), "the translator is therefore confronted with the choice of either viewing drama as literature or as an integral part of theatrical production (cited in Baker, 2001, p. 71).

Toury mentions drama translation as: "here (drama translation), because it forms part of an integrated whole, greater demands are also placed on the translation with respect to its performability', thus increasing the tension between the need to establish relationships between the target text and its source (the adequacy factor), and the need to formulate a text in the target language (the acceptability factor)" (1980, p. 29).

Satisfying the linguistic requirements of preformablity may require adjustments on a number of different levels. Further difficulties arise if the play is in verse or, as in the case of the play like Shakespeare's *Macbeth* in variety of verse and prose text. On his book about literary translation, Lefevere writes, "there is practically no theoretical literature on the translation of drama as acted and produced" (1980, p.178).

"The main purpose of translating a play is", as Newmark puts it (1988, p, 172), "normally to have it performed successfully". Therefore, a translator of drama inevitably has to bear the potential spectator in mind though. Newmark (1988, p.173) continues "unlike the translator of fiction, drama translator, cannot gloss, explain puns or ambiguities or cultural references, nor transcribe words for the sake of local color". He also quotes a sentence from T. Rattigan: "the spoken word is five times as potent as the written word –what a novelist would say in thirty lines, the playwright must say in five" (Newmark, 1988. P. 173). Newmark finishes his words on dramatic translation warning the translators about drama:

[F]inally a translator of drama in particular must translate into the modern target language if he wants his characters to 'live', bearing in mind that the modern language covers a span of, say 70 years, and that if one character speaks in a bookish or old-fashioned way in the original, written 500 years ago, he must speak in an equally bookish and old fashioned way in translation, but as he would today, therefore with a corresponding time-gap – differences of register, social class, education temperament in particular must be preserved between on character and another. (p. 174)

Stylistics and Style

According to *The Fontana Dictionary of Modern Thought* (1988, 2nd ed.), "Stylistics is a branch of linguistics which studies the characteristics of situationally-distinctive uses of language, with particular reference to literary language, and tries to establish principles capable of accounting for particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of language".

According to Thornborrow et. al (1998, p. 2), "stylistic analysis of the styles of the writers could include their words, phrases, sentence order, and even the organization of their plots". Accordingly, some key aspects of stylistics are:

1. The use of linguistics (the study of language) to approach literary texts

2. The discussion of texts according to objective criteria rather than according to purely subjective and impressionistic values

3. Emphasis on the aesthetic properties of language, for example, the way rhyme can give pleasure

Briefly, stylistics is the study and interpretation of texts from a linguistic perspective, and as an interdiscipline it links literary criticism and linguistics. Watson and Zyngier consider it as "sitting uncomfortably on the fence between the linguistic and the literary studies, and as a bit uneasy within either domain" (2007, p.vii).

Stylistics in Drama

According to Brown (2007) the first attempts to analyze the style of drama "was carried on the factors of analyzing poetry and as it is obvious these factors are not able to clarify all the potentials of plays, as dramatic texts are multifunctional ones" (p.2702). It is only by the advent of more appropriate tools from linguistics that the stylistic study of plays becomes completely possible for stylisticians. Stylisticians have used different tools of linguistics for analyzing plays such as pragmatics, conversation analysis, and discourse analysis to name some. Culpeper et.al add one more item to the obstructions of the stylistic analysis of plays. As Brown puts it, according to them "a further obstruction to the linguistic study of dramatic texts was the long-held view that in the analysis of drama, performance was of greater significance than text (2007, p.2702).

The dilemma of the dramatic texts functions were solved by Short (1981) who says, "both meanings and values will change not just from one production to another but also from one performance of a particular production to another" (Short, 1981: 181). Brown (2007) maintains, "what this suggests for the stylistic analysis of drama is that the 'play-text' should be the object of study, rather than performance" (Brown, 2007, p.2703). On the contrary, many researchers who believe in the importance of the style in dramatic texts such as Clifford Landers strongly states "even style, which is by no means unimportant in dramatic translation, sometimes must yield to the reality that actors have to be able to deliver the lines in a convincing and natural manner" (Zatlin, 2005, p.7).

In the Elizabethan period plays were primarily written for performance. Particularly in earlier periods plays did not just present dialogue, but would also include monologues, songs, and letters (to be read out). However, dialogue was and is the central characteristic of play texts. Generally, play dialogues of all ages are considerably neater – closer to the norms of prose writing. Biber and Finegan (1992, p.699), considering dialogue in fiction and in drama over four centuries beginning with the 17th century, point out that literary dialogue in all periods is unlike modern conversation with respect to its higher informational load, perhaps due to the need to advance the plot. The main finding of their 1992 paper was that all genres have 'drifted' over the four centuries towards a more 'oral' style (i.e., have become more involved and situated, but less abstract), except for some counter-developments towards more literate styles in the 18th century.

As Mao Dun (2003) puts it if a translator wants to reproduce the original style satisfactorily in his translation, s/he must keep two points in mind before undertaking the translation, namely,

1. The translator must have a macroscopic point of view, namely, a view of the whole, and should always remember that what he is working at is a literary work written by somebody else and try his utmost to turn his translation into a work of art, which is in conformity with the thoughts, feelings, and style of the original.

2. He must have a microscopic point of view, namely, the linguistic point of view. In the process of translating, all the paragraphs, sentences and words should be attentively studied so that the best expressions may be chosen to satisfy the needs of reproducing the thoughts, feelings and style of the original. From this point of view, style is formed by the coordination of paragraphs, sentences and words.

Poetic diction and style

The phrase poetic diction gains importance in English literature about the 19th century, when the Preface to Wordsworth's *Lyrical Ballades* (2nd ed. 1800) raised the question whether the language of poetry was essentially different from that of prose or not. For some writers poetic diction means the collection of epithets, periphrases, archaisms, etc., this was common property to most poets of the 18th century. On the other hand, there are some others for whom poetic diction means specifically poetic words and phrases that express the imaginative impassioned nature of poetry (Preminger et.al, 1986, p.194).

In Shakespeare's time, poetic diction was scarcely distinguished as a subject by itself, but belonged to the study of rhetoric, the making of tropes and distinguishing of figures, and was learned by the poets, as by other men, of school masters, and in the grammar school.

Adjectives in diction of a text

Adjectives and adverbs are extremely common in all registers, but considerably less common overall than nouns and verbs, the other two lexical word classes. Further, these two word classes distributed very differently across registers. According to Biber et.al (1999) "adjectives are most frequent in the written registers, especially academic prose" (p.504). Central adjectives are defined by their morphological, syntactic, and semantic characteristics. They can serve both attributive and predicative syntactic roles. Central adjectives are descriptive, typically characterizing the referent of a nominal expression (e.g. good and hardy soldier, artificial spirits). Further, they are gradable in meaning, that is, they

can denote degrees of a given quality. This means that they can be modified by an adverb of degree: *most kind hostess, too weak*. They also take comparative and superlative forms as above. Many of most common adjectives are central adjectives that have all of these characteristics, they include adjectives of color (e.g. *black, red, dark*), adjectives of size and dimension (e.g. *big, small, long, thin*), and adjectives of time (e.g. *new, old, young*).

Other adjectives are more peripheral in that they do not have all of the central defining characteristics above. Further, other word classes can be used in similar ways to adjectives (especially nouns, adverbs, and semi-determiners), so that the boundaries of the adjective category are not easy to draw in terms of these defining characteristics (Quirk et.al, 1985, pp. 402-437). According to Quirk et.al (1985), the greater frequency of adjectives in the written registers, especially in an attributive role, reflects the heavy reliance on noun phrases to represent information.

Translation and Reception of Shakespeare

The introduction of Shakespeare into Persian language dates back to the Qajar dynasty by Mirza Saleh-e-Shirazi. He was introduced to Shakespearean plays during his trips to Britain and his studies in British universities. The other way for Iranian intellectuals to know of Shakespeare was by their trips to Russia, Moscow, St. Petersburg and other southern Russian cities. The publication of the literary and art magazine *Bahar* could be named a turning point in Iranians' acquaintance with Shakespeare. Yousef Etesami, father of Parvin Etesami, was the one who translated Shakespeare in order to be published in magazines in Iran. From then on Shakespeare was an important name in theatrical literature for the Iranians, and even the news of Shakespeare's birthday party in Stratford was published in Persian magazines.

The first play ever translated and published in Iran is *Misanthrope*, a play by Moliere, from French into Persian in 1249 or 1890. The problem of initial translations of foreign plays into Persian was that usually the task was done by the poets not by the theater experts. Hence, the literary aspects of the text were dominant over the theatrical ones. This problem is more vivid in translations of Shakespeare into Persian language, and perhaps it is because of Shakespeare's unique way of applying English language as a medium in his plays. The literary load of the plays overweigh the dramatic values of plays in the first translations of Shakespeare into Persian.

The first full translation of a Shakespearean play dates back to Naser-ol-Molk who translated *Othello* into Persian after the Mashrouteh era. According to the critics, the translation was successful in keeping the beauty and fidelity in his translation. Naser-ol-Molk was a graduate from Oxford University who did the job. *Macbeth* is one of the plays that was introduced to Iranian readers but was not fully translated into Persian at the initial phase of translating Shakespeare into   Persian   in   the   Qajar   period   (my   translation   from: http://www.aftabir.com/articles/view/art_culture/literature_verse/c5c1285589464_theater_iran_p1.php/-نگاهی‌به‌جریان) ترجمه‌ادبیات‌نمایشی‌در‌ایران.

Shakespeare writes in a formal manner; he writes the dialogue in a poetic manner. However, the poetic speech often seems forced and difficult to understand. The vocabulary and writing style suggests that Shakespeare was highly educated in the English language. Reading any one of Shakespeare's plays feels like reading a lengthy poem and that is because they are written in a combination of verse and prose.

Shakespeare carefully writes the syntax in *Macbeth*. The sentences are carefully formed. Most sentences are long, compound, and complex. This sometimes makes the play difficult to understand and translate. Practically all of Shakespeare's plays are comprised of two very different stylistic patterns: verse and unversified speech. Often the distinction between blank verse and prose mirrors the distinction between the social status and behavioral patterns of the characters (Bradford, 1997, p.119). In *Macbeth* the noble characters mostly speak in unrhymed "iambic pentameter" also called blank verse (http://www.shmoop.com/macbeth/writing-style.html). The witches also speak in verse but it is done in a way that sets them apart from other characters. In fact, they often chant in a sing-song way that sounds like a scary nursery rhyme. Many of their lines are delivered in what is called "trochaic tetrameter" with "unrhymed couplets." Not everyone in the play speaks in verse. Ordinary folks do not talk in a special rhythm – they just talk, like the porter scene. It is not just the type of speech that sets the Porter apart from the nobles- it is also the content of what he says which is "low" or "common" (ibid).

IV. METHODOLOGY

The first step in doing the task was to read the original version and extract the chunks containing the adjective as the identified diction type in the text. The second task was to extract the equivalents from the Persian translations. The problem here was to keep all the information manageable. therefore all the chunks are exactly compared and doubly checked to exactly match the original chunks extracted from Muir's version.

The next step was calculating the frequency of the diction in the play. All the adjectives frequent more than five times were chosen to be discussed in the final analysis as key adjectives in the text. All the equivalents of these key adjectives were also extracted and were placed in tables to make it easy to compare and analyze them with the original adjectives and also with the other three translations.

The last step was to draw conclusions based on the analysis of the data using I.A. Richard and Casagrande's models, and to determine the equivalency value of the words chosen by each translator to assess the extent to which this stylistic feature is conveyed in translation.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

TABLE 1
ADJECTIVES' PERCENTAGE IN *MACBETH*

Word class	Total	Percentage
Adjectives	1102	6.02%
Other word classes	17199	93.98%
All words in the play	18302	100%

As the table shows only about %6 of the words in Macbeth are adjectives.

TABLE 2
WORD REPETITION IN THE SOURCE TEXT (ST)

Frequency	Number of words	Total	Percentage
Occurring only once	395	395	35.84%
Occurring two times	61	122	11.07%
Occurring three times	35	105	9.52%
Occurring four times	16	64	5.8%
Occurring five or more times	46	416	37.74%
Total	553	1102	100%

As it is shown in the table, many of the words, in fact most of the adjectives, nearly thirty six percent, used in the play occur only once and are not repeated at all. However, a number of adjectives are repeated. A small number, analyzed in this study, occur more than five times which indicates that they are thematically and stylistically of greater significance.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF LATIN AND ANGLO-SAXON ADJECTIVES IN *MACBETH*

Etymological Relation	Frequency in all	Percentage
Latinate words in key adjectives	27	58.69 %
Anglo-Saxon words in key adjectives	19	41.31 %
Total in key adjectives	46	100 %

Many scholars believe that Shakespeare has studied Latin at school and it is claimed that his plays are full of Latinate words and grammar. As it is shown in the table the idea is not far from truth. Among forty-six key adjectives extracted from the play twenty-seven of them were Latin words and only nineteen had Anglo-Saxon roots. More than half of the used key adjectives are Latinate. It should be mentioned that one of the aspects to be considered in analyzing diction is the etymological one; that is, whether the words are mostly of Latinate or Anglo-Saxon ancestry.

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY OF SHORT AND LONG ADJECTIVES IN *MACBETH*

Length of adjective	Frequency in all	percentage
Short adjectives	44	95.65 %
Long adjectives	2	4.35 %
Total in key adjectives	46	100 %

Based on the analysis not only the whole play is short but also the words used are short too. From all forty-six key adjectives, forty-four of them were short words and only two of them were long. Shakespeare has tended to make Macbeth as short as possible both in terms of the length of words and length of the whole play.

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY OF CONNOTATIVELY POSITIVE ADJECTIVES IN MACBETH

Connotation of Adjective	Frequency	Percentage
Positive	23	50 %
Negative	17	36.95 %
Positive or negative	6	13.05 %
total	46	100 %

It is claimed that *Macbeth* is a dark and black tragedy, even some have gone further and named it the bloodiest play by Shakespeare. Although the word blood is repeated in the play nearly 45 times but the adjectives are of positive connotation. It seems that Shakespeare was aware of it and has done his best to compensate for the darkness of the play's plot. Also, it could be argued that this balance in terms of positive and negative adjectives contribute to the ambiguity and complexity of the play.

	Key Adjectives	percentage
Ashouri	303	69.49 %
Pasargadi	297	68.11 %
Ahmadi	309	70.87 %
Shadman	360	82.56 %
Total key adjectives	436	--

Keeping the form of the ST in TT is desirable but not totally possible. Since this study is on the formal aspects in translation the percentage of keeping the adjectives in each translation was calculated. Among all, Shadman did the best by keeping eighty-two percent of the adjectives in the play and Pasargadi did the worst in this regard.

TABLE 7
FREQUENCY OF NON-TRANSLATED ADJECTIVES BY EACH TRANSLATED

Translator	Frequency	Percentage
Ashouri	133	30.51 %
Pasargadi	139	31.89 %
Ahmadi	127	29.13 %
Shadman	76	17.44 %
Total key adjectives	436	--

Deletion or ignoring a part of ST is one of the last resorts that translator use in their translations. Deletion is, in fact, found nearly in all translations and translated canon all over the world. This could be either because of not having similar structures in the TL or because of other reasons such as carelessness or incompetence of the translator. Considering Persian translations in this research deletion is in most in Pasargadi's translation and at least quantity in Shadman's.

Some Examples

Schleiermacher (1768- 1834) believes that "if all translations read and sound alike the identity of the source text has been lost, leveled in the target text" (Bassnet & Lefevere, 1998, p.8). Analyzing the data, the researcher found some cases of such condition in translated parts by translators. Remaining faithful to the ST has reduced the aesthetic character of the dialogue, as with the following example:

1. When shall we three meet again?
In thunder, lightening, or in rain?
When the hurly-burly's done,
When the battle's lost and won.
(act I, scene I)

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آشوری:
کدامین گاه دیگر بار خواهد بودمان دیدار
به تندرکوب و رخش انداز و باران بار ؟
دنیشنب بدان هنگام کاین آشوب
شکست آید یکی را دیگری روی ظفر بیند.

پاسارگدی:
کی یکدیگر را باز خواهیم دید؟
هنگامی که رعد وبرق یا بارانی باشد؟
دشاب هدش نیعم گنج وقتی که آشوب پایان یافته و نتیجه شکست و پیروزی.

احمدی:
دانی کدامین دم دگر بار
بایکدیگر داریم دیدار
در برق و در بوران و باران.
نیاک آن ساعت مسعود سرگشتگی سامان پذیرد
وین فصل، با فتح و فرار این و آن فرجام گیرد.

شادمان:
کی باز یکدیگر را ببینیم ما سه نفر
هنگام باران یا برق یا تندر؟
وقتی که آشوب و غوغا بسر رسیده
وقتی که نبرد بشکست و ظفر انجامیده.

</div>

Comparing the ST and the translations there are twenty-four words and a rhyme at the end of the lines in the ST. Ashouri's translation has twenty-six words and the rhyme at the end of the lines. He also has created a musical piece that sounds perfect for the beginning of the play as the first impression on the reader.

Pasargadi has used exactly the same number of words but the texts sounds dull and boring, in fact the text pace is really slow for being a kind of play in which the text should move smoothly in order to keep the reader in touch with itself. There is no rhyme or musicality in the text and the last line is twice long compared with other lines. The four

lines of the ST is translated into three lines which is again another case of not being faithful to the ST. In general it reads like an interpretation of the text into Persian.

Ahmadi, who has translated *Macbeth* from another translation in French, has done his job better than Pasargadi in general. The text does not seem dull and boring and he has tried to keep the poetic pattern of musicality in his translation. Although the length of translation is more than thirty-five words the music in the lines compensates for the lack of fidelity of the piece.

Shadman has translated the text exactly in a way any translator would call literal translation. The only translator who mentions the number of witches is Shadman. The only translator who keeps the texts in its SL resonance is Shadman. Although she uses twenty-eight words the text does not move as smoothly it as does in the ST. She has sacrificed the form for the sake of meaning, still it reads better than Pasargadi's translation aesthetically.

Stylistic and Aesthetic Faithfulness

Considering the definition of aesthetic translation by Casagrande (1954) in the following extracts from the play and their four translations will be analyzed to judge about their formal beauty compared with the content they transfer. We should bear in mind what Sirkku Aaltonen says about translation. For Aaltonen translation represents a struggle against the foreign: "for this reason, a complete translation will always be a reflection of the receiving culture rather than that of its source text" (2000, p.114).

2. Fair is foul, and foul is fair;

Hover through the fog and filthy air

Act I. scene I

<div dir="rtl">
آشوری:

هرچ زشت است زیبا، چه زیباست زشتی.

بشتلب بگردیم در میغ دود.

پاسارگادی:

هرچنآ زیبا باشد برای ما پلید، و آنچه پلید باشد برای ما زیباست، پس از میان مه و غبار و هوای آلوده به پرواز درآییم.

احمدی:

زیبا همه زشت آمده است و زشت، زیبا

در این هوای پرمه و پردود بگشاییم پرها

شادمان:

پاک پلید است و پلید پاک

بهریم در مه و هوای ناپاک.
</div>

Clearly, in reading Shakespeare's text sounds as a piece of poetry. Everywhere the weird sisters in the play speak, they do speak in verse. Ashouri, Ahmadi, and Shadman have tried to keep the rhythmic pattern of the original in their translations but Pasargadi has not. The only translation in which there is no difference between the verse and prose is Pasargadi's. Ashouri has done his best to keep the form of the play just by creating verse where required by the ST. Considering the meaning, we can judge that all translators have translated the meaning of the text precisely and only the formalistic values are different. Ashouri is either shorter than Shakespeare himself by translating the part by twelve words and keeping the poeticity of diction in his translation. The word میغ used by Ashouri makes it more beautiful since it is both short word and poetic. Pasargadi has translated this part using twenty-four words. Considering in mind the advice of Newmark (1988), the translator or even playwright do not have the space of a novelist and they should keep the limits of dialogue in their texts. There is no rhyme pattern in Pasargadi's version and no word is to be considered as poetic in his translation. Ahmadi has translated *Macbeth* from a French translation, it means it is a translation of a translation in raw (indirect translation) from English to French then into Persian. In this case first law is not considered which prescribes "if at all possible, one should not translate a translation" (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997, p.76). He is able to manage to keep pace with the original text by translating the part into sixteen words. He has tried to keep the rhyme of the verse and the adjectives are kept in Persian translation remaining consistent in the translation. Shadman can be said to be the most literal translator among all four translators. She is terse in her translation; she uses twelve words, shorter than Shakespeare, but the translation is not as beautiful as Ashouri's or even Ahmadi's. The words themselves hinder the fluency of reading, they sound a little motionless in their attire. However, she has tried to make a resonant /p/ sound in her translation to compensate for its literalness.

Another example that clarifies the stylistic translation is found in the following extract:

3.Life is but a walking shadow; a poor player,

That struts and frets his hour upon the stage,

And then is heard no more: it is a tale

Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury,

Signifying nothing.

Act V. scene V

آشوری:
آی، که نباشد زندگانی هیچ الا سایه ای لغزان و بازی های بازی پیشه ای نادان که بازد چندگاهی پرخروش و
جوش نقشی اندرین میدان و آنگه هیچ ازندگی افسانه ای ست کز لب شوریده مغزی گفته آید سر به سر خشم و
غرش و غوغا، لیک بی معنا.

پاسارگادی:
هیاس زندگی **متحرکی** بیش نیست، بازیگر **بیچاره** ای است که لحظه ای باطمطراق بر روی صحنه می خرامد و بعد
دیگر خبری از او نیست، یا داستانی که **سفیهی** نقل میکند، پر از طغیان است و شر و شور ولی مفهومی ندارد.
احمدی:
زندگی تنها سایه ای است **گذرا**، بازیگری **بینواست** که ساعتی بر صحنه میخرامد و به شور و هیجان می آید و
سپس دیگر آوایی بگوش نمی رسد. افسانه ای است **خشم آلود** و **پر خروش** که **ابلهی** حکایت می کند و هیچ معنا
ندارد.

شادمان:
زندگی چیزی نیست مگر سایه ای **رونده** و بازیگری **بیچاره** که یک ساعت از عمر خود را با تبختر، **جوشان و**
خروشان، بر روی صحنه می خرامد و آن پس دیگر آوازی از او شنیده نمی شود، قصه ای است که **دیوانه ای**
آنرا گفته است پر از هیاهو و خشم و غضب که هیچ معنی ندارد.

Drama translation demands talent for finding creative answers to difficult problems. As Clifford Landers states, "the essential requirement is to retain the humor, suspense, satire, or any other preponderant effect of the play, however much it may entail textual modifications' (2001, p.105).

This monologue is one of the most famous ones in all the history of drama said by Macbeth after the queen's death. The sentence reads easily and fluently. Ashouri's translation reads beautifully, like a piece of poem. The line has internal rhyme and the words fit into each other and sounds flow one after another. Adjectives basically play an important role in this monologue. They are translated as نادان لغزان، پرخروش، جوش ، شوریده مغز- معنا بی; the first two couples rhyme in translation and the last word معنا بی is rhymed with the word غوغا in Ashouri's translation. This is in fact one of the perfectly translated pieces by Ashouri.

Comparing Ashouri's translation with Pasargadi's the beauty and flow of his translation becomes more apparent. The words chosen by Pasargadi for the adjectives are سفیه بیچاره، متحرک which are not poetic. The word choice in Ahmadi's translation follows the text, there is no internal rhyme or any special sound pattern to make its flow easier. The adjectives are translated as گذرا، ابله بینوا، پرخروش، خشم آلود, which in comparison with Pasargadi's words are better and fit easier into the text. Particularly the combinations are carefully arranged such as گذرا ای سایه which is more theatrical than simply saying متحرک ای سایه.

Shadman here does not follow Shakespeare as she had done in other cases. One can judge that the last part of her translation is not as literal as the earlier parts are and perhaps this is because of her hurry to finish his translation. However, in this part she ignores some adjectives and changes them into nouns. She renders the words as بیچاره، رونده دیوانه خروشان، و جوشان. Again here there is no special sound pattern. Something that really attracts is the word تبختر used to replace "that struts and frets" that sound a little difficult to pronounce and more than that to understand.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of the data the research questions were answered thus: as for the first question "How much the translators of *Macbeth* have considered the elements of diction of the ST in their translations into Persian?". The poetic diction in the adjective class in the tragedy of *Macbeth* and hence in its four translations was of much significance. For the brevity of the idea in the play depends mostly upon the correct usage of modification and modifiers by the author and the translators. Poetic diction in a literary text of this nature is inevitable. Considering the fact that *Macbeth* is a literary text besides being a great theatrical one makes it doubly difficult to fulfill the task of translating it in both a readable and a performable way. This is not true about all the four translations. Some of them lack the characteristic of incorporating a proper poetic diction and being performable/speakable text for theater usage. In fact the significance of performability/speakability makes it rather impossible to achieve the two goals simultaneously at any part of the play. Shadman has translated the text so literally that performing it requires a lot of manipulation and amendments. Pasargadi's translation is not at all a theatrical one; rather it is full of interpretations, long adjective clauses, ambiguous sentences, and requires edition to be called a faithful translation. Ahmadi has translated the play from a French translation. This is called a second-hand or indirect translation. Ashouri's translation seems to be a speakable/performable translation of the play for Persian readers/audience. As Dr. Meghdadi asserts in his epilogue to Ashouri's translation calls it "the definitive" translation of *Macbeth* into Persian, either for reading or performance. As Meghdadi asserts only about 8.5 percent of Macbeth is written in prose and the remaining is written in verse, which shows the difficulty of keeping the pace with the ST. As he mentions Ashouri has been careful about the pattern of the text in ST and his translation is the only translation that follows the ST in being written in verse or prose.

As for the second question "what procedures each translator has used in rendering the stylistic elements of the ST? And how effectively?". The procedures used for keeping the aesthetic parameters in the play applied by the translators are most of the time literal translation, shift, and in some cases that the way of transference was impossible for the translator/s they have used the last resort of the translation, namely deletion.

Ashouri's translation, as mentioned before, proved to be speakable/performable text among all the translations in Persian. Since he has composed his translation so much like the ST, in verse, the only translation that resembles it ST is

his version. Although, in some cases the transference of the content caused some faults in the beauty of the text, the overall result is the most satisfactory among all Persian translations available. It should again be reminded that Ashouri, as a professional literary/philosophical translator has used Ahmadi's and Shadman's translation for comparison; but this does not devaluate his great job on the text. His approach to translation is a cultural one. He considers the reader in his translation and the TL culture; Ashouri translates for the TL but he never overlooks his ST. Deletions in his translation, although often found, do not disturb the flow of the reading, they only omit the information which are in nature culture-bound terms and the translator needs to clarify them in the foot-note or such space-demanding techniques. Ashouri translates for theater and literature as well.

Pasargadi's translation lacks the technicality needed for a translation to be called professional theatrical translation. The text is monotonous; there is no verse to verse translation, all dialects are similar to each other and the characters speak just like each other without any minute difference. Moreover, the text style is not even; it seems that there are a few translators for one text. Mostly the text is translated literally but carelessly, and in some cases the deletion is done in a way that hinders the understanding of the text. Short adjectives are translated as long phrases or even sentences. The diction on some cases are not poetic at all and the text reads like a newspaper.

Ahmadi, as mentioned before, has translated *Macbeth* indirectly from a French translation into Persian. As obvious, Persian modern literature begins with translations from French and the custom applies about Ahmadi's translation also. Although an indirect translation, Ahmadi's version is still a readable translation for Persians. Deletions are rare, and he has tried to compensate for his deletions as much as possible. Ashouri, in fact, owes a lot to Ahmadi's translation. As mentioned before, the similarity between their translations are so much that everyone can approve the notion. In fact Ahmadi has done relatively a good job in his translation. He is faithful to the author and in his case to his French translator.

Shadman's translation is technically the most literal translation among all available translations. She follows Shakespeare in her translation and sometimes ignores the Persian language's limits on structure. Her translation is a good example of being over-faithful to the ST; being so much faithful destroys the beauty and overlooks the style of the author. The verse is translated into prose, although in some cases there are some compensations in the text for the lack of beauty. Technically her translation cannot be named a speakabe/performable theatrical translation. It lacks the beauty needed. Sometime it overloads the reader/audience with the information and sometimes surprises them with bizarre combinations or collocations. She uses deletion as least as possible among the translators, she adheres to the ST. Her translation is useful for English students to learn about comparative structures between two languages, but it is not a performable version for theatrical use.

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Sajjad Jahansepas is an English teacher in ACECR in Isfahan, Iran. He has an M.A. in translation studies from the University of Isfahan. Field of interest: translation studies, literary translation, theatrical translation

Manijeh Youhanaee holds a PhD in language and linguistics from the University of Essex. She has co-authored with Badrizadeh "A Descriptive Dictionary of Theories of Generative Grammar". She has published a number of articles on the teaching/ acquisition of different English syntactic properties by native speakers of Persian. She teaches MA and PhD courses in linguistics, generative grammar, TEFL and SL A. Her areas of interest include syntactic theory, acquisition of L2 & L3 syntax and issues in teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language.

Hossein Pirnajmuddin Born in 1972 in Isfahan. BA in English from Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman 1994. MA in English Literature from university of Tehran 1996. PhD in English Literature from University of Birmingham 2002. Assistant professor of English Literature at University of Isfahan. Visiting professor at University of Tehran. Field of interest: modern literary theory, colonial and post colonial studies, renaissance studies, translation studies.

Assignment of the Nominative Case in Jussive Structures in Arabic Syntax: A Minimalist View

Atef Mustafa Jalabneh
Department of English, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia
Email: atefjalabneh@hotmail.com

Abstract—**The objective: this work is meant to assign the nominative case to the subject of the jussive structure in Arabic syntax in the absence of a case assignor at all levels of syntax. The methodology: to give a justifiable solution to this problem, the researcher refers to Chomsky's (1981 and 1995) and Radford (1988) theoretical views on this issue. The results: though there is no overt tense to function as a case assignor to the subject, the jussive sentence is grammatical. It was claimed by the traditional grammarians that the subject is in the nominative due to the occurrence of the final overt morphological realizations. The conclusion: an overt subject N" or covert one liable to case cannot occur in a sentence without being governed by a case assignor; the researcher could find out that the nominative case assignor is the empty [T].**

Index Terms—**nominative case, assignor, jussive, nonfinite, pro, tense, NP-movement**

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional Arabic Grammarians posited three different cases; they are visible as follows: (i) the nominative case, (ii) the objective case (a cover-term for accusative and dative cases) and (iii) the genitive case (oblique or prepositional cases). Haque (1984) argued that though Traditional Arabic Grammarians claimed that the concept of case is the relation of a noun or pronoun with some other word or words in the sentence, by *case* they mean the overt morphological endings of the case - markings and not the grammatical relation which is established between the NP and a verb or some other constituents in the sentence at an abstract level (p. 464-469). It becomes evident that a look into their claim further shows that the three cases in Arabic that they talked about are solely based on the case-endings and not on structural relations established in the sentence.

Jalabneh (2005) argued that the subject DP in any nominal sentence in the structure [DP, TP] is the focus, and it is in most situations in the nominative case. This case in particular is checked by T whenever a verb is overt in a sentence. However, if the same DP occurs in the structure [DP, AP, DP, PP], the nominative case is checked by the twin Agrs. This result is achieved because there is no T at the output (p, 5).

Jalabneh (2011a) argued that Arabic is a pro-drop language in which the entity pro is liable to case. assignment. Pro is covert at LF; however, the sentence is grammatically good. This category must be governed to get the nominative case by the case assignor, namely, INFL/Agrs (p, 576).

Jalabneh (2010) argued that pro occurs as the subject of subjunctive clauses in which the entity in question is assigned the nominative case by the empty [e] of INFL] in the maximal projection [Spec, I"]. This is due to the fact that such structures do not have overt T though there are finite clauses (p, 98-100).

Jalabneh (2011b) confirmed that T is a formal feature in subjunctive structures at all levels of syntax. It is labeled as the empty category [e] which is able to check the nominative case to D" after the phrase moves to the position of [Spec, T"] (p, 7).

Rizzi (1982) argued that, in Italian, the dropped subject is visible with clitics because it is rich in agreement features. Pro occurs in a main clause and is governed by INFL. Thus, it is specified at LF by the feature [+ pronominal]. INFL absorbs the nominative case because of case filter and assign the nominative case to pro.

Picallo (1984) argued that, in Catalan, INFL is the proper governor for the nominative case assignment to pro of a finite clause. The category pro is an empty non-anaphoric pronominal element which receives this particular case, and it is recoverable in feature specification by means of agreement features of the verb.

Haegeman (1991) argued that null subject has the properties [+pronominal, –anaphoric]. INFL is the only property that allows and identifies pro. Agreement features recover the dropped subject with which they co-indexed.

Anders (2005) argued that pro is specified but unpronounced pronouns that assign a case by the misinterpreted Agrs. Null bound pronouns and null generic pronouns in partial null subject languages like Finish are D-less; thus, they are pros in consistent null subject languages with Agrs such as Spanish and Greek. First and second person pros are deleted in Finish. Null pronouns in languages without Agrs such as Chinese and Japanese are only true instances of pros that is a minimally specified null noun.

Fehri (1987) argued that non pronominal affixes are non referential affixes but agreement markers whose sole function is to encode the subject gender on the verb. The difference between male and female null subject is obvious with the agreement features attached to the verb used.

II. PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

The problem of this study is that the subject of the finite jussive structure is in the nominative case without having a case assignor. This issue pushed me to find out the reason behind the grammaticality of the sentence which should not be and to find out nature of this case assignor.

III. OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this research are to find correct solutions to the reasons behind the grammaticality of the jussive sentence in the absence of the case assignor to the subject. To solve the issue of case assignment in jussive structures, the following questions are being asked.
1. What is the exact case assignor for the nominative case in jussive?
2. How is the subject in the nominative case without a case governor?
3. Is there any kind of relation between jussive particles and case assignment?

IV. THEORETICAL VIEWS ON CASE THEORY

Chomsky (1981, 1982, 1986 & 1995) theoretically argued that, in the case-theory, a lexical N" has to satisfy three conditions in order to be assigned a case. The conditions are: Every phonetically realized N" must be assigned a case. In other words, for an N" to be assigned a case, it must be overt in the sentence. An N" that belongs to the empty categories, namely, (PRO and trace) cannot have a case. This is covered by the case-filter which says that any lexical NP which does not have a case (covert or overt) is ungrammatical. The second condition is that there must be a case-assigner to assign the case to the lexical N". Just as in English [T], verbs and prepositions are case-assigners. Each case assigner occurs as the head of a phrasal category that dominates the N" to which it assigns a case. [T] is the case-assigner of the subject N" even though it is not the head of that phrasal category. For an N" to be assigned a case, it must be in a particular syntactic environment which is headed by the case-assigner. For instance, verbs mark the accusative case to their complement N"s i.e., [N", V"], prepositions assign the oblique cases to every N" which occurs after them, [N", P"]. The nominative case, in particular, is assigned to the subjects of the finite clauses by the [T] which has been identified as its case-assigner. The third condition for the assignment of case is that the N" that is to be assigned a case must be governed by its case-assigner. As we have already noted, according to the case theory the case-assigners are verbs, prepositions and T. This condition is relying on the distribution of N"s and their relations with the governors in the sentence. In other words, [T] assigns the nominative case to its subject N", verbs assign the accusative case to their complement N"s which they govern; and prepositions assign the oblique case to their complement N"s which they govern. The government theory makes a clear distinction between the governor and the governed N". Governors are either the lexical items verbs and prepositions and the inflection [T]; they must be the head of their phrases that most immediately involves the governed N" to which a case is assigned. The government theory asserts that the case-assignment takes place only if the case-assigner and the governed N" to which a case is assigns bear a structural relation to one another known as a government. The concept of government and command must be local for case assignment.

He (1981 - 1995) also argued that the distinction between finite and non finite is related to the nature of [T], which has the value [±Tense], where [+Tense] stands for finite and [- Tense] for infinitival. Thus, the former consists of C and T"] while the latter has only [T"]. C" within X-bar syntax is projected to account for the argument structure of a predicate and account for the fronted wh/that-phrases, the complementizer 'for' and inverted auxiliaries that move to C-node. A full clause is headed by a complementizer C; hence the structure is a CP satisfying X-bar theory. C may have a specifier but must have a complement which is T" which has the complement V". A clause is typically has the structure [CP Spec [C' C [IP Spec [I' I VP]]]]. Specifier of [Spec, CP] is optional and it is a non argument position. The Extended Projection Principle states that [Spec, IP] is obligatory position. Spec is the subject of T" and thus it is an argument position. [Spec, CP] is meant either for moved and in situ of both wh-words and relative clauses or for available complementizers such as 'that, 'for' and 'whether'.

Radford (1988) propagates Chomsky's (1981-1986) theoretical views of case assignment, particularly, theory the of [T] and further argues that the verb of the indicative of English can take the present tense –(e)s and the past tense –(e)d inflections in an appropriate context; whereas, the verb in the mood cannot and must remain invariable. What makes the mood structure different from the indicative is that the former does not contain any overt tense and agreement marking and still it is regarded a finite clause. This claim is defended on both grounds: (i) Universalist and (ii) Particularist. On Universalist ground, it is argued that in languages which are rich in inflectional system other than English, mood clauses do indeed turn out to be inflected. For instance, in Spanish, Romanian, Italian, etc. the mood verb is inflected in both tense and agreement features simultaneously. In other words, the feature 3rd person, singular present subjunctive is overt for the present form and the 3rd person singular past subjunctive is overt for the past form. As mood clauses are clearly finite in nature in such languages, it is argued that on universal grounds it is possible to regard them finite in English also. On Particularist grounds, English mood clauses are treated finite as they share certain morpho-syntactic properties in common with indicative clauses which differentiate them from non-finite clauses. For instance, (i) neither subjunctive nor indicative clauses can be constructed without overt subjects; whereas, nonfinite clauses can indeed be

subjecless. (ii) Both the clauses (unlike nonfinite clauses) must case-assign to the overt subjects they contain with the nominative case. The subject of either an indicative or the mood is always assigned the nominative case by [I/or T (henceforth T]. The question arises here is that: how is the nominative case assigned to the subject of the mood without having [T] constituent as per X-bar syntax?

Theoretically, although a finite [T] is overtly or covertly inflected for tense and agreement features, the nonfinite [T] lacks such features. It is also argued that finite clauses that contain an overt [C] in fact must have a finite [T]; however, a clause that contains a nonfinite [C] requires a nonfinite [T]. But contradicted to the former logic is the mood clause in which there is [C] but it does not contain an overt finite [T]. An assumption given by Radford (1988, p. 307) says "Any clause which contains C contains a compatible I/". Thus, mood clauses in English require an overt complementizer and any clause that contains [C] also contains an [T], then it follows that mood complement clause contains [T] node. And since [T] constituent does not appear overtly in such structures, the obvious solution to be followed over here is that the mood has an empty [T]. This assumption leads to a final universal conclusion that says all clause that have [T] can either be filled by tense if finite, by 'to' if nonfinite or left empty. The empty [T] helps to achieve the structural account of the nominative case checking. In other words, a N" which is a sister of a finite [T] must assign the nominative case in accordance with the case-filter as well as the adjacency parameter.
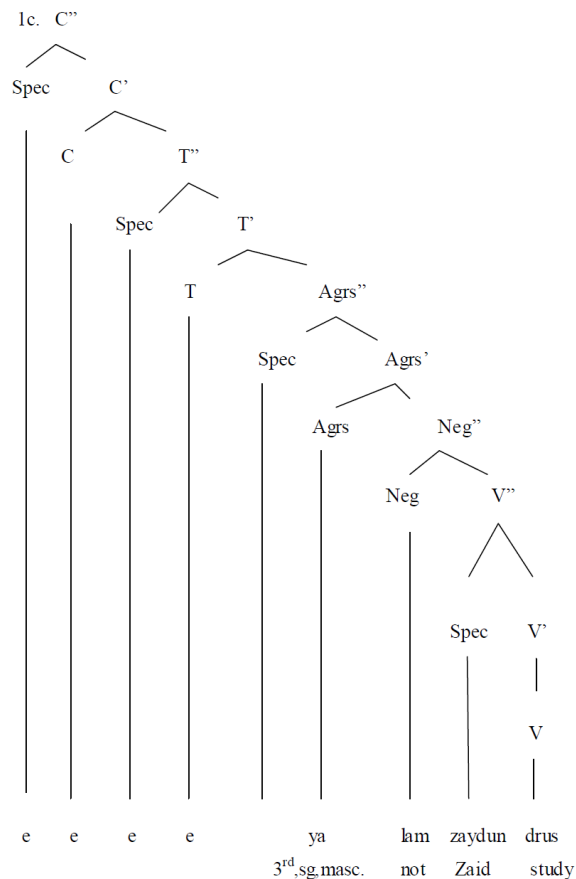
The above theoretical views will be used for the assignment of the nominative case in jussive mood in Arabic syntax in this study.

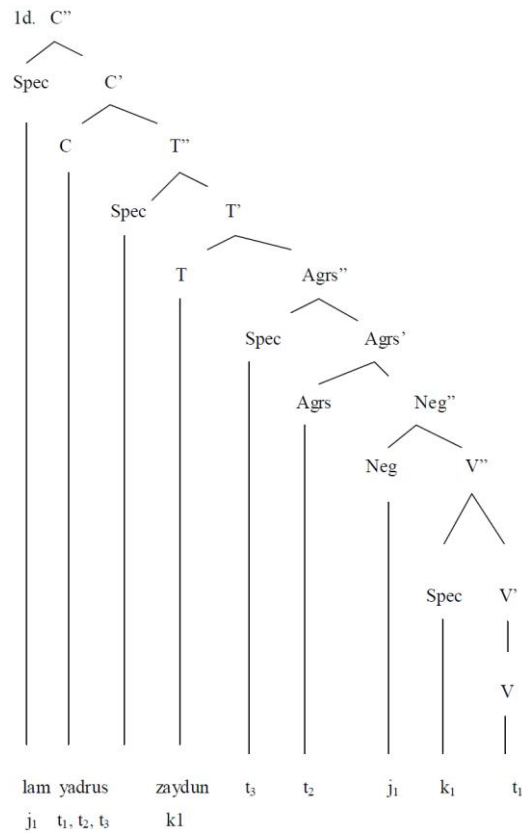## V. THE ASSIGNMENT OF THE NOMINATIVE CASE IN JUSSIVE

As far as the jussive structure in Arabic is concerned, it is a kind of mood in addition to subjunctive and energetic forms of the imperfective. The subjunctive mood is a universal concept; however, the other two structures are somehow specific to Arabic. Syntactically, Arabic has a number of jussive entities of different natures; if any one of them precedes the verb of imperfective, certain syntactic issues have to happen. The entities are represented by: (i) *lam* ' not', (ii) *lamma* ' not', (iii) *li* 'let', (iv) *la* 'not', (vii) *'in* 'if', (viii) *man* 'who', (ix) *ma* 'whatever', (x) *mahma* 'whatever', (xi) *'aiyana* 'when', (xii), *h□aithuma* 'whenever', (xiii) *kaifama* ' however', (xiv) *'aina* 'where' and (xv) *'nna* ' wherever'. Each entity has its own syntactic as well as semantic properties; however, the focus of this study is to find whether there is any kind of syntactic relation with case assignment in this type of sentence in which the occur. To check the nominative case, let us look at (1).

1a. lam ya drus *-o* zayd - un
 not 3rd, sg,masc. study juss. Zaid nom
 'Zaid does not study'

1b. *lam ya   drus *-o* zayd
 not 3rd, sg,masc. study juss. Zaid
 'Zaid does not study'

(1c) is spell-out representation of (1a and 1b).

1c.

e	e	e	e	ya	lam	zaydun	drus
				3ʳᵈ,sg,masc.	not	Zaid	study

In (1c), [e] stands to an empty category. The subject N" zayd*un* 'Zaid' is overt and occupies the position of [Spec, V"]. As it is in a caseless position, it has to move to [Spec, Agrs"] to be checked the nominative case feature by the governor [T] which is filled by the category [e]. This empty category of [T] is the true case assignor for the nominative and it has the same power of the overt [T] of the indicative. The negative item *lam* occupies [Neg, Neg"] and it negates the scope of [V"]. There are three types of movements involved: (i) NP- movement which took place from [Spec, V"] to [Spec, T], the negative entity- movement which has to be from [Neg, Neg"] to [Spec, C"] to initiate the jussive at LF and V- movement which is from [V, V'] to [Agrs, Agrs'] to check agreement subject features of 3ʳᵈ, sg, masc. and becomes *yadrus* 'study', then the position of [T, T'] to check the empty tense and becomes *yadrus* + tense 'study' and in a final cyclic movement, it moves to the position of [C, C'] at LF as in (1d). If (1c) is compared to (1b), the latter is ungrammatical because the subject is left without the assignment of the nominative case by the empty [T].

1d. C"

```
           C"
          /\
      Spec    C'
             /\
            C    T"
                /\
            Spec    T'
                   /\
                  T    Agrs"
                       /\
                   Spec    Agrs'
                          /\
                       Agrs    Neg"
                              /\
                           Neg    V"
                                 /\
                              Spec    V'
                                       |
                                       V
```

lam   yadrus   zaydun   t₃   t₂   j₁   k₁   t₁
j₁   t₁, t₂, t₃   k1

Suppose the subject is pro, then the assignment of the nominative case is as in (2).

2a. la   ta-   lq   *-a*   dˍaifa-   ka
    not   2ⁿᵈ,sg,masc meet   juss.   guest   your
    'Do not meet your guest

(2b) is spell-out for (2a):

2b. CP

```
2b.  CP
        /\
    Spec  C'
          /\
         C   T"
             /\
         Spec  T'
               /\
              T   Agrs"
                  /\
              Spec  Agrs'
                    /\
                Agrs  Neg"
                      /\
                  Neg'  V"
                   |    /\
                  Neg Spec  V'
                           /\
                          V   D"
```

e	e	e	e	ta	la	pro	lqa	d☐aif- ka
				2nd, sg, masc	not	you	meet	guest your

In (2b), the empty category pro occupies the position of [Spec, V"] at spell-out; as it is in a caseless position, it must move to the position of [Spec, T"] to be checked the nominative case by the governor [T]. This pro is specified by the Agrs as 2nd, sg and masc. for correct interpretation at LF; it is deleted at interface before LF. The negative item of jussive *la* 'not' moves to [Spec, C"]. While the verb *lqa* 'meet' moves to [Agrs, Agrs'] to check *ta* to become *talga* 'meet', to [T, T'] to check the empty tense feature and remains *talga;* then, in a final cyclic movement, it moves to. [C, C'] to initiate the sentence.

To sum up, though [T, T] is filled with empty tense, in (1 and 2), the subject position checks the nominative case feature. The polarity negative items *lam* and *la* 'not' as specimens of jussive have the C" scope of negation; thus, they occupy the [Spec, C"] position at LF. It is argued that empty [T] is as strong as overt [T]. Agrs specifies the over as well as the covert subject for correct interpretation of Arabic sentence at LF after being attached to V. Agrs is strong feature and cannot be deleted at all levels of syntax. Thus, it helps to understand the significance of jussive mood in Arabic syntax in a proper manner.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The question of the assignment of the nominative case to the subject of the jussive structure is a controversial issue due the absence of the governor [T] though it is a finite clause as that of the indicative. The issue is solved with the help of Chomsky's case theory (1981-1995) and the evolvement of Radford's theory of empty tense (1988) to deal with this issue. It was noticed that the tense system of Arabic in mood is entirely empty and it has no sign of visibility; however, if compared to Agrs, the latter is morphologically strong. Therefore, if the subject is overt or covert, it is specified by Agrs features at all levels of syntax. Theoretically, [T] is amalgam of both [T] and Agrs; but, [T] is prior to check the nominative case. Thus, in (1), the overt subject is assigned the nominative case by the empty [T]; however, in (2), the subject is covert and is assigned the same case by the same case assignor. To get correct LF interpretation, the jussive particle must move to [Spec, C"] and the verb to [C, C']. If the subject is covert, it remains in the position of [Spec, T"]; however, if it is pro, it lands in the same position for case checking; but, it has to be omitted at the interface level. Thus, case theory is a mechanism that accounts for the assignment of case to the subject and regulates the grammaticality of the sentence before LF.

APPENDIX 1 TRANSLITERATION SYMBOLS OF ARABIC CONSONANTS PHONEMES

Arabic	Transliteration	Arabic	Transliteration
أ	?	ض	<u>d</u>
ب	b	ط	<u>t</u>
ت	t	ظ	<u>z</u>
ث	th	ع	^ci
ج	j	غ	gh
ح	<u>h</u>	ف	f
خ	kh,x	ق	q
د	d	ك	k
ذ	dh	ل	l
ر	r	م	m
ز	z	ن	n
س	sh	و	w
ص	<u>s</u>	ي	y

Notice: the researcher used the transliteration symbols in this work .(c.f. Oxford Journal for Islamic Studies)

APPENDIX 2 TRANSLITERATION SYMBOLS OF ARABIC VOWELS PHONEMES

(c.f. Oxford Journal for Islamic Studies)

APPENDIX 3 STANDARD ARABIC PHONETIC SYMBOLS OF CONSONANTS AS PER IPA

	bi-labial	labio-dental	Inter-dental	alveolar plain	emphatic	palato-alveolar	palatal	velar	uvular	pharyn-geal	glottal
nasal m	-	-	n	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Stop vl -	-	-	t	<u>t</u>	-	-	k	q	-	?	
v b	-	-	d	<u>d</u>	dʒ	-	-	-	-		
Frica-tive vl -	f	Ө	s	<u>s</u>	ʃ	-	-	χ	ħ	h	
v -	-	ð	z	<u>ð</u>	-	-	ʁ	^ci	-		
Trill -	-	-	r	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Lateral -	-	-	-	ł	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Approxi-mants w	-	-	-	-	-	j					

Notice: the researchers do not refer to the phonetic symbols but they used merely the transliteration ones while writing the Arabic specimens in the text. The phonetic symbols are listed only for knowledge (c.f, http:/en wikipedia.org/wiki Arabic Phonolgy).

APPENDIX 4 ABBREVIATIONS

Agrs: Agreement subject
Agrs": Agreement phrase
C: Complementizer
C": Complementizer phrase
D- : Noun features
Det : Determiner
D": Determiner phrase
INFL: Inflection
Juss.: Jussive
LF: Logical form
Masc.: Masculine
Neg": Negative phrase
Sg.: Singular
Spec: Specifier
T": Tense phrase
T: Tense
V": Verb phrase
V: Verb

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Atef Mustafa Jalabneh was born in Ajloun –Ibbin on Eigh[th] –July –1960. He got his MA, M. Phil and PhD degrees in linguistic from Department of Linguistics/ Delhi University/ India by 1996.

He is currently occupying an ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR position in Department of English/ Faculty of Languages and Translation/ King Khalid University / Saudi Arabia/ Abha. He published a number of articles such as (i) Jalabneh, A. Topics in EFL Textbooks and the Question of Gender Dominance: A Case Study from Public Schools of Jordan. *International Journal of Language Society and Culture*. Issue.28. 2009 and (ii) Jalabneh, A (2011) Assimilation of Segments in Modern Standard Arabic: Schane's (1973) Views on Generative Phonology. *Dirasat, Human and Social Sciences,* Vol. 38, No.1. January, 2011. His basic fields of interests are syntax, semantics, phonology and phonetics**.**

Dr Jalabneh is currently a foreign coordinator for international affairs/research center for Higher Studies in King Khalid University/ Saudi Arabia.

The Translating of English Extraposition Constructions into Azeri

Parisa Farrokh

English Translation Department, Lahijan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Lahijan, Iran
Email: p_farrokh@yahoo.com

Abolfaz Rajabli

General Linguistics Department, Baku State University, the Republic of Azerbayjan

Abstract—The aim of the research is to run the gamut of English extraposition constructions involving copular verbs, followed by "that-clause" and infinitive. Providing some evidence of the use of these constructions and comparing their translation in Azeri and investigating of linguistic properties are the purposes of this study. To this aim, the English fictions and their Azeri translations considered as sources of the data. The researcher classifies the data into two main categories: the extraposition constructions followed by "that"-clause and the extraposition constructions followed by" infinitive". Based on 200 data, it has been cleared that in Azeri, the dummy subject "it" is not translated at all. Moreover, instead of copular verbs in Azeri translation, there are some expressions called "modal words", functioning like verb phrases, are used according to the meaning of copular verbs. The total number of these sentences using modal words, is 185 sentences. Regarding extraposition constructions followed by that-clause, it can be said that most of them translated as complex sentences in Azeri, with the percentage of 70%. However, extraposition constructions which involve infinitive, are translated as simple sentences. The infinitive is not translated as infinitive in Azeri. The percentage of these sentences is 65%. This study uses a qualitative descriptive method.

Index Terms—the Azeri language, translation, translation problems, dummy subject, extraposition

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays there is a tremendous interest in translation, since it is a channel through which ideas and cultures pass. In more recent time, translation comes to play a significance role in the politics, public and private organizations and many other aspects. It can be said that translation is a profession besides being art. According to Hatim and Munday (2004, p.38) translation is a phenomenon that has a huge effect on everybody's life. Newmark defines translation as the attempt to produce approximate equivalence or respectable synonymy between two chunks of different languages on various levels of which two main ones are thought and linguistic form. Newmark adds that translation is partly an exercise in the art of writing as well as a field of comparative applied linguistics (1988, p.26). Newmark believes that grammatical meaning is more significant, less precise, more general and sometimes more elusive than lexical meaning (ibid). Basically, it will have attained this fact that syntactic differences existing among languages, may cause problem in translation. Here it seems necessary to mention some characteristics of the Azeri language generally, which differ from English and should be considered in order to produce an acceptable translation.

The Azeri language, which is also known as Azeri, Azeri Turkish and Azerbaijani, is the Republic of Azerbaijan's official language, though some dialects of the language are spoken in several parts of Iran. The Azeri language can be heard in parts of eastern Turkey, northern Iraq, and in southeastern area of the Republic of Georgia. Worldwide, there are about 27 million native speakers of this language. The Azeri language is derived from the Oghuz family of languages and linguistically, it is most closely related to Turkish, Persian and Arabic. As part of the Oghuz family of languages, it was brought from central Asia by Seljuk Turks and in the Middle East it was greatly influenced by the vocabulary and grammar of Persian and Arabic. Eventually, it replaced Tat, Old Azeri and Middle Persian in Iran and became the most dominant language in a multi-lingual area by the 1500s.

Regarding the grammar of Azeri, it can be said that it is an agglutinative language and frequently uses affixes and specifically suffixes. Most of them indicate the grammatical function of the word. Word order in Azeri, is generally subject-object-verb as in Korean and Latin but unlike English. In more complex sentences, the basic rule is that the qualifier precedes the qualified; this principle includes, as an important special case, the participial modifiers. The definite precedes the indefinite. It is possible to alter the word order to stress the importance of a certain word or phrase. The main rule is that the word before the verb has the stress without exception. Moreover as Azeri is a pro-drop language, the subject may not be mentioned in the sentence. The translating of English extraposition constructions involving copular verbs, followed by that-clause and infinitive, into Azeri is the aim of this paper. Since the syntactic pattern of Azeri and English is completely different in this respect, the translation of these constructions may cause some problems for Azerbaijanian translators, translator trainees and English learners. So having complete knowledge

about structure of these sentences may be useful for them. As Miremadi believes that all languages show signs of noun phrases, events, prepositional phrases and   etc but they show differences in their formal distributions (1991, p.67). Nida argues that" in no two languages one can find exactly identical systems of structural organization based on which symbols can be related to meaning on the one -to -one correspondence basis"(1975,p.24). According to Nida word classes, grammatical relations, word order, style and pragmatic features are different from language to language (ibid). A feature which may cause problem in translation is English extraposition constructions. Since based on Chocholoušova's research, among the constructions involving dummny subject, extraposition constructions are the most frequent type in materials in languages like English, Norwegian and German, therefore, it seems necessary to have complete knowledge about this construction and it's translation in Azeri (2007, p.49). To this end English fictions are studied to identify these structures in English and their Azeri equivalents. In this relation, the following research questions have been formulated: how are English extraposition constructions translated into Azeri? Is English dummy subject "**it**" kept/replaced or omitted in Azeri translation?

II. TRANSLATION AND TRANSLATION PROBLEMS

Translation is a process aimed at facilitating communication between speakers of different languages. Translation implies understanding the source text and this requires knowledge of the specific terms of the source and target languages. A good translation not only has to express the same content as the source text but it has to do so in the forms that a native reader of the target language would use. Therefore the production of translation is based on the translators' careful assessment of the recipient and the purpose of the target text. The translator makes the decision about translation strategy and treatment of source terminology and syntactic structures proceeding from the study of parallel texts, terminological sources like dictionaries, databases and so on. It can be said that because of translation's intricate relationship with natural languages, the knowledge and skills of professional translator have always been particularly dependent on many variables and norms ranging from linguistic to socio-cultural ones. Translation, in other words, is the constructive shaping of a multi-medial situation as a whole, since in fact the translator's main responsibility is to provide for situationally appropriate communicative artifacts (Risku, 2002, p.526).

According to Nida (1975) "translation is the reproduction in a closest natural equivalent of the source language message".   It means that a translation should tell the content and some meaning of the original text (p.41).

Translation itself means a process of replacing/reproducing/transferring from the source language of written text/material concept into it's target language (Karnadidjaya, 2001, p.4). Wilss believes that translation is a transfer process which aims at the transformation of a written source language into an optimally equivalent target language and which requires the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the source language. Generally, it can be said that in the present era of globalization, translation plays a major role in conveying messages from one language to another. However translation is not an easy task. Since languages express grammatical and lexical relationships in different ways, therefore, in rendering texts, the translators are always surrounded by a number of problems which are to be tackled consciously and accurately. Miremadi believes that the first problem is how to get access to adequate comprehending of the original text with all it's complexities (1992, p.98). According to Kopezynski (1980) as cited in Miremadi, the translator should possess a transcoding mechanism to enable him:

a. to make accurate interpretation of the totality of the source and target language.

b. to carry out an adequate conversion of the source language grammar into the target language grammar.

c. to make generalization based on intertraffic between the two languages to seek equivalents.

The second problem is the existence of lexical, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and the word perspective imbalance between languages. Because of differences between languages, there is no completely exact translation between any two languages. According to Werner (1975) as cited in "Golestani", the degree of similarity between the systems of any two languages determines the efficacy of the translation made".

The other problem in translation is lexical problem. Words are entities which refer to object or concepts.

There is no an identical object in the two cultures. Thus in translating texts, all differences have to be taken into account and must be considered as an important factor. In this case the denotative meaning, connotative meaning and ironical meanings are so important and translator's misunderstanding of any of these words and elements may end in a translation reality and moral sense.

Another factor which may cause problem in translations is syntactic problem. It can be said that syntax is the study of the rules to form or to make grammatical sentences in a language or the study of pattern of sentences and phrase formation from word (Yerkes, 1989, p.1443). Furthermore, grammar is studied in syntax and it is an important aspect of a language. According to Hornby, grammar is defined as the rules in a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences (1995, p.517). Every language has own grammatical rules and through contrastive studies of authentic syntactic patterns in context, new possibilities open up for additional insights, methodological renewals and empirical theory developments based on the study of sentence form. As Hunston&Sinclair put it:

"There are gaps in the coverage of grammatical structures achieved by a generalisable system of structural analysis…" (2000, p.75).

Basically, grammar and translation skill are very important in learning another language. Some differences of grammatical systems between two languages can cause problem in translation process.

III. Dummy Subject

The concept of subject originally came from the study of Indo-European language family. Subject is obligatory in English with the exception of imperatives, and it plays syntactic and semantic roles, or just syntactic role as in the case of dummy subjects. In contrast, subject may be optional as in pro-drop languages such as Azeri, Persian and etc. "It" as a dummy subject, it is semantically empty, has no referential function, no referent either in the discourse context or in the outside world. No thematic role can be assigned to it, and yet it keeps the most prominent thematic position of the sentence, i.e. the one of a subject. And to complicate things even further, no informative value or pragmatic prominence is directly encoded in the presence or absence of the dummy subject (Chocholoušova, 2007. p.27).

Biber et al (1999) identifies both semantically empty "It" and referentially empty" **there**"as formal grammatical subjects that appear in specific clause types. These are as follows:

1. prop it- denoting weather distance and time.

It starts rainig.

2. Existential clauses- (i.e. presentatives) - introducing new information, and using verbs denoting existence, appearance and motion.

There are flagstones, garden gates, hedges, garages.

3. Clefting- structural clause division that brings focus to the clefted element.

It's mostly just rich folks who can afford a movin company.

4. Extraposition - clauses where dummy subjects anticipate another finite or non-finite clause.

It *takes a great effort to watch the moon for any length of time.*

Biber et al. postulates that:

"[…] the predicates here do not suggest any participant involved semantically, but […]are obligatory inserted simply to complete the structure of the clause grammatically".

Existential clauses, or presentative constructions, are the only constructions types that employ existential *there* as their formal, grammatical subject; the others use**"** *it***".** So is the case of "**agentless processes** "that are not listed in Biber et al., nevertheless structurally possible in English:

It does not smell particularly great at Grandfather's.

The only exception here are "**impersonal passives**" that are structurally not allowed to be formed with intransitive verbs in English, hence, another types of subject must be inserted.

IV. Extraposition

Posponement which involves the replacement of the postponed element by a substitute form is termed extraposition. It operates almost exclusively on subordinate nominal clauses. The most important type of extraposition is that of a clausal subject- i.e. a subject realized by a finite or non-finite clauses (Quirk et al, 1985, p.1391). According to Quirk et al, the subject is moved to the end of the sentence and the normal subject position is filled by the anticipatory pronoun"**it**". The resulting sentence thus contains two subjects, which may identify as the postponed subject, the one which is notionally the subject of the sentence and the anticipatory subject "**it**". Simple rule for deriving a sentence with subject extraposition from one of more orthodox ordering is: **Subject + predicate ~ it+predicate + subject** Thus:

To hear him say that +surprised me ~ It + surprised me + to hear him say that Some examples of this construction are shown as follows:

Type SVC: It is a pleasure to teach her.

Type SVA: It was on the news that income tax is to be lowered.

Type SV: It does not matter what you do.

Type SVO: It seems that you have made a mistake.

Type SVOC: It makes him happy to see others enjoying themselves.

Type SV$_{pass}$: It is said that she slipped arsenic his tea. (ibid).

Herriman (2004, p.204) argues that the extaposition constructions are mainly used to express attitudinal meaning. In this research the Azeri translation of English extraposition constructions involving copular verbs, followed by **that** - clause and infinitive has been investigated.

V. Research Method

The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyze Azeri translations of English extraposition constructions involving copular verbs, followed by **that** –clause and infinitive. This research deals with analyzing of data in order to study Azeri translations of **dummy subject it, infinitive and that-**clause of English extraposition constructions.

A. Materials

The materials chosen for the analysis are English fictions which involve the novels of "For Whom the BellTolls" written by Hemingway, "400 Subjects in English" written by Vitalyevna, "Life Essays" written by Gurbanov, "The Alchemist" written by Coelho and Joyce's Dubliners (short stories). 200 extraposition constructions involving copular

verbs, followed by infinitive and that – clause along with their translations into Azeri taken from Hajiyev (2006), Vitalyevna (2006), Gambarov (2010), Qojabayli (2006) and Nijat (2011) have been analyzed.

B. Procedures

The data are classified into two main categories: extraposition constructions followed by **infinitive** and extraposition constructions followed by **that**- clause.

C. Extraposition Constructions Followed by Infinitive

The constructions which are translated as simple sentences without infinitive in Azeri
■ *They seemed to be a happy couple at first.*
əvvəlcə elə bil xoşbəxt cütlük idilər.
■ *It seemed to him to repeat itself throughout all the books.*
Sanki bütün kitablarda elə hey eyni şey təkrarlanırdır.
■ *It seems to me to remember things incorrectly.*
*m*ə**ncə hər   şeyi yaxşı   saxlaya bilməmisəm.**
■ *It seemed to him to admire the horses.*
   Sanki atları   tərifləməlidir.
■ *It seems to me to know everything is useful for you.*
elə bil hər   şeyi bilmə in sənə faydalı dır.
■ *It wonders me to see a gypsy a war.*
*m*ə**ncə qara q müharı bədə görməini   ı nanı lası   şey dir.**
■ *It seems to agree with you.*
görünür sənən şərik olmalı dır.
■ *It seems to be sensitive and kind.*
görünür həssas və yumşağ adam dır.
■*It sounds me to be interesting.*
nə isə elə bil maraqlı   dır.
■ *It seemed to him to be little better guarded.*
Görünür düşərgənin müdafiəsi yaxşı   təşkil olunmayib.
The constructions which are translated as simple sentences and involving infinitive in Azeri
■ *It pleases thee <u>to carry it</u>,he said.*
ı ndı   ki <u>daşmaq</u> istəyirsən ,al… dedi.
■ *It seems to the boy <u>to flee.</u>*
ağlı   na <u>qaçmaq</u> gəlmi<u>şdi.</u>
■ *It seems to me <u>to exterminate </u>the post at the sawmill.*
*m*ə**ncə taxta zavodundakı   postu <u>məhv etmək</u> lazı mdı r.**
■ *It seemes to him to <u>go out.</u>*
görünür <u>çıxmaq</u> lazı mdı r.
■ *It seems <u>to keep down</u> is the best.*
görünür <u>uzanmaq</u> yaxşı   dı r.

D. Extraposition Constructions Followed by That-clause

The constructions which are   translated as complex sentences in Azeri
■ *It seems to me that we might as well eat the hares.*
*m*ə**nə görünür ki dov<u>şanları   isə bu gün yemək lazı mdı r.*</u>
■ *It sounds me that it would be good to see Duran again.*
yaxşı   olardı   ki Dürana bir də görüşəydim.
■ *It seems that you have an important intention.*
görünür ki sənin belə bir mühüm niyyətin var.
■ *It seems that it is allright to stay here.*
görünür ki burada qalmaq daha yaxşı   dı r.
■ *It wonders me that the old swine will go.*
*maraq***lı   dı r görəsən bu donuzoğ lu hara gedir.**
■ *It wonders me that one pays as in the days of the church.*
maraqlı   dı r ki biz kilsəyə pul verdiyimiz kimi,haqq versinlər.
■ *It seems that the Respublic is preparing an offensive.*
görünür ki Respublika hücüma hazirlaşı r.
■ *It seems that I am barbarous.*
görünür ki vəhşiyəm.
■ *It wonders me that he might not understand.*
*maraq***lı   dı r ki məni başa düşməz.**

■ *It seems that I can never bear either a son or a daughter.*

görünür ki sənə oğlan və ya qız doğa *bilməyəcəyəm.*

The constructions which are translated as simple sentences in Azeri

■ *It seems to me that it is better not to speak of it.*

***mənc*ə bu barədə danışmasaq yaxşıdır.**

■ *It seems that she is perfectly normal.*

elə bil onda eybi yoxdur.

■ *It sounds me that it is interesting.*

elə bil *maraql*ı söhbətdir.

■ *It seemed to him that they laugh at him.*

elə bil Ehramlar ona gülümsədilər.

■ *It seemed to him that he had made the long journey for nothing.*

deməli boş yerə səyahətə çıxmışdı.

The constructions in which copular verbs have not translated in Azeri

■ <u>*It sounds me that*</u> *I am not good to receive thee as I wish to.*

　　　　Ø 　　　　　　səninlə istədiyim kimi ola *bilməyəc*əyəm.

■ <u>*It seemed to him*</u> *to see stars on the desert itself.*

　　　　Ø 　　　　　　səhranın n səması nda yüzlərcə ulduz parlayıdı.

■ <u>*It seemed to him that*</u> *time stood still.*

　　　　Ø 　　　　　　kainatı n Rohu cavan oğlanı n önündü.

■ <u>*It seemed to him*</u> *to be very busy.*

　　　　Ø 　　　　　　işləri başları ndan aşı rmı ş kimi görünürdülər.

■ <u>*It seemed to*</u> *me that you have to cross the entire Sahara desert.*

　　　　Ø 　　böyük saxara səhrası nı keçmək lazı mdı r.

VI. Data Findings

In this research, there are two main categories, namely, extraposition constructions followed by that-clause and the other one extraposition constructions followed by infinitive. The analysis of 100 data related to the Azeri translation of English extraposition constructions followed by that-clause shows that most of them are translated as complex sentences in Azeri with the percentage of 70%, and some translated as simple sentences with the percentage of 30%, (table 1). According to table (2) it has been cleared that 65% English extraposition constructions followed by infinitive, translated as simple sentences without infinitive and 35% translated as simple sentences involving infinitive in Azeri. Table (3) shows that in Azeri dummy subject is not translated at all. Regarding the translation of copular verbs in Azeri, as shown in table (4), they have either been   replaced by some expressions called "**Modal Words**" or been omitted.

VII. Discussion and Conclusion

Based on 200 data, it has been cleared that in Azeri, dummy subject of English extraposition constructions is not translated. Regarding copular verbs, it should be mentioned that the copular verb "**seem**"   is the most frequent one in this corpora, that is in 138 constructions this verb has been used. Results of analyzing of the Azeri translation show that instead of copular verbs, there are some expressions in Azeri which are named "**Modal Söz**"like **Görünür, *m*əncə, elə bil** … and according to the meaning of copular verbs, these expressions are used such as **görünür ki Respublika hücüma hazirlaşı r**. Of course in some cases copular verbs are omitted as in:

■ <u>*It sounds me that*</u> *I am not good to receive thee as I wish to.*

　　　　Ø 　　　　　　səninlə istədiyim kimi ola *bilməyəc*əyəm.

Moreover, if there is an object after copular verbs, it is used before modal words, i.e in the beginning of the clause like ***m*ənə görünür ki dovşanları isə bu gün yemək lazı mdı r**, "***m*ənə**" is the object of the sentence.

According to the results of this research, English extraposition constructions followed by that-clause translated as complex sentences as in ***m*ənə görünür ki dovşanları isə bu gün yemək lazı mdı r**, and in some cases translated as simple sentences such as ***m*əncə bu barədə danışmasaq yaxşı dı r.**

Most of the English extraposition constructions followed by infinitive, are translated as simple sentences and without infinitive like **əvvəlcə elə bil xoşbəxt cütlük idilər**, however it should be mentioned in some constructions, infinitive translated as infinitive in Azeri, as in:

■ *It seems to me* <u>*to exterminate*</u> *the post at the sawmill.*

***m*əncə taxta zavodundakı postu <u>məhv etmək</u> lazı mdı r.**

It can be concluded that English extraposition constructions can be translated as follows in Azeri :

It + verb + (object) + that-clause translated as *(object) + modal words + that clause*

It + verb + (object) + infinitive translated as *(object) + modal words + verb*.

In this case, as it was mentioned, through contrastive studies of authentic syntactic patterns in context, new possibilities open up for additional insights, methodological renewals and empirical theory developments based on the

study of sentences form. The main advantage of a bilingual or even multilingual parallel corpus is that the languages interrelate with each other. According to the results of this study, it can be concluded that at the grammatical level, a translator is expected to have a thorough knowledge of the grammatical rules of the target language. In fact, a translator does not have to know the grammar of the language for just the sake of it, he should be well versed in comparative grammar of the two languages involved in translation and the similarities and dissimilarities in them. Therefore, translation is always more than simply writing in the sense of putting words to paper. Risku (2002, p.526) argues that translations are by definition, written for new situations, purposes, recipients and cultures. When you learn to translate, you have to learn how to gain an overview of a new situation with all it's different factors and, perhaps even more importantly, you have to learn how to position yourself in this communication system and define your own situational role, goal and tasks. Moreover, it seems that in the literature of translation studies and in translation classrooms, students and learners are required to compare and contrast translations with their originals. It is useful for language learning, translation education, translation studies, lexicography, finding equivalents for source language expressions, terms, structures and so on.   It is hoped that the results of the research may be used as additional information for the teachers especially in teaching English grammar and translation courses. Also, the results may help Azerbaijanian translators, English learners and translator trainees for being able to provide the best translation of English extraposition constructions.

APPENDIX TABLES

TABLE 1.
THE TRANSLATION OF THE EXTRAPOSITION CONSTRUCTIONS FOLLOWED BY THAT-CLAUSE

	Total	Percentage
Complex sentences	70	70
Simple sentences	30	30

TABLE 2.
THE TRANSLATION OF   THE EXTRAPOSITION CONSTRUCTIONS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVE

	Total	Percentage
Simple sentences without infinitive	65	65
Simple sentences involving infinitive	35	35

TABLE 3.
THE TRANSLATION OF DUMMY SUBJECT

	Total
Dummy Subject	0

TABLE 4.
THE TRANSLATION OF COPULAR VERBS

	Total
Using modal words	185
Deletion of copular verbs	15

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Parisa Farrokh received her M.A. in linguistics from Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran. She is currently Ph.D student of linguistics and faculty member of Islamic Azad University of Lahijan Branch, Iran. She has published some books and articles in different countries like Iran, Finland,Canada and Azerbayjan Republic.

Abolfaz Rajabli is the professor of general linguistics department of Baku State University, The Republic of Azerbaijan. He is interested in studying linguistics, translation and teaching.

Stylistics and Linguistic Variations in Forough Farrokhzad's Poems

Ferdows Aghagolzade
Dept of Language and Linguistics, University of Tarbiyat Modares, Tehran, Iran
Email: aghagolz@modares.ac.ir

Masoud Dehghan
Dept. of Language and Linguistics, Univ. of Tarbiyat Modares, Tehran, Iran
Email: dehghan_m85@yahoo.com

Abstract—Stylistics is one of the most important issues in literary text. Its goal is to decode literary meanings and structural features of literary texts by identifying linguistic patterns and their functions in the texts. The aim of this study is to survey the theory of stylistics and its practical application at Forough Farrokhzad's poems. The presented study investigates stylistic devices at works which have been published in five volumes, entitled "The Captive" [Asir], "The Wall" [Divar], "Rebellion" [Esian], "Another Birth" [Tavallodi Digar], "Let Us Believe in the Beginning of the Cold Season" [Iman biyavarim be Aghaz-e Fasl-e Sard]. Literary work can evaluate contract stylistics from various dimensions as this paper examines several stylistic devices and linguistic variations such as "rhyme", "alliteration", "repetition", "assonance", and "onomatopoeia" at Farrokhzad's poems. Stylistics and linguistic variation at Forough Farrokhzad's poems are the fundamental issues at this article. These concepts like other feelings and affections of mankind are the main theme sections of the contemporary literature. In the next section, this paper investigates several themes found among Farrokhzad's poems. In general, the main goal of the article is that the reader by deliberation at poetical samples of Forugh and other lateral discussions – which are presented in various parts of the article- be able to figure out the approach and attention of Forugh on the used concepts in her verses about separation, lack of happiness, sin, disobedience, deliverance of self, etc.

Index Terms—stylistics, linguistic variation, Farsi verses, individual feelings, Forough Farrokhzad

I. INTRODUCTION

Forough Farrokhzad, as a modern Iranian poet, occupies an especial position among Iranian poets at twentieth century. Her poems manifest a singular voice of a lonely Iranian woman. In her poems, she was going to challenge the social and patriarchal boundaries. Clearly her poems show a conscious attempt to take limitations imposed on Iranian women. This paper investigates the considerable body of poetry about five volumes that Farrokhzad warbled in her short lifetime. In fact, Farrokhzad's poems and her life are a movement towards the liberation of self. A lot of titles among her volumes present various stages in her movement towards self empowerment. This paper surveys the stylistic and linguistic variation at Farrokhzad's poems. In her poems, she wrote more frankly about sex and more forcefully about desire than any Iranian literary figure before or since. And she paid a heavy price for it.

In 1955, Farrokhzad's first volume, entitled Asir (The Captive), comprises forty-four poems was published. In 1956, she left Iran to Europe. In this year, she published the second volume of her poems, comprising twenty-five poems, titled Divar (The Wall), dedicated to her former husband. In 1958 her third volume, titled Esian (Rebellion), was published which manifests her encounter of patriarchal imposition on female identity. Also, in this volume, her vision has moved from her first and second volume to a new phase that she states it according to her words, 'the desperate struggle between two stages of life, the last gasps before a kind of letting go'. 'This letting go' will finally cause to publish her best volume, entitled 'Another birth' [Tavallodi Digar]. Another two volumes mark her self – invented identity which one of them was published in 1964, called Tævællodi digær (another birth), comprised thirty-five poems. In this volume (1964), Farrokhzad moved beyond the area of personal experience to place individuals (or perhaps just herself) within the context of a larger social struggle.

The last volume was published after her death, titled Iman biyaværim be Aghaz-e Fæsl-e Særd (Let Us Believe in the Beginning of the Cold Season). In the poem 'someone like no oneelse' (1965) that there is in the volume, entitled Iman biyavarim be Aghaz-e Fasl-e Sard (Let Us Believe in the Beginning of the Cold Season), which was published after her death, we can see Farrokhzad as simultaneously the individual, the social creature, and the poet.

Farrokhzad's earlier poems were weak in form and without approximately imagery, but they reflected the sorrows and the pains of contemporary Iranian women, who felt drowned in their innocent youth and limited to a repressed life behind the curtains of customs and traditions. Furthermore, the speaker's almost exclusive focus on himself is suggested by the fact that the first person pronoun 'I', and the corresponding possessive determiner 'my'.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study attempts to provide a comprehensive theoretical background to the study of stylistics. The aim of this paper is to provide the person interested in the theory of stylistics and its practical application in literary text analysis. By means of working with a wide variety of texts including literary works, poems, and etc., stylistics can function as a bridging discipline between literary and linguistic courses. In general, this paper focuses on linguistic aspects of stylistic survey. In addition, it recognizes several themes in this poetry. In § B below, provides a good framework for analyzing this issue.

III. THE POEM

Forough Farrokhzad, as a female divorcee writing controversial poetry with a strong feminine voice, was born in Tehran to career military officer Colonel Mohammad Bagher Farrokhzad and his wife Touran Vaziri-Tabar in 1935. The third of seven children (Amir, Massoud, Mehrdad, Fereydoun Farrokhzad., Pouran, Gloria), she attended school until the ninth grade, and then was taught painting and sewing at a girl's school for the manual arts. At the age of 16 she was married to Parviz Shapour, an acclaimed satirist. Farrokhzad continued her education with classes in painting and sewing and moved with her husband to Ahvaz. A year later, she bore her only child, a son named *Kamyar* (subject of *A Poem for You*).

Within two years, in 1954, Farrokhzad and her husband divorced; Parviz won custody of the child. She moved back to Tehran to write poetry and published her first volume, entitled 'The Captive' [Asir], in 1955.

She was an Iranian poet and film director. Forugh is arguably one of Iran's most influential female poets of the 20th century. She was a controversial modernist poet and an iconoclast. She lived at a time where women generally performed as subordinates to the male race.

IV. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to J. Mistrik (1985) stylistics is regarded as a field of study "where the strategies of choice and implementing linguistic, paralinguistic or aesthetic expressive devices in the process of communication" are investigated (p.30). J. Mistrik (1985) defines "stylistics or text analysis as a procedure which aims at the linguistic devices and means of a given text, the message, topic and content of analyzed texts aren't the focus" (p. 31). The method of stylistic analysis can be equally applied to the study of language use in literary as well as non-literary texts. So, in general, style can be seen as a variety in language use, whether literary or non-literary.

Stylistic features are basically features of languages. So style is in one sense synonymous with language. Stylistics is the study of style. It can be viewed in several ways. This variety in it is because of the basic effects of linguistics and literary criticism. This term replaces the earlier discipline known as rhetoric in the 20th century.

In general, the aim of most stylistic studies is to illustrate their functional importance for profiling of the text, novels, poetry, and etc. Also, the study of stylistics is related to the field of study of linguistics as well as literary study.

By reference to the style of X, for instance, we talk about the characteristics of language use, and also correlating these with some extra linguistic X, that we might call the stylistic DOMAIN. (Leech & Short, 1981)

Widdowson (1975) defines stylistics as the "study of literary discourse from a linguistic orientation" which "treats literature as discourse" (pp. 3-6). Toolan (1998) supports this view by saying that stylistics is "the study of language in literature" and that it is therefore part of linguistics (p. viii)

Stylistics is defined as the linguistic analysis of literary texts and therefore as a linguistic discipline. Its goal is to decode literary meanings and structural features of literary texts by identifying linguistic patterns and their functions in the texts. Consequently, the term *style* means "lexical and grammatical patterns in a text that contribute to its meaning". (Austen, 2010, p. 2)

The following table offers a summary of the most common definitions of style and the most influential approaches in stylistic studies:

TABLE 1.
STYLE AND STYLISTICS (GABRIELA MÍŠŠIKOVA, 2003, P. 20)

DEFINITIONS OF STYLE	APPROACHES IN THE STUDY OF STYLISTICS

Style can be seen as:
• The manner of expression in writing and speaking,
• From the point of view of 'language in use' as a variation, i.e. speakers use different styles in different situations, literary vs. non-literary (register – systemic variations in non-literary situations: advertising, legal language, sports commentary, etc.). Styles may vary also according to medium (spoken, written) and degree of formality (termed also style-shifting),
• The set or sum of linguistic features,
• A choice of items,
• Deviation from a norm (e.g. marked poetic idiolects, common approach in the 1960s)
	In the 19th century Rhetoric was replaced by:
	• Linguistic/emotionally expressive stylistics in the Romance countries (Ch.Bally)
	• Individualistic , neo-idealistic, psychoanalytical approach in Germany (Croce,Vossler, Spitzer)
	• Formalism in Russia (1920-1923)
	• Structuralism in Czechoslovakia (The Prague Linguistic Circle, 1926), Denmark (J. Hjelmslev), USA (E. Sapir, L. Bloomfield)
	• The New Criticism in Great Britain (Cambridge University, Richards, Empson) and USA (Brooks, Blackmur, Warren).
	• Functionalists:
	  Generative Grammar 1960s
	  Discourse Analysis 1970s
	  Pragmatics and Social Semiotics1980s
	• British Stylistics and Linguistic Criticism reached its most influential point at the end of the 70s.
	• New directions in British Stylistics and its transition to Social Semiotics (Fowler, R.: Literature as Social Discourse: The Practice of Linguistic Criticism, 1981).
	• General stylistics (non-literary varieties),
	• Sociostylistics (close to sociolinguistics)

N. E. Enkvist (1973) states, linguistic stylistics attempts to set up descriptions of stylistic motives "with the help of linguistic concepts" (pp. 16-17). According to this definition, linguists should be interested in all types of linguistic variation and style is only one of many types. The table below presents the classification of linguistic variations according their correlation towards context, situation and others:

TABLE 2.
TYPES OF LINGUISTIC VARIATION (GABRIELA MÍŠŠIKOVA, 2003, P. 23).

STYLE	• correlates with context and situation, • is an individual variation within each register.
TEMPORAL	• correlates with a given period.
REGIONAL	• correlates with areas on a map.
SOCIAL DIALECT	• correlates with the social class of its users, • also called sociolect.
IDIOLECT	• indicates the language of one individual.
REGISTER	• correlates with situations, •different subtypes of language that people use in different social roles (e.g. doctor's register is different from the teacher's, etc.).

V. DATA ANALYSIS

In this part, the present study will address the role and the importance of stylistic devices as the most important tools of transferring ideologies, views and judgments in literary texts. Then this study will survey the verses stanza at Farrokhzad's poems.

This paper investigates all volumes at Farrokhzad's poems and after studying them, it will show that there are some stylistics and linguistic devices at them as we can see below. In other words, The present study surveys these devices at Forough's works which have been published in five volumes, entitled 'The Captive' [Asir], 'The Wall' [Divar], 'Rebellion' [Esian], 'Another Birth' [Tavallodi Digar], 'Let Us Believe in the dawn of the Cold Season' [Iman bijavarim be Aqaz-e Fasl-e Sard].

In addition to stylistic devices, this paper recognizes several THEMES in Farrokhzad's poems; such as 'separation', 'sin', 'Free and disobedience', 'lack of happiness'.

A. The Major Stylistic Devices

Stylistics is the linguistic analysis of literary texts. There are some stylistic devices at the volumes of Farrokhzad's poems that I have studied. And some of these stylistic devices are 'rhyme', 'alliteration' 'repetition', 'assonance' and 'onomatopoeia'. (Miššikova, 2003, pp. 92-97). So this paper considers these devices at Farrokhzad's poems in order to study them.

1. Rhyme

The repetition of identical or similar sounds, usually accented vowel sounds and succeeding consonant sounds at the end of words, and often at the ends of lines of prose or poetry.

It has several functions:
• it adds a musical quality to the poem;

• it makes the poem easier to remember;
• it affects the pace and tone of the poem.

Two or more verse lines make a stanza, so a stanza is a verse segment composed of a number of lines. The ballad stanza has four lines, only the second and the fourth lines rhyme.

1.1 The Use of the Stylistic Device 'Rhyme'

The extracted poem from the Captive's volume has some words in lines two and four which are rhyme   together at the end of them:

to rɑ mixɑhæm-o- dɑnæm ke hærgez

be kɑm-e del dær ɑqušæt *næʃiræm,*

toʔe ʔɑn ʔɑsemɑn-e sɑf-o- rowšæn,

mæn ʔin konʤ-e Gæfæs, morqi *æsiræm.*

ze pošt-e milehɑ-je særd-o- tireh

negɑh hæsrætæm hɑjrɑn be *rujæt*

dær ʔin fekræm ke dæsti piš ʔɑjæd

væ mæn nɑgæh gošɑyæm pær be *sujæt.*

dær ʔin fekræm ke dær jek læhze qeflæt,

ʔæz ʔin zendɑn xɑmoš pær *beʃiræm,*

be čæšm *mærd zendɑnbɑn* bexændæm,

kenɑræt zendegi ʔæz sær *beʃiræm.*

dær ʔin fekræm mæn-o- dɑnæm ke hærgez,

mærɑ jɑrɑ-je ræftæn zin Gæfæs *nist,*

ʔægær hæm *mærd-e zendɑnbɑn* bexɑhæd,

degær ʔæz bæhr-e pærvɑzæm næfæs *nist.*

Translation
I want you, yet I know that never
can I embrace you to my heart's content.
you are that clear and bright sky.
I, in this corner of the cage, am a captive bird.
from behind the cold and dark bars,
directing toward you my rueful look of astonishment,
I am thinking that a hand might come,
and I might suddenly spread my wings in your direction.
I am thinking that in a moment of neglect,
I might fly from this silent prison,
laugh in the eyes of the man who is my jailer,
and beside you begin life anew.
I am thinking these things, yet I know,
that I cannot, dare not leave this prison,
even if the jailer would wish it,
no breath or breeze remains for my flight.

As we consider, at the above second and forth lines, the words'nægiræm' / 'ʔæsiræm' and 'rujæt'/ 'sujæt' are rhyme.

2. Alliteration

It is the repetition of similar sounds (usually consonants) at the beginning of successive words. In other words, Alliteration is the repetition of initial consonant sounds in two or more neighboring words or syllables. We find alliteration in many familiar phrases and expressions.

2.1 The Use of the Stylistic Device 'Alliteration'

The elaborate parallelistic structure of the following verses has been displayed by placing the parallelisms, or structural equivalences. The parallelisms are reinforced by frequent alliteration, indicated by italics below:

gonæh kærdæm gonɑhi por ze lezæt

dær ʔɑquši ke gærm-o-*ʔɑtæšin bud*

gonæh kærdæm mijɑn bɑzoW-ɑni

ke dɑq-o- kine ʤuj-o- *ʔɑhænin bud*

dær ʔan xælvætgæh-e tarik-o- xamoš

negæh kærdæm be *čæšm-e por ze razæš*

delæm dær sine bitabane lærzid

ze xahešhaj-e *čæšm-e por nijazæš*

dær ʔan xælvætgæh-e tarik-o- xamoš

pærišan dær kenar-e ʔu nešæstæm

læbæš bær ruj-e læbhajæm hævæs rixt

ze ʔænduh-e del divane ræstæm

Translation
I sinned a sin full of pleasure,
in an embrace which was warm and fiery.
I sinned surrounded by arms
that were hot and avenging and iron.
in that dark and silent seclusion
I looked into his secret-full eyes.
my heart impatiently shook in my breast
in response to the request of his needful eyes.
in that dark and silent seclusion,
I sat disheveled at his side.
his lips poured passion on my lips,
I escaped from the sorrow of my crazed heart.

3. Repetition

Repetition is the deliberate use of a word or phrase more than once in a sentence or a text to create a sense of pattern or form or to emphasize certain elements in the mind of the reader or listener. Here are further kinds of repetition like *parallelism*, which is the repeating of a structure.

3.1 The Use of the Stylistic Device 'Repetition'

dær ʔin fekræm ke dær jek læhzæ-je qeflæt,

ʔæz ʔin zendan xamoš pær beɈiræm,

be čæšm *mærd zendanban* bexændæm,

kenaræt zendegi ʔæz sær beɈiræm.

dær ʔin fekræm mæn-o- danæm ke hærgez,

mæra jara-je ræftæn zin Gæfæs nist,

ʔægær hæm *mærd-e zendanban* bexahæd,

degær ʔæz bæhr-e pærvazæm næfæs nist.

Also the following extracted verses from the volume of 'Another birth' [Tavallodi Digar] show the use of this stylistic device:

hæme midanænd
hæme midanænd
ke *mæn-o- to* ʔæz ʔan rowzæneh-je særd-e ʔæbus
baq ra didim
væ ʔæz ʔan šaxe-je bazigær dur ʔæz dæst
sib ra čidim
hæme mitarsænd
hæme mitarsænd, ʔæma mæn-o- to

be čeraq-o- ʔab-o- ʔayene pejvæstim
væ nætærsidim.
Translation:
everyone knows,
everyone knows
that you and I have seen the garden
from that cold sullen window
and that we have plucked the apple
from that playful, hard-to-reach branch.
everyone is afraid

everyone is afraid, but you and I
joined with the lamp and water and mirror
and we were not afraid.

4. Assonance

It is similar to alliteration in which vowels are repeated. In other words, Assonance is the repetition of vowels in non-rhyming words. It is used in modern English-language poetry, and also in Old French, Spanish and Celtic languages.

4.1 The use of the stylistic device 'assonance'

t*o* r*a* mix*ɑ*ħæm-*o*- d*ɑ*ɳæm k*e* ħærg*ez*

b*e* k*ɑ*m d*e*l d*æ*r *ɑ*qušæt næɟiræm,

t*o*ʔe ʔ*ɑ*n ʔ*ɑ*sem*ɑ*n-e sɑf-*o*- rowšæn,

mæn ʔ*i*n k*o*nʤ-e q*æ*fæs, m*o*rq*i* ʔ*æ*siræm.

z*e* p*o*št-*e* m*i*leh*ɑ*-je særd-*o*- tireh

neg*ɑ*ħ ħæsrætæm ħæjr*ɑ*n be r*u*jæt

d*æ*r ʔ*i*n fekræm k*e* dæst*i* p*i*š ʔ*ɑ*jæd

v*æ* mæn n*ɑ*g*æ*ħ goš*ɑ*jæm p*æ*r be s*u*jæt.

Translation

I want you, yet I know that never
can I embrace you to my heart's content.
you are that clear and bright sky.
I, in this corner of the cage, am a captive bird.
from behind the cold and dark bars
directing toward you my rueful look of astonishment,
I am thinking that a hand might come
and I might suddenly spread my wings in your direction

B. The Major Themes

There are some themes in volumes of Farrokhzad's poems that we have studied. Some of these themes are 'seperation', 'sin', 'free and disobedience' 'lack of happiness', 'feministic mood', etc. The present study considers these themes at Farrokhzad's poems to analyze them. Thus these themes will be analyzed below.

1. The Seperation [Jodaee]

Farrokhzad's first stage of disobedience was that time she was going to separate from her husband and decided to live lonely without any male in her real life. In this volume (1958), Farrokhzad illustrates a woman found the self-confidence to stand before Iranian society as an individual.

2. The Sin [Gon□h]

The most scandalous of these poems is 'sin', first published in a magazine and later included in her second collection, 'The Wall'. It is a quatrain sequence with vivid sexual imagery. Also, as we consider in this poem, Farrokhzad enjoys committing a sexual sin from an intimately feminine point of view.

She had several short lived relationships with men and the verses 'Gonɑh' [The sin] extracted from the second volume 'The Wall' expresses one of them. In addition, the importance of Farrokhzad is for the sake of being the first modern Iranian woman to graphically articulate private sexual landscapes from a woman's perspective, as in 'gonæh kærdæm' [I Sinned] printed below.

gonæh kærdæm gonɑhi por ze lezæt

dær ʔɑguši ke gærm-o-ʔɑtæšin bud

gonæh kærdæm mijɑn bɑzo-v-ɑni

ke dɑq-o- kine ʤuj-o- ʔɑhænin bud

dær ʔɑn xælvætgæh-e tɑrik-o- xɑmoš

negæh kærdæm be čæšm-e por ze rɑzæš

delæm dær sine bitɑbɑne lærzid

ze xɑhešhɑj-e čæšm-e por nijɑzæš

dær ʔɑn xælvætgæh-e tɑrik-o- xɑmoš

pærišɑn dær kenɑr-e ʔu nešæstæm

læbæš bær ruj-e læbhɑjæm ħævæs rixt

ze ʔænduh-e del divɑne ræstæm

foru xandæm be gušæš qese-je ʔešq

to ra mixahæm ʔay jananæ-ye mæn

to ra mixahæm ʔaj ʔaquš-e ʤanbæxš

to ra ʔæj ʔašeq-e divanæ-je mæn

hævæs dær dideganæš šoʔle ʔæfruxt

šærab-e sorx dær pajmane ræGsid

tæn-e mæn dær mijan bestær-e nærm

be ruj-e sineʔæš mæstane lærzid

gonæh kærdæm gonahi por ze lezæt

kenar-e pajkæri lærzan-o- mædhuš

xodavænda če midanæm če kærdæm

dær ʔan xælvætgæh-e tarik-o- xamoš
Translation
I sinned, a sin full of pleasure,
In an embrace which was warm and fiery;
I sinned surrounded by arms
that were hot and avenging and iron.
In that dark and silent seclusion
I looked into his secret-full eyes.
my heart impatiently shook in my breast
In response to the request of his needful eyes.
In that dark and silent seclusion,
I sat disheveled at his side.
his lips poured passion on my lips,
I escaped from the sorrow of my crazed heart.
I whispered in his ear the tale of love:
I want you, O life of mine,
I want you, O life-giving embrace,
O, crazed lover of mine, you.
desire sparked a flame in his eyes;
the red wine danced in the cup.
In the soft bed, my body
drunkenly quivered on his chest.
I sinned a sin full of pleasure,
next to a shaking, stupefied form.
O God, who knows what I did
in that dark and quiet seclusion.

Also, one of the verses in the volume of 'Asir' [The captive], entitled 'Dive šæb' [The demon of the Night], reprehending Forough for the sin that she has committed, and the infernal spirit of darkness says to her:

divæm ʔæma to ʔæz mæn divtæri

madær-o damæn-e næng ʔallude?

Oh! bærdar særæš ʔæz damæn

teflæk-e pak koʤa ʔasude
Translation
I am a demon, but you are a worse demon than I
a mother, and yet unchaste?
oh! how dare you to let the poor pure child
lay his head on your stained lap.

3. Free and disobedience
There are some "helping verbs" like can, will may, might, etc. (Halliday, 1982). These modal verbs act upon the time reference of the verbal groups in which they take place, taking it to the realm of the possible, probable, or necessary. So the time reference of these modal verbs isn't the time actually happened, but to the imaginary. She knew that women like her wished to free themselves from the prison of veiled chastity and forced modesty, and to shout out, among other things, their natural desires.

Farrokhzad's first volume of verse, The Captive, was composed before her divorce and her separation from her boy. The verses in this volume show her feeling of putting in the constraints of a traditional married life in Iran. In addition, the majority of her poems in this volume, 'The Wall' [Divar], are about the concept of slavery imposed by society and love. Furthermore, these verses indicate Farrokhzad's inner contradictions regarding making a selection between her maternal duties and the following of her artistic aspiration. The decision wasn't so easy for her since she suffered from disobedience against her patriarchal definitions as an Iranian woman. Forough states her feeling about traditional and conventional marriage in this volume and she voices as a wife no longer able to live in a limited life as 'the Captive', 'The wedding Band', 'Call to Arms', and 'To my Sister'.

to ra mixahæm-o- danæm ke hærgez

be kam-e del dær ʔaqušæt næɟiræm

toʔe ʔan ʔaseman-e saf-o- rowšæn

mæn ʔin konʤ-e Gæfæs, morqi ʔæsiræm

ze pošt-e mileha-ye- særd-o-tire

negah-e hæsrætæm hæjran be rujæt

dær ʔin fekræm ke dæsti piš ʔajæd

væ mæn nagæh gošajæm pær be sujæt

dær ʔin fekræm ke dær jek læhze qeflæt

ʔæz ʔin zendan xamoš pær beɟiræm

be čæšm-e mærd-e zendanban bexændæm

kenaræt zendeɟi ʔæz sær beɟiræm

dær ʔin fekræm mæn-o danæm ke hærgez

mæra jara-je ræftæn zin Gæfæs nist

ʔægær hæm mærd-e zendanban bexahæd

degær ʔæz bæhr-e pærvazæm næfæs nist

ze pošt- e mileha hær sobh-e rowšæn

negah-e kudæki xændæd be rujæm

čo mæn sær mikonæm ʔavaz-e šadi

læbæš ba buse miajæd be sujæm

ʔægær ʔæj ʔaseman, xahæm ke jek ruz

ʔæz ʔin zendan-e xamoš pær beɟiræm

be čæšm-e kudæk-e gerjan če gujæm

ze mæn bogzær ke mæn morqi ʔæsiræm

mæn ʔan šæmʔæm ke ba suz-e del-e xiš

foruzan mikonæm viraneʔæm ra

ʔægær xahæm ke xamuši gozinæm

pærišan mikonæm kašaneʔæm ra

Translation
I want you, yet I know that never
can I embrace you to my heart's content.
you are that clear and bright sky.
I, in this corner of the cage, am a captive bird.
from behind the cold and dark bars
directing toward you my rueful look of astonishment,
I am thinking that a hand might come
and I might suddenly spread my wings in your direction.
I am thinking that in a moment of neglect
I might fly from this silent prison,
laugh in the eyes of the man who is my jailer
and beside you begin life anew.

I am thinking these things, yet I know
that I cannot, dare not leave this prison.
even if the jailer would wish it,
no breath or breeze remains for my flight.
from behind the bars, every bright morning
the look of a child smile in my face;
when I begin a song of joy,
his lips come toward me with a kiss.
O, sky if I want one day
to fly from this silent prison,
what shall I say to the weeping child's eyes:
forget about me, for I am captive bird?
I am that candle which illumines ruins
with the burning of her heart.
If I want to choose silent darkness,
I will bring a nest to ruin.
[Extracted from 'The captive' [Asir]]

4. *Lack of happiness*

In one of her another verses in this volume, titled 'X□næ- ye Mætruke' [The Deserted Home], she confesses that their home has been deprived of the happiness after the separation from her husband and her boy and she says:

I know that now a child is crying,
full of sorrow of separation from his mother;
but, wounded at heart and distressed,
I am on the path of my desire.
my friend and my beloved is poetry
and I go to find it.

5. *Feministic mood*

No one can deny the *feministic* mood of her poetry. This feministic mood is one of the many reactions women of Iran adopted as a result of the patriarchal society they lived in. Nevertheless, we must keep in mind that the research of women in Iran has advanced and developed during the last thirty years, producing a great deal of expressive and analytical reviews (AFKHAMI, 1994, pp. 5-18). The Following verses are from Farrokhzad, 1982, p. 34.

I saw the marrow of my being
melting
in the movement of his hands
I saw his heart
held holly by the vagrant charmed
echoing of my heart

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper focuses on the use of linguistic variation in Farrokhzad's poems, and demonstrates the usefulness of stylistic analysis in investigating the nature and potential effects of such variation in this particular poem. The analysis of her poems has focused in detail on the way in which the language of the poem conveys the impression of (i) a particular speaking voice in a specific setting, (ii) a particular non-literary written register, and, potentially, (iii) an ironic voice. Furthermore, what the present study concludes is to illustrate Farrokhzad's feelings and attitudes in the poems of her volumes and also expresses various stages of her life, which this paper surveys those stages as themes in Forough's poems. In her volumes, we can see that the happiness has left their home after her separation of her husband and her boy. Also, we can understand from her volumes that she have had various carnal relationships with men. As well as, some of her volumes show that she rebels from the social conventions and permanently defends from women rights as a feminist. So, she is the first to claim victory over the male dominated society in Iran's modern poetry. She pioneered as the feminine voice of Iranian poetry, and in her short-lived life, she accomplished more than ever expected.

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Ferdows Aghagolzade Ph.D. Associate professor at Univ. of Tarbiyat Modares, Dept. of Language and Linguistics, Tehran, Iran. He is from Iran and he was born there. He has Ph.D. degree in Linguistics from the Department of language and linguistics at Tarbiyat Modares University in Iran. Also, He has many researches which has done before. Email: aghagolz@modares.ac.ir

He's taught language and linguistics to students at Tarbiat Modares University in Tehran, Iran since 1998. Also, he has many researches.

Masoud Dehghan Ph.D. Candidate at Univ. of Tarbiyat Modares, Dept. of Language and Linguistics, Tehran, Iran. He is teaching English Language at Dept. of English Language and literature, Razi Univ., Kermanshah, Iran. Also, he's teaching English Language at university of Applied, Science and Technology in Kermanshah, Iran. Email: dehghan_m85@yahoo.com.

His previous researches are: 1- "Discourse and Otherness: A critical Study of the other in the Recent Discourse on Democracy". Int. Conference on CDA. University of Tasmania. February in 2005. 2- "A short analysis of Insertion in Persian". Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 14-23, January 2012. 3- "On Type: The So-Called Causativization in Persian". TPLS academy publisher. Volume2, Issue 7. July, 2012. 4- "The Otherness: The Discourse of Democracy in Bush's Orations after 9/11"Archive Des Sciences Journal, ISI Journal. Switzerland. July, 2012.

An Empirical Study of C-E Soft News Translation Based on the Approach to Translation as Adaptation and Selection: With the Rendition of Soft News in Jinri Zhongguo as an Exemplar*

Wenpeng Lü
College of Foreign Language and Literature, Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou, China
Email: lvwpnwnu@163.com

Fuxin Ma
College of Foreign Language and Literature, Tianshui Normal University, Lanzhou, China
Email: mfx1977@163.com

Jing Wang
College of Foreign Language and Literature, Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou, China
Email: wangjing0229@21cn.com

Abstract—With the rendition of soft news in Jinri Zhongguo as an exemplar, the present study concerns C-E soft news translation based on the Approach to Translation as Adaptation and Selection by contrastive analysis of texts, investigation of recognition degree for the expected versions and interview of translators. The results show that the more effective strategy of soft news translation is adaptation, and the corresponding major method is communicative and the minor one is semantic. Translation process of soft news is the translator's adaption to the typically important components of "source text and target language" in one translation eco-environment and the selection of target text made by the typically important component of "translator" in the other. The translation ideology and method are influenced by translators' experiences of translation, understanding of source text, knowledge of text functions, etc. There is a correlation between the "degree of holistic adaptation and selection" of soft news versions and the "recognition degree of readers". Generally a better version has a higher "degree of holistic adaptation and selection" and higher "recognition degree of readers".

Index Terms—C-E soft news translation, the Approach to Translation as Adaptation and Selection, empirical study

I. INTRODUCTION

Soft news is seeking the positive effect of publicity, i.e. it highlights its readability, appeals to readers and emphasizes human touch and affection (Fang, 2002). The translation of soft news is not only the transformation between languages, but the communication between Chinese and Western cultures. Therefore, it is worthwhile studying how to translate soft news effectively. Entering the new century, China's soft news translation studies have showed science-oriented change moving from empiricism to scientism. Scholars (such as Xu & Wang, 2001) study the translation of soft news by applying German Functionalist Theory, Pragmatic Theory, Communication Theory, etc. and have described and explained the process and methods (especially the adaptation) of soft news translation. These studies not only provide the methodological enlightenment from a scientific perspective but lay a solid foundation for us to put the soft news translation into a broader context. However, they are far from enough. On the one hand these theories still lack the support of empirical studies, on the other these macro-theories do not pay enough attention to the differences and complexity of micro-consciousness.

Guided by Darwin's Theory of Evolution the Approach to Translation as Adaptation and Selection (hereinafter referred to ATAS) makes a fresh description and interpretation of the translation nature, process, standards, principles and methods (Hu, 2008a). Professor Hu claims that translation, which is translator-centered, is the translator's adaption to the typically important component of "source text" in one translation eco-environment and the selection of target text made by the typically important component of "translator" in the other. In short, translation is adaptation and selection.

Accordingly, the generation of target text can be divided into two phrases: the translation eco-environment selecting the translator and doing the target text (see Figure 1). The best version is the cumulative result of translator's adaptation and selection to the translation eco-environment. In other words, a better version has a higher "degree of holistic adaptation and selection (Hu, 2008a). The Approach provides a fresh perspective for the news translation.
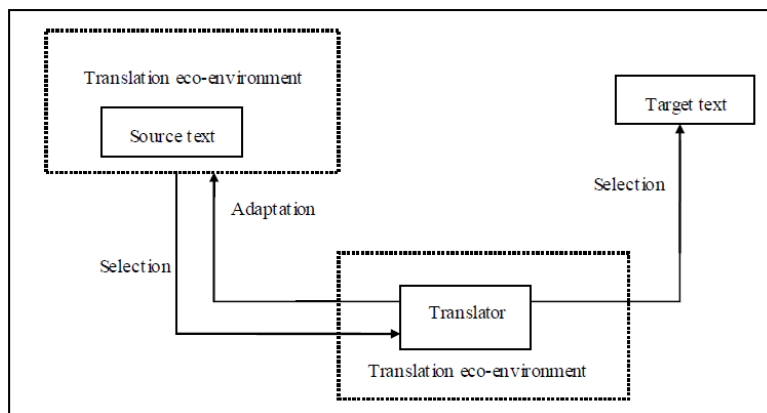

Figure 1 The translation process of "adaptation" and "selection" (Hu, 2008b: 92)

II. THE APPLICATION OF THE APPROACH TO TRANSLATION AS ADAPTATION AND SELECTION TO THE STUDY OF SOFT NEWS TRANSLATION

Jinri Zhongguo (China Today in English), a news-oriented monthly with vivid pictures, appeals to both refined and popular tastes. The readers of its Chinese version are people from Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan and overseas Chinese, while those of its English version are foreign employees (in the field of business, technology, media, culture and education) and housewives. Taking the above literature review into account and aiming at exploring the effective methods of translating soft news, the present authors conduct an empirical research on the translation eco-environment of soft news based on ATAS. Taking a piece of soft news from China Today as an exemplar the paper adopts research methods as contrastive analysis of versions, investigation of the recognition degree for the expected versions and interview of translators.

A. Investigation

The soft news "Dao Nantong" (Wu & Li, 2009) from Jinri Zhongguo vividly describes the geography, history and culture of Nantong, a famous city in Jiangsu Province, by picturing its typical attractions such as the Haohe River, the Langshan Mountain, the Shuihui Garden and Yuantuojiao. The author heightens the artistic effect with relaxed tone, elegant words and extravagant syntax. The English version (Wu, 2009) of it is from a Chinese professional translator (i.e. Translator 1, female, whose version is called Version 1). In order to contrast different versions, the authors invited a student translator (i.e. Translator 2, a freshman postgraduate majoring in translation studies), who translated the soft news (i.e. Version 2) without reading Version 1. Version 3 is the authors' version by applying ATAS. Later, the authors separately interviewed Translators 1 and 2 by telephone or QQ to discuss the problems in the C-E translation of this soft news. To further verify the influence of applying ATAS on the soft news translation, the authors conducted a questionnaire to learn the recognition degree (RD hereunder) for the expected version from the perspective of reader feedback and professional response. The questionnaire is mainly made up of subject's personal information and 8 typical translation cases from "Dao Nantong" and its English version. 29 subjects answered the questionnaire, including 4 American teachers (1 male and 3 females), 1 Chinese (male) studying for his doctorate in the USA and 24 postgraduates (1 male and 2 females in their first year, and 2 males and 19 females in their second year) majoring in English. Each subject was required to choose the best version by making a brief comment. The corresponding English questionnaire was used for American teachers. The result of the survey is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SUBJECTS' RECOGNITION DEGREE (RD HEREUNDER) TO THE EXPECTED VERSIONS OF THE 8 CASES

Translation Case	Case1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8	Weighted Mean
Expected Version	Version 1	Version 1	Version 3	Version 1	Version 3	Version 1	Version 1	Version 1	
RD	16/28	20/29	22/29	25/29	20/28	17/29	14/29	22/28	
RD (%)	57.14%	68.97%	75.86%	86.21%	71.43%	58.62%	48.28%	78.57%	68.14%
Index of Recognition Degree	1.14	1.38	2.30	1.72	2.17	1.17	0.97	1.57	1.49

Of the 8 translation cases, Case 1, 2, 4 and 6-8 have 2 versions and the probability of being selected is 50%, while Case 3 and 5 have 3 versions and the probability is about 33%. So the calculation is weighted. The baseline of Case 1, 2, 4 and 6-8 is 50%, while that of Case 3 and 5 is 33%. Thus, the weighted average baseline of the 8 translation cases is

45.75% (i.e. 6/8×50% +2/8×33%=45.75%). The smaller the percentage is, the lower the RD is, and vice versa. As for Case 1, 2, 4 and 6-8, the RD is considered "general" when the percentage is 50%; As for Case 3 and 5, the RD is regarded as "average" when the percentage is 33%.

The average RD of Case 1, 2, 4 and 6-8 is 66.3%, while that of Cases 3 and 5 is 73.65%. Therefore, the weighted mean (WM hereunder) of RD to the expected version in the 8 translation cases is 68.14% (i.e. 66.30% ×6/8+73.65% ×2/8=68.14%). Index of RD = RD÷baseline. If the index of RD＞1, it means the RD is "good"; when the index of RD =1, it means the RD is "average"; if the index of RD＜1, it means the RD is "deficient". The index of translation cases 1, 2, 4 and 6-8 = RD÷50% of the baseline, and its mean index of RD is 1.33; the index of Cases 3 and 5 = RD÷33% of the baseline, and its mean index of RD is 2.24. Of the translation cases 1-8, the WM of RD to the expected translation is 1.49 (i.e. the WM of RD 68.14% ÷baseline of the WM 45.75% = 1.49).

In Table 1, Version 3, which is translated by the authors based on ATAS, of Cases 3 and 5 is the expected one, whose index of RD is the highest 2.30 and 2.17 respectively. It indicates that the expected version of translation cases 3 and 5 have been highly accepted by the subjects. Version 1, which is translated by a professional translator taking into consideration the original information, the culture and readers of target language, is the expected of Cases 1, 2, 4 and 6-8, whose index of RD＞1 indicating that the subjects have a higher RD; while the index of RD of Case 7 is 0.97＜1 indicating that the subjects have a lower RD. Therefore, the authors make a further study on the collected questionnaires to analyze the RD of Case 7 and find out that, so far as the 4 American teachers and 1 Chinese studying for his doctorate in the US are concerned, its RD is 60%, higher than the baseline (50%); for the first-year postgraduates, its RD is 0, lower than the baseline (50%); for the second-year postgraduates, its RD is 57.14%, also higher than the baseline (50%). The statistics shows that the subjects' RD is affected by their educational background and their translation competence.

In a word, WM of RD to the expected version of Cases 1-8 is 68.14%, higher than the baseline of WM (45.75%). The WM of the RD is 1.49＞1 indicating that subjects have a high RD to the expected version. In translating soft news, it is helpful and possible to generate better versions with higher degree of holistic adaptation and selection in case that the translators are guided by ATAS consciously or unconsciously.

B. Analysis of Target Texts

Aiming at discussing the effective method in translating soft news, 2 versions of "Dao Nantong" are studied with contrastive analysis, and the first 4 Cases in the questionnaire are analyzed.

1. Contrastive analysis of 2 versions

Soft news is an informative text (Newmark, 2001), whose transformation from linguistic and communicative dimensions are more important than that from cultural dimension (Hu, 2004). However, the function of discourses is rarely single, most of which have a major function and other minor ones (Newmark, 2001). In style "Dao Nantong" is close to a travel essay, which has both informative and vocative functions, indicating that its transformation from communicative and cultural dimensions is more important than that from linguistic one. What is common between source and target texts is that both aim at introducing and promoting Nantong, and stimulating the travelers' desire to travel to Nantong. The original text consists of 2 parts: Part 1(i.e. Paragraph 1-4) mainly introduces Nantong's history and its unique geography; Part 2 (i.e. Paragraph 5-29) displays Nantong's beautiful natural landscape and culture. Table 2 contrastively shows the differences between 2 versions in discourse structure, paragraph quantity, text function, translation strategies, translation methods, the degree of multidimensional transformation, the degree of holistic adaptation and selection, and reader feedback.

TABLE 2
CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF 2 VERSIONS

Contrastive analysis	Source text	Version 1	Version 2
Translator		Professional translator, female	Student translator, female
Discourse structure	2 parts: introduction and body	3 parts: introduction, body and conclusion	2 parts: introduction and body
Paragraph quantity	29	23	28 (Translator 2 only omits Paragraph 18 of source text because she thinks it repetitive, and the order of other paragraphs remain exactly the same with the source text.)
Text function	Informative and vocative	Informative and vocative	Expressive and informative
Translation strategy		Adaptation	Complete translation
Translation method		Communicative translation as the primary and semantic translation as the secondary	Semantic translation as the primary and communicative translation as the secondary
Degree of multi-dimensional transformation		The transformation from communicative and cultural dimensions is more important than that from linguistic one. Translator 1 makes adaptive selection not only from communicative, cultural and linguistic dimensions, but from other factors such as source text, target language, length of writing, readers, society, communicative channels and client (employer).	The transformation from linguistic dimension is more important than that from communicative and cultural ones. Translator 2 makes adaptive selection mainly from the linguistic dimension, and takes less consideration of other factors such as culture, communication, length of writing, readers, society and communication channels.
Degree of holistic adaptation and selection		Higher	Lower
Reader feedback		With interesting adjectives but without being too heavy or "flowery", Version 1 is easily read and understood, which is needed in an article designed for the general public. It has a more natural format and order, and the sentences are shorter and to the point.	Although it uses beautiful poetic language, Version 2 tends to get "lost" in its descriptions. Version 2 has many grammatical mistakes, too many adjectives (and adjective clauses), and is generally not easily read by a native speaker. It might be a closer translation to what is really said in Chinese, but most Americans write and read very different texts. Version 2 seems as it was translated by someone who is not as familiar with translating a whole message, rather than translating word-by-word. It is a little cumbersome. Version 2 has very long sentences that are not so common, and they are harder to process and understand.

It is noteworthy that Translator 1 consciously divides the ending of the original text into 2 parts, thus forming the 3rd part of the text—conclusion. It is chosen out of adapting the characteristics of the target language and target audience because the target audience is more accustomed to the classic rhetoric of "introduction, body and conclusion". Corresponding with the original text, Version 2 also has 2 parts and its translator does not consider the reading habits of the target audience. By the interview, the authors learn that Translator 1 completely deleted some unimportant information such as quoted poems and couplets to adapt the limited length of news and the acceptance characteristics of English readers, and to reduce their cognitive burden; on the contrary, Translator 2 thinks that information like quoted poems and couplets are essential for the original text, so she translates it fully. It is obvious that the choice of Translator 1 adapts more to the informative and vocative functions of the original text, embodying the choosing principle in news adaptation, which is supported by principles of "preservation of strong ones and elimination of weak ones" and "survival through selection". The two translators' differences in adaptation and selection lead to the different degree of acceptance to the target texts. 4 American subjects agree that Version 1 is better or clearer than Version 2. A foreign teacher comments, "While both use beautiful poetic language, Version 2 tends to get "lost" in its descriptions. I found myself having to re-read several paragraphs in order to understand meanings in Version 2. Additionally, Version 2 has quite a few incomplete sentences and several awkwardly worded sentences. Both versions have grammatical errors — subject/verb agreement or verb consistency (using the same tense throughout a sentence) or incomplete sentences or the use of sentence fragments — but nothing too serious and nothing that an editor couldn't correct." News translation is an important channel in international communication and we must stick to the three close principles in publicity—close to the reality of Chinese development, close to the information needs of foreign audience and close to the thinking habit of foreign audience (Huang, 2004, p.27). In the translation process, Translator 1 adapts more to the target readers, to the delivery of news information and to the adaptation principle. So Version 1 has a higher degree of adaptation and selection than Version 2.

2. Contrastive analysis of translation cases

Case 1：到南通——听罢江声听海声	Context: It is the title of the original text, highlighting the informative and vocative functions of soft news concerning travel by using metonymies.
Version 1: Travel to Nantong	Analysis: Adapting the theme and cultural background of original text, Translator 1 selects expressive forms and rhetorical styles of target language, which makes the English headline short and concise, achieves the informative and vocative functions of original text and the communicative purpose of source text's writer.
Version 2: People to Nantong to listen to the sound of the river and appreciate that of the ocean	Analysis: Literal translation is adopted. Being interviewed, Translator 2 said that while selecting the target text, she had only considered how to adapt the source text but neglected the target language's expressive characteristics and style, and the text function. One of the US subject thinks it a little cumbersome and unnatural to English native speakers. It is hard for Version 2 to achieve the ideal effects of international communication.
Review: As far as the title is concerned, Translator 1 makes better adaptation and selection and her expression is appropriate, so the degree of holistic adaptation and selection of Version 1 is higher. The most highlighting feature of Version 1 judged by the target audience is its conciseness and eye-catching. Version 2 is hard to understand because of many Chinglish expressions in it.	

Case 2：如果说中国乃至世界的版图多来自大地亿万年某个抖动和怒吼，当然，也有的不过是大地酣睡时不经意的一个懒腰，如汶川现在的地貌，唯有长三角是个例外，是千百年来长江和大海堆砌给人类的礼物，它们的前身，都是时隐时现的水中沙洲。南通，便是沙洲之一，一千多年前，这里叫胡逗州。	Context: It's the first paragraph of the original text. Using personification, metaphor and hyperbole, it vividly describes Nantong's geographic features reflecting the exaggeration and spiral thinking pattern of Chinese. With meaningful and emotional expressions a great artistic momentum is heightened.
Version 1: Before silt from the Yangtze River and Yellow Sea was deposited millennia ago into what is now the Yangtze River Delta, the area had many tidal sand ridges. Nantong, on the northern bank of the Yangtze River's mouth in Jiangsu Province, was one of these ridges, and 1,000 years ago was known as Hudouzhou or Broad Bean Tidal Ridge.	Analysis: From the perspective of Westerners' thinking pattern, important information is often put at the end of a paragraph. Keeping this in mind and adapting the communicative translation, Translator 1 highlights the informative function of news text by avoiding the empty and dwell on the full. Version 1 is clear, concise and easy to understand, and it reduces the cognitive burden of English readers, which is a selection based on adapting the translation eco-environment presented by source text and original and target languages.
Version 2: If the territory of China or even that of the whole world originates from the earth's shakes or roars billions of years ago, of course, some of which were the earth's lazy casual stretch when it is sound sleep, such as Wenchuan's now landscape, only the Yangtze River Delta piled up by the Yangtze River and the sea spending thousands of years as a gift to mankind is an exception, its ultimate sources were the flickering shoals surrounded by waters. Nantong is one of the shoals, which was called Hudou County a thousand years ago.	Analysis: Translator 2 mechanically translates all the content of the original text with pompous language. A US subject comments, "Version 2 tries too hard to be poetic and loses sight of what it is trying to communicate. The first sentence is incomplete and rambles with several fragments strung together. I feel the writer is trying to write a piece of great literature rather than simply telling a story." This version only adapts to the vivid description of the original text, but overlooks the main idea and function of the original text, and the characteristics of target language and target readers, so it achieves a lower degree of holistic adaptation and selection.
Review: The diffusive sentence pattern in the original text reflects subjective and fuzzy thinking way of oriental people. To adapt the objective and precise thinking way of Westerners, translators should convert the diffusive sentences into compact ones. Translator 1 effectively integrates dimensions of language, thinking, communication, etc. and considers stylistic features of the soft news, which are straight to the point, concise and easy to understand. So Version 1 has been highly praised by readers. Foreign teachers agree that Version 2 is hard to understand because of its vague and puzzling expressions.	

It is obvious that flexible translation methods should be adopted in translating soft news, which is different from the hard news translation. Based on the full understanding of the original text, the translator must take into consideration the target readers' cognition, thinking and expressive features of target language to create a target text acceptable for target readers. If necessary, the translator could reorganize the target text by breaking the syntactic structure or expressive order in the original text, or only translate the important information based on the principle of "preservation of strong ones and elimination of weak ones".

Case 3 ：其实一个病中之人能美到几分，然而张謇却日日守候在身边，一笔笔记录了沈寿口述的《雪宦绣谱》，就在张謇的印书局出版，视为当今瑰宝。	Context: The sentence is taken from Paragraph 14 (Haohe section), whose ending tells the love story between celebrities Zhang Jian and Shen Shou, an embroidery master.
Version 1: Omission.	Analysis: Translator 1 states 2 reasons of omitting Paragraphs 14 and 15 in the original text. One is that she rejects information unfamiliar and redundant for target readers, and the other is the limited length of news. The translation method is in line with the adaptation principle of news translation and also the principle of "survival through selection".
Version 2: In fact, can't an ill person be beautiful? However, Zhang Jian attended her day and night, recording the Xue Huan Embroidered Method in detail, which was narrated orally by Shen Shou and published in Zhang Jian's Press. Now, we considered this book as our national treasure.	Analysis: Translator 2 faithfully converts the details of the original text, which satisfies target readers' desire of learning foreign culture. A foreign teacher wrote, "I like the detail of Version 2, but it is awkwardly worded. Here is how I would reword Version 2: 'Even an ill person can be beautiful. Zhang Jian attended her day and night, recording Shen Shou's detailed dictation of the *Xue Huan Embroidery Method*, resulting in a book that to this day, is considered to be a national treasure.' "
Version 3: Her *Book on the Art of Embroidery*, recorded while she was sick in bed, and published by her lover, Zhang Jian, is cherished even today.	Analysis: The authors think that since Paragraphs 12 and 13 mainly describes Shen Shou's skillful embroidery craft and its effects, it would lead to the translation failure if Paragraphs 14 and 15 are deleted because it does not adapt the communicative dimension of the original text. Since the former section has introduced Zhang Jian, the reader can understand it if this part is translated. So the authors put Case 3 at the end of Paragraph 9 and gets Version 3. A Foreign teacher thinks that Version 3 is clear, concise and easy to understand.
Review: The reason why Translator 1 adopts the omission method has been discussed. From the analysis of Version 2, the authors find that the subjects are curious about the exotic culture. If possible, clearly translating the original text (Version 3) can be regarded as the best adaptation and selection.	

To achieve effectiveness and be accepted by target readers, translators must consider the receptive psychological factors of target readers, including their outlook on life, emotional attitude, knowledge structure, cultural background, cognitive way and expectation (Lu, 2002).

Case 4: 三百多年前，明末四公子之一的冒辟疆与秦淮八艳之一的董小宛，就在水绘园里把爱情浪漫到极致。	Context: Case 4 is from Paragraph 23 in the section of Shuihui Garden, which focuses on the romantic love story between Mao Pijiang and Dong Xiaowan happening in the Shuihui Garden. The important and hard point in translation is the culturally-loaded words such as Mao Pijiang, Dong Xiaowan and *Qinhuai Bayan*.
Version 1: <u>The protagonist Mao Pijiang (1611-1693) was a distinguished man of letters in the late Ming and early Qing dynasties.</u> It was in this garden that Mao started his romance with Dong Xiaowan, <u>one of the top eight geishas (beautiful women of artistic versatility who were trained from childhood to entertain intellectuals and upper-class people) along the Qinhuai River in the vicinity of Jiangsu's Nanjing.</u>	Analysis: Translator 1 figures out the differences between source and target languages and cultures, so literal translation and annotation method (underlined part) are adopted to translate the information about Mao Pijiang, and free translation and annotation method about *Qinhuai Bayan*, which highlights the unique Chinese culture and makes a deep impression on the target readers, and is helpful for cross-culture communication. The subjects think that "geisha" is a keyword in Version 1, and although the sentence loaded the cultural information of *Qinhuai Bayan* is too long, target readers could easily understand it.
Version 2: More than 300 years ago, Mao Pijiang and Dong Xiaowan, one of the beauties of Qinhuai played their love to the extreme on the Garden Shuihui.	Analysis: Adopting word-by-word translation, expressions in Version 2 are plain and deficient (such as "played their love"). Translator 2 fails in delivering the cultural information of the original text. Some subjects say, "Although Version 2 is similar to the original text, it is hard to understand for westerners with little knowledge about Chinese culture". Paying little attention to the differences between Chinese and Western cultures, Translator 2 fails in completely adapting the target language environment. It is hard for Version 2 to gain the same or similar effects among target readers as among the original ones, so it can only convey limited cultural information to target readers.
Review: Version 1 is clearer than Version 2. From the perspectives of language, culture and communication, Version 1 is better in delivering the contents and aims of the original text and in embodying the translation principle of "multi-dimensional adaptation and adaptive selection" and the translation method of 3-dimensional transformation (i.e. linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions). In other words, Version 1 fully expresses the cultural information in the sour text, so it has a higher degree of holistic adaptation and selection.	

In translating soft news, while making an adaptive selection from the cultural dimension, the translator should not only consider the news characteristic of delivering culture information, but the connotation and characteristics of target culture, and the receptive ability of target readers.

3. Interview of translators

The authors interview Translator 2 for the translation process of "Dao Nantong".

Interviewer: What was your plan of adopting translation strategies or methods before translating the passage? What factors did you consider before translating?

Translator 2: I didn't have much consideration. I read the whole passage and then began to translate.

Interviewer: Don't you consider the style of the passage?

Translator 2: I felt the material had something to do with tourism. It was narrative. (In fact, the researcher had told her that the article was taken from Jinri Zhongguo before inviting her to translate).

Interviewer: Do you think it necessary to translate all the poems and couplets in the article?

Translator 2: Yes, it is necessary to translate all the parts because all of them are important and can not be omitted.

Interviewer: The article describes Nantong, a tourist attraction, and tells some stories about it. You translated almost the whole passage. What do you think of your translation method?

Translator 2: I didn't think so much. I only thought the content of the original text should be translated.

It could be seen that during the translation Translator 2 did not consider news's stylistic characteristics, text function and target readers, and she mainly adapted to the original text. Actually, in translating soft news the adaptation and selection include not only the linguistic, cultural and communicative dimensions but factors such as source text, target language, length of writing, readers, society, communicative channel and client (employer or translation agency). The following dialogue between the researcher and Translator 1 is about the omission method adopted in translation:

Interviewer: Would you tell me why you used the omission method in translating "Dao Nantong"?

Translator 1: Our translation work has its own characteristics. It has a very strong feature of news. We mainly use the adaptation method. Not only do we consider the text and its logic but target readers, such as their receptive ability and cultural background.

Interviewer: You omitted the whole love story between Zhang Jian and Shen Shou in the Haohe section. Don't you think it necessary to translate Shen Shou's works Xuehuan Embroidery?

Translator 1: Our translation has a length limitation, so we have to delete something according to the length of the text.

Interviewer: But you translated the whole love story between Mao Pijiang and Dong Xiaowan in the section of Shuihui Garden. Is it different from the former love story between Zhang Jian and Shen Shou?

Translator 1: Yes. There is only a few contents under the subtitle of "Shuihui Garden" in the original text. If the love story between Mao Pijiang and Dong Xiaowan had been omitted, there would have been nothing left.

Interviewer: You mean the translation method adapts to the original text, right?

Translator 1: Right. We must take the main content of the original text into consideration.

In the translation eco-environment of soft news, the translator adapts and/or selects the target text mainly from the dimensions of communication, culture and language, and in most cases, it is hard to distinguish these dimensions or levels because they are interwoven. What's more, every dimension, every level or every aspect has different contents interwoven and interacted together. Indeed, the soft news translation is a complex adaptation and/or selection activity if other aspects of translation eco-environment are included, such as writers, readers, sponsors, publishers, translation critics and clients (Hu, 2006), which is the "degree of holistic adaptation and selection" of source text and target language required by the target text.

III. CONCLUSION

This study shows that the effective translation strategy of soft news is adaptation. Translation method of soft news is based on communicative translation and takes the semantic one as supplement. Translation process of soft news is the translator's adaption to the typically
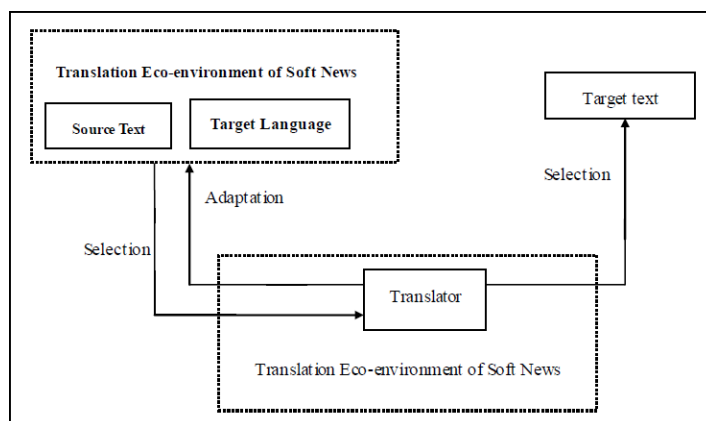

Figure 2 "Adaptation" and "selection" in translating soft news

important components of "source text and target language" in one translation eco-environment and the selection of target text made by the typically important component of "translator" in the other (see Figure 2). The only distinction between Figures 1 and 2 is that the first translation eco-environment in Figure 1 takes the source text as a typical component while that in Figure 2 both the source text and target language as typical components. The translation eco-environment of soft news includes sub-eco-environment of source language and that of target language, and the translator bridges the two. The translator of soft news does his or her work mainly in the latter sub-eco-environment and

so he or she is greatly influenced by the latter. Wang & Wu (2009) also have the same opinions. The translator makes a selection in every aspect of soft news translation activities, at every stage of translation process and on every level of transformation; a better communicative effect could be achieved in case that the translator makes an adaptive selection considering source text, target language and target readers. News translators' experiences, comprehension of source text, knowledge of text function, etc. have great effects on their translation thought and their choices of translation strategies. There is a correlation between the "degree of holistic adaptation and selection" of soft news translation and the "recognition degree of readers". A better version has a higher "degree of holistic adaptation and selection" and a higher "recognition degree of readers".

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Wenpeng Lü was born in Gansu, China in 1966. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Northwest Normal University, China in 1999. She is currently an associate professor and M.A. supervisor at College of Foreign Language and Literature in Northwest Normal University, China. Her research interests include linguistics and translation studies.

Fuxin Ma was born in Gansu, China in 1977. She received her M.A. degree in translation studies from Northwest Normal University, China in 2011. She is currently a teacher at College of Foreign Language and Literature in Tianshui Normal University, China. Her research interest is translation studies.

Jing Wang was born in Gansu, China in 1984. She is a postgraduate admitted in 2009 by the College of Foreign Language and Literature in Northwest Normal University, China. Her research interest is translation studies.

Communicative Interaction in Language Learning Tasks among EFL Learners

Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri
Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran

Forough Rahimi
Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran
Email: rahimi.forough@yahoo.com

Mohammad Javad Riasati
Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran

Abstract—This paper explores peer-peer interactions of low proficiency level children using a spot-the-differences task in an EFL context in a language institute in Shiraz, Iran. The children were asked to practice with several sets of similar spot-the-differences tasks and the analysis focuses on the observable changes from the first to the last repetition. After the task performances were recorded, the children were invited to watch their first and last performances and comment on the changes they noticed in an interview. Both the analysis of their dialogues performing the tasks and their reflections clearly indicate that peer-peer interactions with this age group at a very low level of competence can bring various benefits and thus primary language teachers could consider introducing similar communication tasks with children with some confidence.

Index Terms—peer-peer interaction, communicative tasks, communicative interaction, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning tasks have been explored with adult language learners (Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Edward and Willis, 2005) but studies with children have been scarce even though learning English has seen a dramatic expansion to the primary sector in many contexts around the world (Kubanek, 1998; Cameron, 2003). This study attempts to explore children's ability to interact with each other in English as a foreign language at a very basic level of competence, using a popular communication task, 'spot the differences'. A series of repeated performances with the same type of task is explored to find out what gains this type of task repetition may bring. The study was motivated by the observation in many primary school contexts that the majority of language practices that learners receive tend to be centered around pattern practice, drilling and memorizing prefabricated expressions rather than experimenting with fluency tasks to express their own meanings in a less restricted manner (Mitchell and Lee, 2003). Teachers often feel that children at a low level of competence are generally unable to handle communication tasks and benefit from them in any way.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Language Tasks and Repetition

Tasks encourage learners to communicate with each other in real time. Due to the immediate pressures of spontaneous communication in tasks, learners have to simultaneously focus on both form and meaning. Since humans' processing capacity is limited (Anderson, 1995) and meaning is prioritized over form (Van Patten, 1990), manipulating learners' attention to focus on linguistic forms has become a key priority in research. Repetition is a task performance condition that can manipulate learners' attention through freeing up processing resource capacities. Bygate's work in the last decade has shown that in monologic tasks, repetition involves a special type of rehearsal where the learners can relate the repeated performance 'to information kept in the long term memory store' (Bygate, 2001). When they have the chance to repeat a task, learners can shift their attention to produce more complex grammar, more appropriate vocabulary, and they can generally organize and optimize their language resources more effectively (Gas et al, 1991; Bygate and Samuda, 2005). When learners are exposed to interactive tasks, they can rely on their previous performances of the same task to a limited extent only since their interlocutor's contributions will always bring some novelty to the joint interaction. Interactive task solutions are co-constructed and speakers need to satisfy their interlocutors' needs in addition to monitoring their own performance.

Some studies with adult learners have explored the effects of repeating interactive tasks (Plough and Gass, 1993; Platt and Brooks, 1994; Brooks et al., 1997; Lynch and Maclean, 2000, 2001). Plough and Gass (1993) conducted a study using two tasks, a type of spot-the-differences task and a discussion task and found that students who repeated

them used more confirmation checks to negotiate meaning with each other. Lynch and Maclean (2001) conducted a study which incorporated the repetition of a complex poster carousel task. This study involved mature adults learners of English in a medical ESP class. The students had to prepare a poster, display it and act as hosts answering questions of fellow students about it. The repetition of the tasks involved the hosts of the posters in explaining their messages to different people with different questions. Lynch and Maclean found that after six repetitions their students' language improved in many ways. All students produced more fluent and more accurate language, they all improved their phonology and vocabulary (both access and selection) and many of them improved their syntax, too. The subjects' ability to reflect on the changes was related to their proficiency level in English. The higher proficiency learners were better able to reflect on the changes brought about by the repetition of the task. With beginner-level students learning Spanish, two studies by Platt and Brooks (1994) and Brooks *et al.* (1997) showed that task repetition even at lower levels of competence led to students being able to gain better control of the tasks by using less L1 and less overt statements of self-regulation.

B. Children's Peer-peer Interactions

One important aspect of interactions in tasks is the need to collaborate effectively with a partner and this requires an appreciation of the partner's needs. Children's overall ability to take their partner's needs in peer-peer interactions grows with age (Azmitia, 1998). Research in L1 development indicates that different age groups learn to cope with demands needed for peer–peer interactions gradually as they mature (Nelson, 1996; Ricard, 1993; Meadows, 1998; Woods, 1998; Anderson and Lynch, 1988). Young children often rely on adults to manage conversations for them (Scakella and Higa, 1981). In the absence of the adult partner, when they are communicating with other children, they show weaknesses both as speakers and as listeners. As speakers they have difficulty in constructing unambiguous messages and as listeners they can't judge the adequacy of incoming messages (Lloyd et al. 1984; Robinson and Robinson, 1984). The ability to take full responsibility for ones' own utterances as well as understanding partners' utterances are skills gradually increasing with age. All these developmental findings influence interaction in second or foreign languages and research in child second language learning clearly reflect these developmental influences. Studies involving child subjects working in pairs with other children or with adults have been carried out in different contexts (Oliver, 1988, 2000, 2002; Mackey et al., 2003; Ellis, 1985) and these studies have investigated various interactional processes, such as giving and utilizing feedback, question formation and meaning negotiation. The results indicate that children benefit from interacting with both peers and adults and with both NS and NNS interlocutors but both learner age and interlocutor type are important variables. Mackey and Silver (2005) claim that SLA research finding should not be generalized to children without adequate empirical evidence. However, little is known about peer-peer interactions of different age groups especially in EFL contexts, that is, what children can cope with and benefit from.

III. OBJECTIVES

This study aims to explore EFL children's peer-peer interaction using a spot-the-differences task. Thus, main aim of the study is to identify what benefits the repetition brings, if any and whether the children are aware of these benefits.

IV. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A. Participants

The children were selected from beginner levels, with almost low level of proficiency in a language institute in Shiraz, Iran. The sample was chosen among a population who has learned English as a foreign language in a traditional teaching context, that is, English classes closely following the course book, emphasizing the grammar, rehearsal of set dialogues and memorizing through rote learning.

These children had never seen or used interactive tasks in their English lessons before and they never had the opportunity to use their English spontaneously without preparation or rehearsal.

B. Data Collection

For each recording a different version of the spot-the-differences task was used. The task is clearly meaning-focused, conforming to Skehan's (1998) definition. According to this definition, in tasks meaning is primary and there is always some communication problem to solve. Tasks also mirror comparable real-world activities and task completion has priority over other performance outcomes. In the spot-the differences task each picture represents a scene of a playground which is consisted of different objects, people doing thing, animals, etc.

For each recording a variation from set to set was achieved by a random organization of the content items within the same scenes. The following types of differences were used:

• Type 1: In picture A, a particular item was present but it was missing in picture B.
• Type 2: The number of a particular item in picture A was different from B.
• Type 3: A particular item in picture A was replaced by something else in picture B, or the same person was doing something different in each picture.

The children were told that the researcher is interested in how the tasks would work with children who are learning English. It was clearly stated that their performances and opinions were only available to the researcher and they were not going to count towards their assessment at final. An informal briefing session was organized to show a sample set of the task to the children but no advice was given to them as to how to manage the tasks, how to help each other or what the best strategies would be to locate the differences. They were invited to do the task in their mother tongue in order for them to familiarize themselves with the task and get a feel for how it works. Then they were recorded three times in English over a period of three weeks.

The recordings took place in a small empty classroom in the institute but outside the children's English classes with only the researcher in the room, who needed to get to know the children prior to the study. The researcher did not interfere at all and the children were in control as to when to stop the video-recorder.

V. Data Analysis

The children's performances were transcribed and changes between the different repetitions were analyzed, to see the most obvious change between the first and the last recording in English, and to evaluate the children's fluency on the task. In this paper, however, we focused on another aspect of their interaction. It seems that the opportunity to repeat the task helps them to appreciate each other's needs better in view of the demands of the task. In particular we looked at peer assistance and their ability to pay attention to each other's utterances. Finally, we also discussed the extent to which they were aware of the benefits observable in their interactions.

A. Peer Assistance

Given that children at this age (the participants were mainly from 12-14 age group) are still developing their skills as speaking partners, it was of particular interest to examine to what extent they appreciate their conversational partner's needs and whether their ability to do this is going to be affected by the task repetition. Adult studies have demonstrated that peer assistance can lead to learners using more target-like grammar in interactive tasks (Donato, 1994; Ohta, 2000). We also assumed that there is evidence of this in this experiment, that is, the weaker learners develop the target structure for describing people or things across the repetitions of the task with his/her friend's assistance.

B. Paying Attention to Each Other's Utterances

The opportunities to repeat the spot-the-differences task led to changes in the way the children paid attention to each other's utterances and to the demands of the task at hand. At the beginning they considered the spot-the-differences task to be an opportunity to display their own knowledge almost irrespective of what their partners had to say. By the end, it was obvious that their interpretation had moved on from 'an individual task' to 'a joint game' and they had learnt to take notice and build on each other's utterances.

One basic characteristic feature of referential gap tasks, such as the spot-the- differences task, is that all participants need to pay attention to what their partners are saying because it is only by building up joint information that they can find and keep tally of the differences.

C. Children's Comments

After recording the tasks, the children were invited together for an interview with the researcher to talk about the tasks and the benefits of repetition as they perceived them. The children watched their first and last performances and commented on the differences they noticed. They were asked if they feel more confident and relaxed using their English, if they can explain their messages better and if they have learnt from each other's ways of speaking, and if they have learnt new thing like new words. They had noticed their initial lack of fluency and general hesitation. Their comments showed that in the first performance they were more concerned with their own utterances and they were saying what they could rather than paying attention to each other.

Next, they explained why they felt they were struggling at the beginning. They said that the difficulty lay in their lack of familiarity with the task. The other reason that they mentioned was the lack of words needed to describe items in the pictures. Their concern with vocabulary was clearly evident in the performances in that many of their attempts to assist each other described earlier were related to vocabulary. This concern was clearly articulated in their reflections too.

Their comments indicated their growing awareness to pay attention to what the partner was saying in order to meet the challenges of the task. The children clearly enjoyed the task and seeing the improvements between the performances gave them a real sense of satisfaction.

VI. Discussion

The task repetition clearly led to many gains for the children. They enjoyed the experience of speaking English in a spontaneous manner with each other, managed to complete the task by the last repetition more fluently. They assisted each other across the repetitions but in particular the more competent learner assisted the weaker one in many different ways. In addition, the children improved their grasp of the task and could better appreciate what the task demands were. They learnt to pay attention and respond to each other more carefully. On the first occasion they handled the task as one that requires each speaker to simply display their knowledge of English irrespective of the partner's contributions and

later they turned the task into a joint fast-moving game that they tackled with confidence. The interview indicated that they were able to see the benefits of the task repetition and were aware of many of the positive changes that occurred in their performances.

All this evidence suggests that using this kind of task repetition with communication tasks can work effectively with children at low levels of proficiency. In addition, it may be the case that this kind of task repetition (i.e. practicing with the same task type) can provide a scaffold that children can benefit from without or before the intervention from the teacher. Through a series of task repetition these children moved from less effective to more effective ways of handling both this gap task and each other as conversational partners. Interacting with a peer on repeated occasions can be a rich learning experience and working with the same partner over several repetitions means children can grow more confidence. In classrooms this can be a fruitful way of introducing tasks: getting children to practice with the same partner and then to think about what they did and why and how they improved.

It is of course not possible to claim that all the changes happened as a result of the task repetition exclusively. The task performances and the follow-up interview were recorded over a period of three weeks and even though the children were not encouraged to do any preparation or consultation with anybody, it would have been unnatural for them not to mention their experiences to anyone and above all not to talk about it between them. It is quite likely that the children talked about the tasks to their parents, friends, siblings or teachers. They may also have looked at their English textbooks, dictionaries or other sources to find words such as names of rooms or names of animals.

This study did not attempt to set up a direct cause and effect relationship between repetition and learning in an experimental manner because many of the variables were not controlled. Instead, the claim is that repetition offered regular opportunities and a vehicle for the children to display their growing ability to interact with each other and control a specific type of task without any intervention from the teacher. Assisting each other promptly, paying attention to each other or realizing that they had to tighten the search for differences could not have been improved in any other way outside the task but by directly participating in the task on repeated occasions.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study supports earlier research by suggesting that it is important to provide practice in task repetition. The analysis of the data illustrates that repetition of this kind can be beneficial at low levels of proficiency with children, not just adults. These encouraging results may suggest that teachers with beginner-level child learners can be more confident that peer-peer interactions, at least for this age group, offer multiple benefits to learners and practicing with similar tasks is an effective way of encouraging these positive changes to take place. It is of course important to add that different age groups need different task types and younger children are less likely to notice the demands of the task or the needs of the interlocutor.

There are naturally limitations to the tentative claims made in this paper. Limitations include the choice of one specific task and a specific teaching/learning and cultural context. Research with different tasks, more learners in different contexts and of different age groups would be essential to begin to build up a picture about the processes that occur in children's peer-peer interactions in language tasks.

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Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri is an assistant professor of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and a faculty member at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz branch. He has published many books and articles, and presented at several national and international conferences. His main areas of interest are second language teaching/acquisition and teacher education.

Forough Rahimi is a PhD candidate of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz branch, where she presently teaches. She has published some books and articles, and presented at several national and international conferences. Her areas of interest are second language teaching/acquisition, teacher education and critical applied linguistics.

Mohammad Javad Riasati is a PhD student of TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) at University Putra Malaysia. He has been teaching at different language institutes and universities. His areas of interest are foreign/second language acquisition and teaching.

Effects of Receptive and Productive Tasks on Iranian EFL Students' Learning of Verb-noun Collocations

Mehdi Falahi
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: Mehdi.Falahi442@gmail.com

Ahmad Moinzadeh
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The current study is an attempt to investigate the effects of receptive (reading three glossed sentences) and productive (completing a cloze task) tasks on learning English verb-noun collocations in an Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learning context. To this end, ninety four EFL university learners were divided into two experimental (reading and cloze) groups and one control group. To determine the effects of the tasks, the participants in all three groups were given receptive and productive collocation pretests aiming at examining their existing knowledge of collocation and posttests to measure the learners' gained knowledge of collocation after being exposed to the treatments. The results of a Paired sample t-test revealed that both the reading and cloze groups had manifested significant enhancement in their knowledge of collocation after the treatments.

Index Terms—collocation, collocate, node, receptive task, productive task

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, there has been a widespread consensus among L2 teachers and researchers over the idea of including collocation teaching in the second and foreign language teaching curriculums (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Howarth, 1998; McCarthy & O'Dell, 2005; Nesselhauf, 2003). Vocabulary of each language consists of single words such as nouns and adjectives and word combinations such as idioms and collocations. Collocations comprise a significant part of native speaker competence, and they need to be given a much attention as given to other areas of the English language when developing materials and designing academic curriculums (Hill, 2000). Due to constant contact with the language, native speakers of English manage to acquire collocations subconsciously, but L2 learners specially English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are deprived of this privilege (Webb & Kagimoto, 2009). This problem seems to be more noticeable when it comes to the university students majoring in the English language and advanced (EFL) learners (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Biskup, 1992; Nesselhauf, 2003), because they are expected to be as fluent and accurate as possible. Collocations have traditionally been seen as effective tools through learning which the L2 learners can achieve higher levels of fluency and accuracy (Wray, 2000). Given the significance of collocations in L2 learning and how problematic this area of the language could be for EFL/ESL learners, there may be no wonder that the language teachers and researchers have been taking such a great interest in the role of collocations in the English language classes and trying to examine a variety of methods that may best serve in explicitly and effectively teaching English collocations. Despite the widely recognized importance of collocations, not many studies have empirically turned to investigating the best means of teaching collocations in the English classrooms (Webb & kagimoto, 2009). This study is an attempt to examine the effectiveness of commonly used methods of teaching single words, reading and cloze tasks in explicitly teaching verb-noun collocations in an Iranian English as foreign language learning.

II. BACKGROUND

Studies conducted on the collocations can be put under three categories; studies on exploring the nature and classification of collocations of different types, studies aiming at investigate the EFL/ESL learners' knowledge of collocations and the problems they deal with when using collocations and studies addressing the issue of teaching and learning collocation in the English classroom.

As for the first group of the studies, linguists have put forward a variety of definitions for collocations (Firth, 1957, Sinclair, 1991, Baker, 1992, Lewis, 1994, Hill, 2000, Woolard 2000, Nation, 2001). Almost all proposed definitions for collocation have one point in common: they define collocation as the tendency of some words to co-occur on a regular basis and that these words do not co-occur at random and there are restrictions on how words may combine to make collocations (Baker, 1992). Linguists classify collocations in similar ways. Collocations have generally been classified

either as open and restricted collocations Mahmoud (2005) or lexical and grammatical collocations (Benson & ILson , 1986, Baker, 1992, Bahns, 1993). Open collocations refer to nodes that can cluster with a wide range of other words e.g. a red car, a small car, an expensive car, etc. Restricted collocations refer to clusters that are fixed or like idioms e.g. kick the bucket, rain cats and dogs, etc. Grammatical collocations consist of content words: a noun, an adjective or a verb plus a preposition or infinitive. Meanwhile, lexical collocations consist of neither prepositions nor infinitives. They comprise only content words. The second group of studies mainly focuses on the L2 learners, knowledge of English collocations and their problems with collocations:

The comprehension of collocations, due to being transparent, doesn't seem to be problematic for the L2 learners, therefore examining the learners' knowledge of collocations and analyzing their problems with collocations we must investigate their production of collocations (Nesselhauf, 2003). Studies conducted on L2 collocations can be divided into two categories. One group tried to examine learners' collocational knowledge using elicitation techniques such as translation tests (Biskup, 1990, 1992; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993) cloze tests (Shei, 1999; Al-Zahrani, 1998), multiple choice tests (Fayez-Hussein, 1990; Arnaud and Savignon, 1997), blank-filling tasks (Aghbar, 1990; Aghbar and Tang, 1991). These studies have been widely criticized for not being able to show the learners' actual knowledge of collocations, because they just require the learners to produce single collocates. To cope with this limitation the other category of studies tried to analyze the learners' collocational knowledge through comparing their writing tasks with those of native speakers of English, thereby giving the learners the opportunity to produce multi-word collocations of different kinds (Fan, 1991; Granger, 1998b; Lorenz, 1999; Howarth, 1998; Kaszubski, 2000; Zhang, 1993). In general, the results of these studies indicated that the learners were suffering from lack of proper knowledge of collocations and collocation is certainly an area of difficulty for most of L2 learners. The findings of these studies all point to the fact collocation is a problematic area of language for L2 learners, hence it has to be attended to in the English classrooms thoroughly.

Recognizing the importance of collocations for L2 learners, researchers in language teaching field started to examine methods of collocation teaching in the English classrooms in different countries. Of the limited number of the studies which have specifically addresses the issue of teaching collocations, most are concerned with investigating the use of computer aided language teaching facilities in collocation teaching. Sun and Wang (2003) used a concordancer program to examine the relative effectiveness of inductive and deductive approaches to learning grammatical collocations at two levels of difficulty in the classroom. The results showed that the inductive group improved significantly more than the deductive group in learning collocation as demonstrated by an error correction test. The level of difficulty of collocation was also found to influence the learning outcome with easy collocations being more suitable for an inductive approach. In a follow-up study, Chan and Liou (2005) also investigated the effects of Web-based concordancing on collocation learning in a CALL classroom. The study used five Web- based practice units, three of which included the use of a bilingual Chinese–English concordancer to teach verb–noun collocations to EFL students. In line with Sun and Wang's (2003) results, they also found that explicit online instruction was effective in promoting EFL learner knowledge of collocation, with results significantly higher for units in which the concordance had been used. Results also showed significant differences in learning between four verb–noun collocation types with concordancers deemed most suitable for use in the instruction of delexicalised verbs and L1–L2 noncongruent verb collocations. Koosha and Jafarpour (2006) investigated the influence of concordancing materials presented through data-driven learning (DDL) on teaching/learning collocation of prepositions; and, to find out if knowledge of collocation of prepositions was different among the different levels of EFL learners' proficiency. Finally, to determine the extent to which Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of collocation of prepositions is affected by their L1. the results of the study indicated that first, the DDL approach proved to be highly effective in the teaching and learning of collocation of prepositions. Second, learners' performance on collocation of prepositions was shown to be positively related to their level of proficiency. Third, the analysis of errors of collocations indicated that Iranian EFL learners tended to carry over their L1 collocational patterns to their L2 production. Some studies have tried to examine the effects of the methods which are commonly used in teaching single-words in traditional classroom contexts. Lin (2002) examined the effects of employing receptive and productive tasks on verb-noun collocation teaching. Participants in this study were divided into two groups of lower-achiever and higher-achiever students. The results of this study indicated that both groups did better on the receptive tests than the productive ones, but lower-achiever student had a slightly better performance on the productive tests that the higher-achiever students after being exposed to the treatments. Tseng (2002) divided about 100 students into two experimental and control groups. The experimental group was exposed to a twelve-week instruction, but the control group didn't receptive any treatment. The participants in this study were required to take pre-test on collocation, write a composition and fill out a questionnaire on collocation learning behaviors. The results this study showed that the students had little awareness towards the concept of collocation. Besides, after the instruction, the experimental group had considerably much better performance on the posttests of collocation than the control group. Webb and Kagimoto (2009) investigated the effects of receptive and productive vocabulary tasks on learning verb-noun collocation. In this study, 145 Japanese participants were assigned into two experimental and one control groups. One experimental group was exposed to receptive treatment and the other one was given productive treatment, but the control group didn't receive any training. When comparing the participants' scores on pre-tests with their scores on post-tests, the results indicated that the tasks proved to be highly effective in teaching English verb-noun collocations to the Japanese EFL

learners. The current study is an attempt to examine the effects of the modified version of the receptive and productive tasks used in (Webb & Kagimoto, 2009) on collocation learning in an Iranian EFL learning context.

Research Question:

To what extent are reading and cloze tasks effective as tools for explicitly teaching collocations in the language classroom?

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

About 94 senior and sophomore BA students , majoring in English Translation, participated in this study, Participants were both male and female with the age rages from 19-28, of these 94 students, 64 were assigned to two experimental groups (Reading = 36, Cloze task = 28) and 30 to one control group. Each experimental group was divided into two sub groups of higher level and lower level based on their scores on the Oxford Placement test.

TABLE 1:
PARTICIPANTS

		N
Control		30
Experimental	Reading	36
	Cloze task	28
Total		94

Design

To find answer to the research question, an experimental design was arranged. Two weeks before the experiment, all of the participants were administered a pretest testing their receptive knowledge of collocation and based on this pretest target collocations which students were unlikely to know were selected. In the second week, the participants were given a pretest measuring productive knowledge of collocations selected based on the receptive pretest conducted a week before, and then participants were randomly assigned to two receptive and productive experimental groups (about 64 participants) and one control group(about 30 participants). Next week, in the receptive treatment, the receptive experimental group was given the receptive treatment and the productive group was given the productive treatment collocations in blanks in the same three sentences that the first experimental group had. The participants were closely monitored by the researcher to ensure that the treatments had been completed. Having completed the treatments, the participants were immediately given the receptive and productive posttests. The control group simply completed the posttests measuring receptive and productive knowledge of collocation without being exposed to the treatments.

Materials

1) Receptive Treatment

The receptive and productive treatments used in this study were taken from Webb & Kagimoto, 2009. In the receptive treatment, the students were given collocations alongside their Farsi meaning, each collocation was followed with three glossed sentences with the related collocation in them. The participants were simply asked to try to understand the collocation, which was written in bold, in each of the three glossed sentences. In Example 1 the glossed sentences for the target collocations Pull Strings are shown.

Example 1

pull strings = پارتی بازی کردن

Tony is sure he can pull a few strings and get you in.

 Do you want me to pull a few strings for you?

2) Productive Teatment

In the productive treatment, the students were given the collocations used in the same glossed sentences used in the receptive treatment, though collocations used in each sentence, which was written in bold, were replaced. To complete this treatment, the participants were required to fill in the blanks with the appropriate collocations listed above. The participants' task was to write the two collocations in the correct set of three sentences. Ten sets of two collocations and their sentences were presented in the test Having competed the cloze task, the participants were given an answer sheet which showed the correct collocation beside the appropriate number so that they make sure about whether or not their answers were correct. In Example 2, the cloze tasks for the collocations lose touch and meet demand are shown.

Example 2

Launch attacks = حمله کردن   Grant wish= به ارزو رسیدن

It may be too late to ……….. Larry's ……. in time.

I'd happily ……… him his ………..

I'm looking for someone who'll ……… my ……..

Turkey might be used as a base from which to ………… on Iraq.

We must make sure we win the ball and then……….. our own ……….

From the islands, we will.………the land ………….

3) Receptive Pretest of Collocation

A pretest measuring receptive knowledge of collocation was used to measure learners' receptive knowledge of collocations and to select collocations that participants were unlikely to know so that they can be used in the study.

Example3

lose   a) touch   b) surprise   c) trouble   d) peace   e) I don't know

4) Productive Pretest of Collocation

In order to measure the participants' productive knowledge of verb-noun collocations, they were given a cloze test in which they were required to complete sentences through providing appropriate verbs for each sentence. A unique feature in his cloze test was, instead of deleting the verb entirely, the first letter/phoneme of the verbs was provided to prevent subjects from making a wild guess, hence assuring better accuracy in the test.

Example 4

Tony is sure he can p……….. a few strings and get you in

5) Immediate Posttest of Productive Knowledge of Collocation

Immediate posttest of productive knowledge of collocation used in this study was taken from Webb & Kagimoto, 2009. In this test, the participants were given the node words from the target collocations and had to write the collocates, which they had learned in the treatment.

Example 5

Touch ……..

6) Immediate posttest of receptive knowledge of collocation

Immediate posttest of receptive knowledge of collocation used in this study was taken from Webb & Kagimoto, 2009. The test was identical to the pretest designed to select the target collocations. it should be mentioned that both of these immediate receptive and productive posttests were given to the students immediately after completing the treatments.

Example 5

lose   a) touch   b) surprise   c) trouble   d) peace   e) I don't know

IV. RESULTS

In order to answer the research question, the difference between the participants' scores on pretests and posttests, a paired-sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the treatments (reading comprehension and cloze tests) on the participants' collocation learning.

The descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, and number of participants) of the scores for the tests measuring receptive and productive knowledge of collocation are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2

	Learning Condition								
	Control			Reading			Cloze		
	Total N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Total N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Total N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Receptive collocation pretest	30	8.30	1.78	36	7.89	2.31	28	8.07	2.76
Receptive collocation posttest	30	8.47	1.91	36	16.83	1.83	28	15.43	2.33
Productive collocation pretest	30	8.03	2.22	36	7.50	2.37	28	8.43	1.79
Productive collocation posttest	30	8.33	2.04	36	13.54	3.45	28	16.64	1.47

Figure 1 shows that the reading groups' mean score increased from 7.89 to 16.83 on the receptive tests after the treatment and the cloze groups' mean score increased from 8.07 to 15.43 on the receptive tests after being exposed to the treatment.
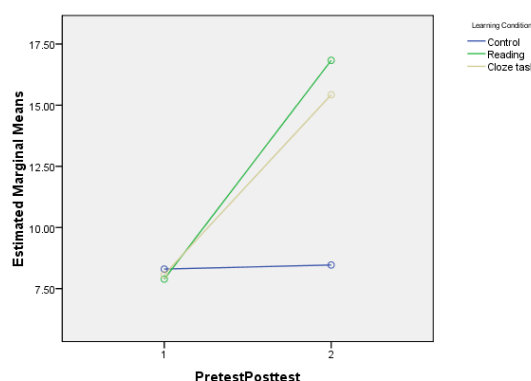

Figure 1. Pretest And Posttest Scores On The Receptive Knowledge Of Collocation Test

Figure 2 shows that the reading groups' mean score increased from 7.5 to 13.54 on the productive tests after the treatment and the cloze groups' mean score increased from 8.43 to 16.64 on the productive tests after the treatment. In order to determine the effects of the learning conditions.
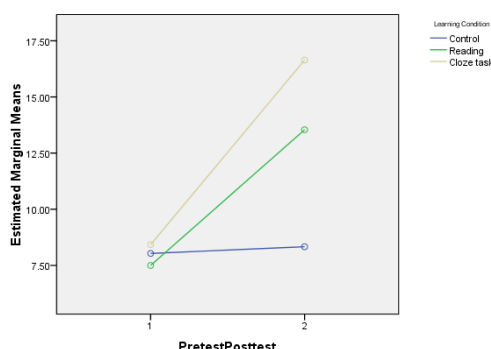

Figure 2. Pretest And Posttest Scores On The Productive Knowledge Of Collocation Test

In order to determine the effects of the learning conditions (completing a cloze task and reading three glossed sentences) on all three groups a paired-samples t-test was conducted, the results of the paired-sample tests revealed that the reading group and the cloze group improved their scores considerably more than the control group.

There was a statistically significant difference between the participants' performance on the pretests and posttests in both reading and cloze groups ($p < 0.05$). But the difference between the control groups' performance on the pretests and posttests wasn't significant ($p > 0.05$).

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study show that both treatments (completing a cloze task and reading three glossed sentences) proved to be considerably effective methods of learning verb-noun collocations. Mean scores of the reading group on the test measuring productive knowledge of collocation increased from 7.50 to 13.54 and increased from 7.89 to 16.83 on the test measuring productive knowledge of collocation. The students who had been exposed to the cloze treatment had similar performances, scoring 8.43 on the productive pretest and 16.64 0n the productive posttest, and their mean score on the test measuring receptive knowledge of collocation increased from 8.07 to 15.43. But the control group did not demonstrate any remarkable improvement on learning collocations, their mean score on the receptive tests increased from 8.30 to 8.47 and from 8.03 to 8.33 on the productive tests. Although earlier research has repeatedly shown that that receptive knowledge is easier to gain than productive knowledge (Waning, 1997a, 1997; Webb, 2005), the findings of this study indicated that the students who did the productive treatment had better performance on productive posttest than receptive posttest, but the converse situation was attested with those participants who did the receptive treatment. Thus it may be mentioned that it is the kind of instruction received by students which has determining roles in gaining receptive or productive knowledge and we cannot simply claim that, as a general rule of thumb, receptive knowledge is easier to gain than productive knowledge.

Dramatic changes in the participants' scores on the posttests in comparison with pretests point to the fact that reading glossed sentences and completing cloze tasks can be used as effective explicit methods of teaching collocations in English classrooms. The results of the pretest study revealed that Iranian English language learners are in lack of necessary knowledge of collocations, and this is in line with the results of previous studies conducted on the EFL learners' knowledge of collocations in different countries (e.g., Channel, 1981; Alkhatib, 1984; Aghbar, 1990; Biscup, 1992; Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Farghal & Obiedat, 1995; Alzahrani's, 1998; Abedi, 1998; Huang, 2001). The results of this study, also provide support for previous studies which have investigated the effects of explicit teaching methods of teaching collocations in English classrooms (e.g., Renouf & sinclair, 1988; Richards & Rogers, 2001; Sun & Wang, 2003; Chan & Liou, 2005).

Previous studies conducted on vocabulary acquisition indicated that productive tasks such as completing a cloze task tend to be more contributing than receptive tasks such as reading three glossed sentences at increasing productive lexical knowledge, and receptive tasks are more effective than productive tasks at increasing receptive lexical knowledge (Stoddard, 1929; Griffin & Harley, 1997; Waring, 1997b). The findings of this study, on the other hand, revealed no significant difference between the effects of the tasks on learning collocations. This lack of difference between the effects of the tasks may be attributed to following reason. The amount of time spent on receptive and productive tasks seems to be a determining factor in whether a receptive task is more effective or a productive task Webb (2005). In this study, however, there was no time limit for the participants to do the tasks and they were given as much time as they needed to take the tests and therefore they had a chance to spend more time on doing the productive tests and increasing their scores.

VI. Conclusion

The present study was an attempt to investigate the effects receptive and productive treatments on learning verb-noun collocations. Participants in this study were randomly assigned to productive and receptive groups. The students in the receptive group were given the receptive task, and participants in the productive group were given the productive task. The findings indicated that participants in both groups were able to gain much receptive and productive knowledge of the collocations under study. The participants managed to gain the receptive knowledge of collocations for approximately 17 of the 20 target collocations, and they were able to gain the productive knowledge of collocations for approximately 15 of the 20 collocations. Generally, no significant difference between the two tasks was found.

VII. Teaching Implications

The current study has proved that collocations can be taught explicitly in EFL contexts, through using the methods which are usually used to teach single words. Given the role of collocations in improving language learners' fluency and accuracy, teachers need to take explicitly teaching collocations into account. In ESL contexts, just making students aware of the importance of the knowledge of collocations may suffice and teachers can simply instruct students to notice and learn the words that regularly co-occur, because they are likely to have enough exposure to the English language. In an EFL context, however, students are mostly deprived of this chance and teachers should not only make their students aware of the importance of the knowledge of collocations in language learning but they should also try to explicitly teach them in their classrooms

Verb-noun collocations selected for this study were all made up of simple words that all participants were likely to know. The purpose of choosing unknown collocations that are made up of known words was two-facet. First, to teach these collocations to the participants, and to make them aware that vocabulary learning is not just the matter of learning meaning of single words, and they need to pay attention to other aspects of the knowledge of vocabulary which go beyond learning single words. Teachers can use this technique to make their learners aware of the importance of collocations, and thereby encourage them to learn the patterns in which words regularly co-occur.

VIII. Limitations

The first limitation is related the number of collocations employed in this study. Due to the time constraints, only 20 verb-noun collocations were used in this study to run the treatments. Given that all the students who participated in this study were university students, using more collocations could have made better treatments and more reliable tests measuring the participants' receptive and productive gained knowledge.

The second limitation concerns with the type of collocations used in the present study. The reason why verb-noun collocations were used in this study was that they have proved to be highly problematic for EFL learners (Chan & Liou, 2005; Nesselhauf, 2003), But other types of collocations such as collocations of prepositions can equally cause difficulty for EFL learners (Koosha & Jafarpoor, 2006). Thus, the treatments might have been more beneficial to the learners if both kinds of collocations had been used in the design of the study.

The third limitation of the current study pertains to the unlimited amount of the time the participants were given to take the tests. Webb (2005) showed that when there was no time limit for students and they were granted as much time as they wanted to do receptive and peoductive tasks, productive tasks were more effective, however, when there was a time limit the converse situation held true and receptive tasks came to be more effective. Hence, the results of this study might have been different if the participants had faced time limits.

The final limitation of this study is related to the pretest and posttest measuring productive knowledge of the collocations. In order to prevent the participants from having wild guesses, the initial letter of each collocate was provided for the participants, and might have affected the performance on the receptive tests.

IX. Suggestions for Further Research

The following recommendations for further research are based upon the results in this study:

First, the focus of this was investigating the effects of receptive and productive tasks on learning of verb-noun collocations. It is recommended to examine the effects of these tasks on other kinds of collocations such as adjective-noun collocations or prepositional collocations in further studied to see whether or not the task are effective in learning the other kinds of collocations.

Second, time is an important factor for language learners to function in real life contexts, and they are not likely to have as much time as they want to produce or understand the target language. Thus, it is recommended that for further studies, which attempt to investigate the effects of receptive and productive tasks on language learning, consider controlling the amount of the time learners are allowed to spend on completing the tasks.

Finally, when scoring the participants' responses the translation exam in this study, it was found that 37% of the participants had resorted to word by word translation instead of writing target collocations they had already learned. This problem may be due to their lack of understanding of the notion of collocations. Therefore, it is recommended that further studies which aim at investigating the methods of collocation teaching should make students aware of what

collocations are before embarking on teaching collocations to them so that they know what exactly they are required to do when completing the tasks or taking the tests.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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      doctoral dissertation.

Mehdi Falahi is an MA holder of TEFL at university of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. His main areas of research are English Teaching, Discourse Analysis, and Sociolinguistics. He has been engaged in teaching English for nearly six years.

Ahmad Moinzadeh is currently an Assistant Professor of Linguistics at Department of English, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He has instructed BA, MA, and PhD courses at this department for many years. His main areas of research are Syntax, Comparative/Contrastive Linguistics, Morphology, and Language Acquisition. He holds a PhD degree in Linguistics, an MA degree in Linguistics, and a BA degree in English Language and Literature.

Critical Analysis of Cooperative Learning in Chinese ELT Context

Weihong Li

Foreign Language Department, Beijing Information Science & Technology University, Beijing, China
Email: bellevive@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—The study aims to explore the application of Cooperative Learning in Chinese ELT context through interview, questionnaire, date analysis and discussion. Classrooms Cooperative Learning facilitates a supportive learning environment for English language learners. Cooperative Learning is a creative and effective teaching strategy in European and American countries. It can play a positive role on increasing harmony in classrooms, learners' academic achievement, self-esteem, greater liking for the subject matter and social ability. Whether it can be applied appropriately in Chinese ELT Teaching context or not depends on many factors.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, Chinese ELT context, influence of other factors

I. Introduction

According to Cook (2001), successful teaching results from learning; if students do not learn from the teaching, there is no benefit no matter how entertaining, lively, or well constructed the lessons are. What teaching methods the teacher employs in a specific class depends substantially on the practical realities of the classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). Language contexts in the world not only have a large variety of differentiation in their culture, society, education system, but also learners' value, attitude, motivation and learning habit, which affects the different applications of the same teaching model in different contexts. This paper investigates the practices of Cooperative Learning in Chinese ELT (English Language Teaching) context and the possible problems.

English, as a compulsory subject in middle schools and universities from the economic reform and opening of China in 1978 and 1979, has become essential learning process in China. This change produces many issues that Chinese ELT teachers have to think over, such as the debate on the subject of the appropriateness and effectiveness of importing "Western" ELT methods, including Cooperative Learning method, to the English teaching in the People's Republic of China. In this debate, some scholars insist on that the Chinese traditional ways of teaching and learning is very important in Chinese ELT context and have got great achievements for the improvement of English in China (Harvey, 1985; Sampson, 1984; Liu,1999; Fan, 2000;). Other authors and scholars have paid attention to the value of adopting Western teaching approaches in China (Li, 1984; Maley, 1984, 1986; Spencer, 1986). But most of them have focused on the need to adapt Western practices to the context for language learning and teaching in China with specific demands and conditions (Scovel, 1983). Cooperative Learning method, as a creative and effective teaching strategy in European and American countries, is among the arguments. Therefore, this research puts focus on the process of application of Cooperative Learning in Chinese teaching context, the relevant problems and how to apply the method appropriately and effectively into Chinese ELT context.

II. Literature Review

A. What Is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative Learning is not only a learning method but also a kind of teaching strategy. It has a 300 years history. In 1700, it origins in Britain. In 1806, it was sent to America. In 1970s to 1990s, it became very popular in modern Cooperative Learning research. At the end of 1990s, it leads to broad discussion in the Chinese education field. Cooperative Learning is defined as a set of instructional strategies by which small groups of students to facilitate peer interaction and cooperation for studying academic subjects (Sharan, 1980). It is a kind of learning style by working together for a common goal and caring about each other's leaning (Sharan, 1980; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). According to Slavin (1980, p.315), "the term refers to classroom techniques in which students work on learning activities in small groups and receive rewards or recognition based on their group's performance". Cooper and Mueck (1990) regard Cooperative Learning as a structured and systematic instructional design in which small groups work together to reach a common goal. Therefore, Cooperative Learning obviously would put students together in groups and give them tasks to do. During this process, the necessary learning environment or learning context has to be guaranteed. According to Johnson and Johnson model of Cooperative Learning, the context includes the following five elements: Positive Interdependence creates the feeling that the group "sinks or swims together"; Face-to-Face Interaction requires each team to sit in close proximity, eye-to-eye and knee-to-knee; Individual Accountability means each person must know

the material; Social Skills refers to each student must work at implementing the selected social skill and the instructor must monitor for its use; Processing provides the opportunity to reflect on how well they functioned as a team and what they can do next time to be even better. (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1998) Thus, Cooperative base groups of three to four students worked together during the whole course and could bestow each student the support, encouragement, and assistance needed to progress academically (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith 1991)

B.   The Advantages of Cooperative Learning

Many scholars support the idea that Cooperative Learning can facilitate learners' cognitive growth. According to Piaget (1926), qualities of students' peer interactions that may contribute to students' learning within cooperative learning groups. His work stressed the benefits of cognitive conflicts among students that expose students' misconceptions and lead to higher-quality understandings. Bandura (1971) points out that cognitive learning, eventually, presents learners with a variety of opportunities to learn from each other and to achieve a higher cognition. Vygotskian (1978) theory focus on that learners' cognition is promoted when they are interacting with others in their environment and in cooperation with their peers. Thus, it is essential to build a relevant real and communicative context in which learners can make numerous opportunities of interactions with different people. In terms of Murray's(1994) notion, Cooperative Learning suggests that learning would be more meaningful if learners should participate in their own learning instead of listening to the teacher's lectures. Moreover, conflicts resolution will help promote students' cognitive growth.

As many researchers claim, learning context has its own achievement-relevant beliefs, goals and values and this system tends to influence learners' learning motivation to a great degree (Grant and Dweck, 2001). However, "in classroom contexts, in particular, it is rare to find dramatic motivational events that – like a lightening or a revelation – reshape the students' mindsets from one moment to another." (Dornyei, 2005, p.25) To motivate learners, it is necessary to protect learners' self-confidence, respect their needs and interests (Nunan and Lamb, 1996). Cultivating a pleasant, relaxing classroom atmosphere is also necessary to motivate learners to learn well (Dornyei and Csizer, 1998). If learners could feel respected and connected with others, the self-esteem is strengthened when Cooperative Learning build a relaxing and comfortable classroom atmosphere (Cohen and Willis, 1985). In Cooperative Learning, anxiety is diminished and self-confidence is increased because the class attention is not focused on an individual but on a whole group and when a mistake is made, it becomes a learning process rather than a public criticism (Slavin and Kaweit, 1981). So Cooperative Learning makes learners feel comfortable to express their ideas in the target language without hesitation. Therefore, Cooperative Learning could enhance the learners' motivation.

Cooperative Learning Structures always include following factors (Kagan, 1990): class building, team building, communication builders, mastery, concept development, division of labor, cooperative projects. Certain common Cooperative Learning activities are: Think-Pair-Share (TPS), Numbered Heads together, jigsaw, circle the sage, etc. All these activities can create more opportunities of interaction. Research has shown that Cooperative Learning benefits ELT in various aspects such as constructive peer interaction and active learning (Ovando, Combs & Collier, 2006).

III.   METHODOLOGY

In this research the deductive approach is employed in the process of review of the Cooperative Learning. In analysis, inductive method and deductive methods are combined to describe Chinese ELT context and existing problems.

In order to increase the validity of the research, the date collection both in western academic world and Chinese academic world, data analysis, interviews, questionnaire, observing classes and discussions are used to cover different viewpoints. The research has chosen 119 students in a certain Beijing university and 20 ELT teachers from 14 Beijing colleges and universities to do the questionnaires and interviews (see Appendix I & Appendix II). In terms of the same teaching institution, education system and facilities, this research also presents the analysis of the whole country's ELT in general. Despite many limitations and problems in application of Cooperative Learning in China, the research emphasizes the significance of the application of Cooperative Learning in Chinese ELT teaching context and the importance of the Cooperative Learning to learners' practical proficiency in English.

IV.   COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN CHINESE ELT CONTEXT

A.   Chinese ELT Learners in Cooperative Learning

In the light of questionnaires to Chinese ELT learners, for 85.4% students, the main purpose to learn English is to pass the English examinations, which do not have the speaking assessment. 76.7% learners are used to the teaching style of teachers doing lectures and they learning from teachers. If they do group classroom activities among peers for a whole class period, many students will complain that they learn nothing from the class, because the teacher teaches little in the class. They do not believe they can learn from each other. Thus 88.6% learners prefer learning by themselves to cooperating by groups with their peers.

Learners, as the subjects of ELT, are also various in China. According to Laird (2005), learner diversity is an asset to be capitalized on to promote profound, meaningful learning. Sarasin (1999) acknowledges the values of learner diversity. He points out that language teachers improve their teaching because their teaching benefits from the diversity

of their students. However, Johnson and Johnson (1999) discover Asian (in Vietnam, or China) classroom activity is still dominated by an individualistic structure, which puts the emphasis on individual learner to achieve the goal independently instead of cooperating with other learners, and in a competitive learning atmosphere, learners are pursuing individually "best" performance against others. In Chinese ELT classrooms, ELT teachers can transfer the traditional teaching methods into Cooperative Learning style, but they cannot change the way learners complete the classroom activity individually, even if they are doing the Cooperative Learning tasks. The learners who are used to competing with each other are always pursuing to be the best. They actually do not want to cooperate with others and prefer to perform individually. Therefore, the effect of Cooperative Learning is really hard to completely realize in Chinese ELT classrooms. For this point, teacher cannot change the internal value of learners which is built by the whole society.

B. Chinese ELT Teachers in Cooperative Learning

According to the questionnaires and interviews to Chinese ELT teachers, 55% teachers acknowledge they are familiar with Cooperative Learning teaching style, 40% teachers say they know about it but not quite well, 5% teachers say they know nothing about it. 80% teachers have tried to use Cooperative Learning strategies in their classroom activities, but few of them think it has obvious efficiency for students' improvement. 75% teachers recognize that they still do lectures a lot to explain vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure in the classroom teaching. The major roles of them still are teachers not guides of classroom activities. Most of the teachers argue about the factors of the big class size, limited teaching time, poor teaching space and facilities, which influence the Chinese teaching style a lot.

Many Chinese ELT teachers still cannot appropriately adapt to the Cooperative Learning style in their classrooms. In China, although Confucianism has not survived as an dominant contemporary philosophy, its values continue to exert impact on the daily lives (Bannai, 1980); especially in education, it continues to sustain a high teachers' portrait as the symbol of knowledge, wisdom, and behavior (Medgyes, 1986). Although the ELT requirements of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (2007) demands that changes in the teaching model by no means call for changes in teaching methods and approaches only, but, more important, consist of changes in teaching philosophy and practice, and in a shift from a teacher-centered pattern to a student-centered pattern, in which English teachers should be the facilitators of students and the stimulators of students, many Chinese ELT teachers still cannot give up the traditional teaching model, in which teaching and learning are still teacher-centered through a series of lectures. Even many ELT teachers in China still feel more comfortable to teach by Grammar-Translation methods.

In China, because of the long-term influence of traditional teaching style, many Chinese ELT teachers cannot apprehend the spirit of cooperative learning correctly. The teachers do wrongly in the process of the application, which lead to some problems in Chinese ELT classroom. More often than not, the teachers do not use the cooperative learning strategies to attain the language proficiency instead of pursuing a high mark in assessment. For example, in some Chinese so-called cooperative learning classroom activities, the students are divided into several groups to do their tasks with loud noise. Without clear requirements and necessary instructions, some active students learn a lot, but some shy or lower-level students cannot really indulge into the process of learning, while it takes a lot of time. Of course, these students cannot think deeply through the cooperative classroom activity. This phenomenon arises from the teachers' misunderstanding to the cooperative learning. They consider the cooperative learning as students' task and ignore the responsibility of designing and organizing of the classroom activities. Thus, while the students are doing the exercises, the teachers usually do not participate or provide guide to the classroom activity. Even some students speak Chinese to communicate or talk about something beyond the classroom activity task.

C. Chinese ELT Environment to Cooperative Learning

Many important teaching approaches have been incorporated into materials directly or indirectly (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). At the same time, one of the important abilities for professional ELT teachers is to evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching materials (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). Brown & Yule (1994, p.80-88) believes that the aims of the course decide the selection of the teaching materials. He presents his own criteria of teaching materials selection for: "Grading materials: by speaker"; "Grading materials: by intended listener"; "Grading materials: by content"; "Grading materials: by support"; "Choosing materials: type of purpose". In Chinese ELT classroom, almost every program has its corresponding course book. Teachers have to finish the compulsive part of the content in the course book in specified term. While the teaching materials in the course book pay much attention to the vocabulary, grammar rules and sentence structures instead of actual life communication. Teachers have no right for selection of the teaching materials, which objectively confine the efficiency of the application of Cooperative Learning.

Concerning about classroom layout, Harmer (2006) concludes that the orderly rows are suitable for lectures and big size classes with 40 and 200 students at a time; while circles and horseshoes are more suitable for smaller classes to communicate between learners. In a circle or a horseshoe, the classroom becomes a more intimate and friendly place. Mckay and Tom (1999) said that the friendly and supportive atmosphere in a classroom makes learners willing to take risks in using the new language. Actually, in Chinese ELT environment, the class size normally is quite big, which could be 35 to 70 students, and even more. Sometimes, the desks in the classroom are fixed on the floor and cannot be moved. This kind of classroom layout makes the application of the Cooperative Learning more difficult.

V. SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

Context and activity mutually influenced one another (Lave, 1988). To the current specific language teaching context in China, the application of Cooperative Learning is more appropriate in Speaking & Listening class. The traditional teaching methods and lectures are still employed broadly in Reading & Writing classes because of the confining elements mentioned above. Cooperative Learning will become more popular in Chinese ELT classroom activities with the enhancing of the comprehension and values of both teachers' and students' and the improvement of ELT environment in China. At that time, the advantages of Cooperative Learning can fully work its functions in Chinese ELT context. Perhaps, it is a long way to go. It needs the endeavor of many aspects, which include not only the efforts of teachers and learners, but also the co-effort of Chinese society, government relevant departments, administrator in different schools.

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Purpose of the study:
This questionnaire is being conducted for the study on Cooperative Learning in Chinese ELT context.
The goal of this questionnaire is to map the understanding and views of students on Cooperative Learning in classroom. This questionnaire will take 10 minutes to complete.
1. Sex: (please tick)   Female □   Male □
2. Age: _____
3. Major: _____
4. Spoken English Level   Elementary □   Intermediate □   Advanced □
COOPERATIVE LEARNING QUESTIONS FOR STUDENTS
1. What's your main purpose to learn English?
   a. pass the relevant examination and get the certificate
   b. improve English proficiency
   c. learn how to read and write in English in academic study
   d. go abroad to be immigrant
2. How many classmates are there in your English classroom?
   a. about 20
   b. about 30
   c. about 40
   d. over 50
3. When you learn English in classroom, would you like to work together with other students in group and aid each other or learn individually?
   a. Learn in groups
   b. Learn individually
4. When you learn English in classroom, who do you prefer to learn from?
   a. from teacher only
   b. from interaction between peers
   c. from both teacher and peers
   d. from neither teacher or peers, learn by yourself
5. Which English teaching style do you prefer?
   a. lectures by teacher
   b. classroom cooperative activities under the guide of teacher
   c. classroom cooperative activities without the guide of teacher
   d. other teaching style：_____.
6. What does the examinations you have to take part in often include?(you can choose more than one)
   a. Listening
   b. Speaking
   c. Reading
   d. Writing
   e. Translation
7. What's your classroom layout? Are the desks in the classroom fixed on the floor or not?
   a. always orderly row/traditional row
   b. always circles
   c. always horseshoe
   d. always change according to teachers' requirements for each class
8. Where could you easily find a place to do cooperative task with you group after class?
   a. in library

b. in classroom

c. in campus

d. in dormitory

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Purpose of the study:

This questionnaire is being conducted for the study on Cooperative Learning in Chinese ELT context.

The goal of this questionnaire is to map the understanding and views of ELT teachers on Cooperative Learning in classroom. This questionnaire will take 10 minutes to complete.

1. Sex: (please tick)   Female □   Male □
2. Age: _____
3. Title of a Technical Post: Elementary □   Intermediate □   Advanced □

COOPERATIVE LEARNING QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

1. Are you familiar with the Cooperative Learning?
   a. Yes, quite well
   b. No, know nothing about it
   c. Yes, but not quite well
2. Do you apply Cooperative Learning strategies in your classroom teaching?
   a. Yes, quite a lot
   b. Yes, sometimes
   c. No, not at all
3. What's kind of teaching style you often use and feel more comfortable?
   a. Grammar-translation
   b. cooperative learning
   c. other style:_____
4. What's teaching mode you always use in classroom teaching?
   a. mainly lectures
   b. mainly classroom activity
   c. both lectures and classroom activity
   d. other mode:_____
5. What's you role, do you think, in the class?
   a. a teacher who can teach new knowledge to students and explain the problem which students do not know
   b. a guide, organizer, or facilitator for students to get English proficiency
   c. both
6. How many students are there in your English class?
   a. about 20
   b. about 30
   c. about 40
   d. over 50
7. For the current teaching materials, which teaching method do you think is more suitable for it?
   a. traditional teaching method
   b. cooperative learning classroom activity
   c. others:_____
8. Do you think the current classroom layout is proper to do cooperative learning activity in class?
   a. Yes, it is possible.
   b. No, it is too small and the desks could not be moved.
9. Which teaching style do you think is more time-consuming?
   a. traditional teaching method
   b. cooperative learning activity
10. Which teaching style do you think is more effective in the improvement of students' reading and writing?
    a. traditional teaching method
    b. cooperative learning activity
11. Which teaching style do you think is more effective in the improvement of students' speaking and listening?
    a. traditional teaching method
    b. cooperative learning activity

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Weihong Li was born in Huhhot, Inner Mongolia, China in 1973. She received her MA degree in TESOL from Sunderland University, Britain in 2008. She is currently a lecturer in the Foreign Language Department, Beijing Information Science University, Beijing, China. Her academic research mainly focuses on applied linguistics and L2 socialization.

The Effect of Non-native Accent on Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension, Focusing on Persian Accent of English

Ahmad Moinzadeh
Faculty of Foreign Languages, Isfahan University, Isfahan 8174673441, Iran
Email: moin@fgn.ui.ac.ir

Omid Rezaei
Faculty of Foreign Languages, Isfahan University, Isafan 8174673441, Iran
Email: omidrezaei.rezaei99@gmail.com

Salman Dezhara
Faculty of Foreign Languages, Isfahan University, Isafan 8174673441, Iran
Email: hamangt@hotmail.com

Abstract—The fundamental purpose of the present paper is to investigate the effect of non-native accent on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. Participants of the study were 44 Iranian EFL learners who were homogenized by OPT (Oxford Placement Test), and then assigned to two experimental groups consisting 22 students. One of the groups listened to a lecture with American accent, and the other one listened to the same lecture which was read by the researcher, a fluent Persian speaker of English. After the students' answering to ten comprehension questions based on the lecture, the scores were analyzed and a sample independent was run. The result showed that the performance of the students in the group which listened to non-native accent (Persian) was significantly better. The result suggested that non-native accent (the accent of the mother tongue of the learners) be beneficial to learners and facilitate their comprehension.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, accent, non-native accent, placement test

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening comprehension has been given a great amount of attention in second language acquisition due to the crucial role it plays in communication. Listening is not only the first of the language arts skills developed, it is also the skill most frequently used in both the classroom and daily life. According to Wolvin and Coakley (1979), the amount of time that students are expected to listen in the classroom ranges from 42 to 57.5 percent of their communication time. Since listening comprehension has a vital role in everyday life, it is essential to develop effective listening comprehension ability.

When students start learning a language in the class, they listen to words several times prior to utter them. Listening can help students improve their vocabulary knowledge and grammar knowledge as well, so it boosts to improve other language skills. Cayer, Green, and Baker (1971) found that students' ability to comprehend written text through reading and expressing themselves through speaking depend largely on their ability of understanding of spoken language through speaking. Dunkel (1986) also claimed that developing proficiency in listening can develop proficiency in speaking.

Despite the importance of listening comprehension in many language classes the emphasis is on reading and writing in the target language. This is especially the case in EFL situation in which the learners only have the opportunity to listen to spoken English inside the classroom. EFL learners are learning English in their countries where English is not spoken natively. Student who are from environment where English is not the native language have no opportunity to hear English spoken natively; therefore these students are not accustomed to hearing to language as it is produced by native speakers for native speakers. Consequently, students from the countries in which English is taught as a foreign language frequently have great difficulty understanding English spoken to them when they come into contact with native speakers of the language.

On the contrary in an ESL situation students in the classroom are those whose native languages are any language other than English. ESL students are studying English in an English-speaking country. In this environment, students are surrounded by the target language both in the community and in the school; listening comprehension is therefore important for everyday survival (Carrier, 1999; Richard-Amato, 1996). Since students reside in the country where the target language is used, they will have more opportunities to experience English language both inside and outside the

classroom. In addition, there are plenty of authentic materials that ESL students will encounter each day. Authentic materials refer to oral and written language materials used in daily situations by native speakers of the language (Rogers & Medley, 1988).

According to the above mentioned shortcomings of EFL situation regarding the opportunity of listening to spoken English outside of the class, teachers in the classrooms try to provide the student with authentic materials to compensate for lack of exposure to natural spoken English. Some examples of authentic materials are newspapers, magazines, and television advertisements.

One of the features of authentic spoken English is the accent with which it is spoken. If English be considered as a person it's a person with too many faces. English is spoken in different areas of the world with different accents such as American, British and Australian accent. In addition to other elements such as speed of the speaker accent plays a crucial role in comprehending spoken language.

There are many researches investigating the effect of different accents on listening comprehension. Various accents have different effect on the listeners; Lippi-Green (1997) found that Dutch learner find British accent as the „norm" while defines American English as „dynamic" and „attractive" . However, the effect on non-native accent on listeners' comprehension has not been widely investigated. In particular in Iran which is experiencing a growth in tendency toward learning English. This study tries to investigate the effect of non-native accent, in this case Persian, on learners' comprehension.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

One of the most important differences between different accents is the intonation. Alego (2006, p. 2) states that "the most important difference between British and American is the tune of the language, that is, the intonation that accompanies sentences." Also there are other pronunciation differences such as consonant and vowel distribution. Lopez-Soto and Berrara (2007) view accents as results of sociolinguistic preference which may or may not be transferred to education. However, it can be argued that preference and cultural closeness of learners are not the only criteria, but the accents" comprehensibility is also a criterion in deciding how accents affect foreign language teaching.

In an experimental study conducted by Prodromou (1992) 300 young adult Greek learners of EFL in different proficiency levels were studied and found that 75% of the students preferred to learn British English while 18 % preferred American English. The results suggested that this preference could be attributed to the overall popularity of British English in the world, and to the bad historical image of America in Greece. The results of his study also indicated that society's perceptions of historical or cultural closeness can also play an important role in accent preference.

In another study regarding the effect of accent on listening comprehension Loppez-Soto and Berrara-Pardo (2007) studied accent perceptions of Spanish ELF learners in three different accents of English, namely; General American, Received Pronunciation of British and found that 60% of the students found British English to be "more correct" than American English. Kovacs and Racsmany (2008) studied the effect of L1 phonetics and phonology on word perception and repetition. They designed an experiment in which subjects were asked to repeat non-word sounds and divided non-words into four categories:

1) High probability L1 sounding non-words,
2) Low probability L1 sounding non-words
3) Non-words containing illegal L1 phoneme sequence
4) Non-words containing non L1 sound segments.

The results indicated that phonological/ phonotactic knowledge played an important role in reconstructive processes, while phonetic knowledge affected the perceptual analysis. Furthermore, they pointed out a correlation between Short Term Phonological Memory (STPM) and L2 achievement and claimed that memory performance is generally higher for L1 sounding input.

Similarly, Brown (1968) tested how well Twi and Ewe native speakers comprehended English when spoken by a) native speakers of English (R.P. British), b) Twi native speakers c) Ewe native speakers. His findings were that the Twi native speakers understood English the best when the speaker was also Twi speaker. Similarly the Ewe native speakers understood best when the speaker was an Ewe native speaker. Wilcox (1987), found that Singaporeans, listening to English spoken with four different accents, Singaporean, British, Australian and American, found the Singaporean the easiest to understand. Again, Ekong (1982) found that Nigerians understood English better when the speaker was a native speaker, Yoruba or Igbo.

Smith and Bisazza (1982) conducted a complex international study, testing the comprehensibility of three varieties of English (American, Indian and Japanese) in seven countries, three ESL (Hong Kong, India, tme Philippines), three EFL (Japan, Taiwan, Thailand), and one native speaker (Hawaii). Their results were not as clear as in the above studies. In the two countries where both a native speaker and a local speaker were used (India and Japan) the result were dissimilar: in Japan the Japanese was best comprehended of the three speakers (with the American second, and the Indian the third); but in India the American was best comprehended (with the Indian second and the Japanese third).

Another experiment was conducted in Hong Kong which was in line with the case of India in the Smith and Bisazza (1982) study, and found that native speakers, American and British, were more clearly comprehended than local

Chinese speakers of English. Barlow, L. (2010), also provided evidence that there is no significant effect of accent on academic listening test scores for EFL students enrolled in a university foundations program at UAE University.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One on the major problems most Iranian learners complain about is the accent that seems to have exerted an influential effect on their listening comprehension. Accent as one of the most effective variables and elements has been subject of research lately.As it is inferred from the literature, there is no decisive result indicating whether native accent or non-native accent is superior in case of comprehensibility. The present study will delve into investigating the effect of non-native accent on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Such a study requires statistical analysis of the difference between learners' performance on a listening test with native accent (American), and a listening test with anon-native accent (Persian).

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

Q: Do Iranian EFL learners perform significantly better on listening comprehension test with non-native (Persian) accent?

H1: Iranian EFL learners perform significantly better on listening comprehension test with non-native (Persian) accent.

V. METHOD

A. Participants

Forty two students from two different intermediate level classes in one of the universities in Isfahan (Iran) were selected. They were assigned to American and Persian groups, each group having 22 students in the same class.Due to the researchers limitation they were assigned to two intact groups.They were intermediate students 16 of whom were females and 6 of whom were males in the American group and 15 of whom were females and 7 of whom were males in the Persian group. The students were homogenized by administering an OPT (Oxford Placement Test).

B. The Instrument

1. The OPT

Prior to conducting the target study an OPT (Allan, 1985) was administered to neutralize and control the effect of different level of proficiency. It also aimed at homogenizing the experimental groups. Although OPT is basically a grammar test, it was selected as a homogenizing criterion for the present study.

2. The listening comprehension test

For developing the listening comprehension test with American accent a piece of online lecture was selected. 10 comprehension questions based on the selected news were made by the researcher. For developing the listening comprehension test with Persian accent the same text of the lecture was read and recorded by the researcher who is a native Persian speaker.

3. Pilot study

For validating the test in terms of time and direction both American and Persian accent listening comprehension tests were administered to a group of eight students similar to the target groups.
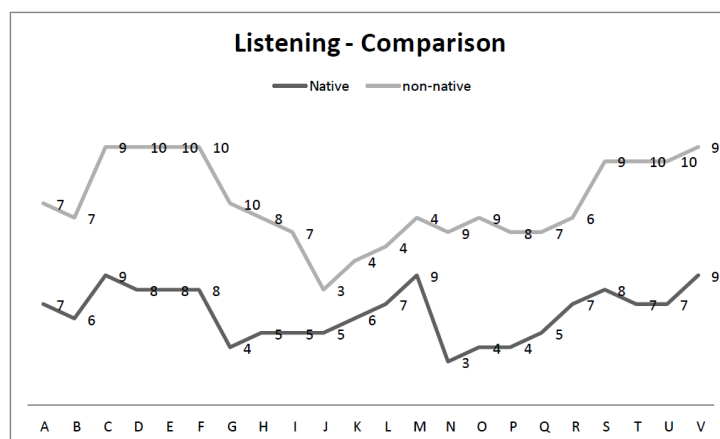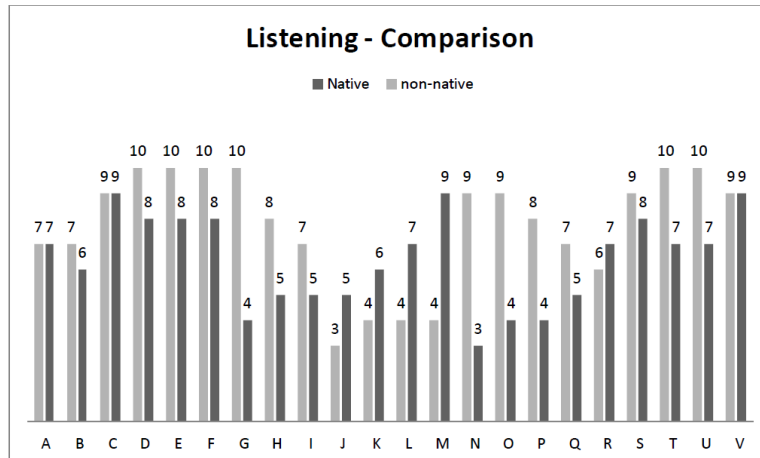
C. Procedure

The main study was conducted in May 2011. Data collection was carried out in one session for both groups. Before taking the test, the students were given a brief as to how to complete the test. They were also reassured of confidentiality of their test results. They were asked to submit the test in no more than 10 minutes (the time reached after piloting phase)

D. Data Analysis

For data analysis, the SPSS software, version 16, was used. An independent sample t-test was run on the performance of two groups of the present study. This was to show if there was any significant difference in the performance of groups on the listening comprehension with American accent and listening comprehension with Persian accent.

VI. RESULT

Listening - Comparison

Listening - Comparison

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Native - Non_native	-1.31818	2.81808	.60082	-2.56765	-.06872	-2.194	21	.040

Based on the values obtained, t-value with 21 d.f is significant enough at the level of 0.05 to confirm the hypothesis. It shows that students performed significantly better on listening comprehension with Persian accent and supports the aforementioned hypothesis

VII. DISCUSSION

The result discussed above show that the findings of the present research are in line with those of Brown (1968). There is a nevertheless a difference between this study and that of Brown. He considered the British English as the native accent whereas this study considered American English as the native accent. However, the fact that his result is in line with the finding of this study may suggest that accent familiarity (Persian accent) may function to the benefit of the listener.

Also, the findings of the present study supported those of Wilcox (1978). He found that Singaporean while listening to English found Singaporean the easiest to understand among Singaporean, British, Australian and American. In Australia, Britain and the United States English is spoken natively, so the results of Wilcox research proved that non-native accent has superiority to native accent in case of comprehensibility on the part of EFL learners.

Moreover, the findings of this research are supporting those of Ekong (1982). He found that English was better understood when by Nigerian, when the speaker was a native speaker of Yoruba or Igbo (native languages of Nigeria). Besides, the findings of this research are in line with those of Smith and Bisazza (1982) that found Japanese best understand their own accent (non-native).

As it was mentioned in the literature contradictory results were also abundant. Smith and Bisazza (1982) found that native American and British are far more comprehended than local Chinese speakers of English. This report has opposing results to the findings of this research. It suggests that more research in this area is required to find more conclusive results.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS

From the pedagogical point of view, the results of this study may be helpful to (a) language teachers, (b) material developers. As for the language teachers, the results of the study suggest that not having a native or native like accent is not a barrier to the comprehension. It also helps teachers in evaluating their students' listening comprehension more easily regarding the fact that native accent is not a necessary element of a listening test. So teachers can provide students with good listening tests without having access to native speakers.

Secondly, the results of this study may be helpful to material developers. The findings reported above indicated that students understand English spoken by non-native speakers better than English spoken by native speakers. The material developers can therefore prepare teaching materials which contain listening exercises with non native accents to boost students' comprehension.

IX. CONCLUSION

This research aimed at investigating the effect of non-native accent of English on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. The findings of the present research suggested that the participants performed significantly better on the listening comprehension with non-native accent (Persian accent) as opposed to that with native accent (American). However, the findings of this research are in contrast with some researches in the literature. There is no conclusive result therefore, future investigations are hope to tackle this more deeply.

APPENDIX

The lecture's text

Immigrants from around the world live in Alaska. The population there is diverse. There are many people from the Philippines living in Alaska. More Filipinos live in Alaska than any other Asian group.

Filipinos were crew members on fur trading ships to Alaska in the 1700s. And they were crew members on whaling ships in the 1800s. In the early 1900s some Filipinos worked in Alaskan gold mines. Most of them worked in the fish canneries.

Carlos Bulosan was one of the Filipino workers in the fish canneries in the 1930s. Later he became a famous writer. He wrote his autobiography about being an immigrant in the United States. This is his story...

The Philippines was a territory of the United States when Carlos Bulosan was born. His family lived on a farm. He worked on the family farm and went to schools with American classroom style. Schools in the Philippines taught young Carlos about American beliefs and customs. He dreamed of going to America. He studied English. His two older brothers went to America-to California. And he wanted to follow them. At age 17, he traveled by ship to the United States. His ship landed in Seattle, in the northwestern state of Washington.

It was 1930, and the economy was bad everywhere. But some people believed the economy in Alaska was better. Carlos Bulosan left Seattle and went to Alaska. He worked there in the fish canneries. He was one of many thousands of Filipino immigrants worki\lg in the fish industry in Alaska. His English was not very good. But he worked hard in the cannery. And he was a member of a close Filipino community in Alaska.

Many cannery workers.traveled between Alaska and Seattle, on the west coast of the United States. They worked in both locations. Carlos Bulosan left Alaska with other cannery workers and returned to Seattle. From there, he traveled up and down the west coast of the U.S. searching for jobs. He worked on farms mostly. He used his knowledge from the family farm in the Philippines. He picked fruit and vegetables from the state of Washington south through California. He never settled in one place. During this time he discovered other immigrants with similar histories.

Bulosan also discovered that he loved to read and write in English. He wrote poetry and articles for newspapers. In the late 1930s, he got sick and had to spend months in a hospital. In the hospital he read constantly. People say he read a book a day. He also wrote every day. He wrote letters, poems, essays, and many of his pieces were published in magazines and newspapers.

In the 1940s, he wrote two books of poems and a book about his memories of home. It was called Laughter of My Father, and it sold many, many copies. In 1946, at age 33, he wrote his most famous book. It was about his life as a Filipino immigrant. This book, Bulosan's autobiography, is called America Is in the Heart: A Personal History. He wrote all of these books in English. And he had only arrived in America 16 years before!

In his writing, Bulosan claimed his place in America. He wanted to help other immigrant workers understand their lives in America. And he wanted to help all Americans respect diverse populations. He also wrote about the difficulties of people with little work and little money. He was a strong voice for Filipino Americans and all immigrants in America.

Today there is a Carlos Bulosan Exhibit in Seattle, Washington, USA. There, you can learn more about Bulosan's life and his very important writing. You can also look for his book in your library: America Is in the Heart.

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Ahmad Moinzadeh is currently assistant professor of linguistics at the department of English, faculty of foreign languages, university of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He has instructed BA, MA and PhD courses at this department for many years. His main areas of research are syntax, comparative / contrastive linguistics, morphology and language acquisition he holds a PhD degree in linguistics, an MA degree in Linguistics and a BA degree on English language and literature.

Omid Rezaei: born in Isfahan, Isfahan city, in 20/6/1988. BA in English Translation studies, Isfahan University in year 2010. MA in ELT, Isfahan University in year 2011.

He worked as an English teacher in reputed English language institutes in Isfahan and TOEFL & IELTS tutor for 6 years and as TOEFL test sessions supervisor in Isfahan university. He got acceptance for publication with the article titled: An Investigation of the Possible Effects of Favored Contexts in Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition in CCSE/ELT journal Canada, 2011.

Mr. Omid Rezaei got his TTC license under the supervision of Pouyesh Inc in year 2007. He also passed the IELTS and scored 7.5 in year 2009.

Salman Dezhara: Born in Iran, Mazandaran, Ramsar city in 1986/5/7. BA in ELT, Chaloos university, Chaloos, year 2009. MA in ELT, Isfahan University, Isfahan, year 2011.

He worked as an English teacher in Shokooh English language institute for 2 years. And is a TOEFL test sessions supervisor in Isfahan university . He got acceptance for publication with the article titled: An Investigation of the Possible Effects of Favored Contexts in Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition in CCSE/ELT journal Canada ,2011.

Mr. Salman Dezhara has got his TTC license under the supervision of Kish English institute in year 2008 and passed the TOEFL test with the score 560 in 2008.

The Rationale for Applying Critical Pedagogy in Expanding Circle Countries: The Case of Iran

Ferdows Aghagolzadeh
Tarbiat Modares University (TMU), Tehran, Iran
Email: aghagolz@modares.ac.ir

Hossein Davari
Tarbiat Modares University (TMU), Tehran, Iran
Email: hdavari1358@yahoo.com

Abstract—The globalization of English in general and the global prevalence of English language teaching (ELT), as the most systematic way of English spread, in particular have led to a situation which has been debated and discussed from political, cultural, social and ideological standpoints. Since the early years of 1990s, following the publication of Phillipson's *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992), the appearance of a critical intellectual shift in applied linguistics has not only significantly challenged the mainstream ELT, but also has mostly introduced critical pedagogy (CP) as an alternative approach to the mainstream ELT especially in the Periphery. Thus, as ELT programs become more prevalent throughout the world, the cultural, political, social and ideological implications of this activity are more often debated and such considerations seem more relevant in societies that are culturally, politically, socially and ideologically are different from the Center and certainly the Iranian society as an Expanding Circle country in which English is taught as a foreign language and culturally, politically and ideologically is different from the Inner Circle Countries, is not an exception to this rule. This paper, as an attempt to review the current status of English and ELT in Iran, tries to deal with and introduce the strengths and benefits of CP as an alternative approach in ELT and moreover discuss the rationale for applying this approach with specific reference to the socio-political, cultural, ideological as well as educational features of the Iranian society. The writers strongly believe that, strengthening critical thinking in learners, empowering the learners to make them agents of transformation in the local and global arenas, unmasking the underlying values and ideologies of the mainstream ELT, and especially reducing the cultural and social implications of English in such societies involves rethinking the nature and status of ELT as well as resorting to CP as an alternative and effective approach in ELT.

Index Terms—critical pedagogy, mainstream pedagogy, English language teaching, expanding circle, Iranian society

I. Introduction

Pass all doubt, the increasing rise of English and the growing expansion of English language teaching (ELT) throughout the world have had some serious political, cultural, social, ideological as well as pedagogical consequences. Thus, it is not surprising that this unique position of English has some repercussions on the way it is seen, defined, presented, learned and taught and has led to a situation which has been discussed from political, cultural and social standpoints (see Block and Cameron, 2002; Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Canagarajah, 1999; Edge, 2006; Holliday 2005; Pennycook, 1994, 1998, 2001 and 2007; Phillipson, 1992 and 2009; Sharifian, 2009).

Not surprisingly, such a situation has led to some controversy and discussion surrounding ELT as the most systematic way of spreading English throughout the world. In Baladi's (2007) words, while teaching of English and English language itself have, for a long time, been seen as clean and safe exports, as a practical means of communication carrying few ethical implications, today there is a realization that teaching and spread of English involve complex moral, social and political implications. In a more precise word, although firstly the spread of English especially through ELT was considered as a purely instrumental advantage from Inner Circle countries (where English is generally the L1 including USA and UK) to Outer Circle countries (where English plays an institutional role as an L2 such as India and Singapore) and Expanding Circle countries (where English is learnt as a foreign language like China and Iran), at the same time raising some sensitivity, criticism and resistance has resulted in presenting some theoretical objections and critical theories and attitudes to English spread and ELT profession.

In Gray's (2002) words, contrary to the mainstream ELT pedagogy, its beliefs, practices and tenets, some notable critical attitudes have been raised in recent years mostly through an increasing wave of books, have been instrumental in stimulating a considerable degree of soul searching within ELT profession. In his opinion, what these works have had in common is a belief that the global spread of English is inherently problematic, inextricably linked to wider political issues and that ELT practices are neither value free, nor always culturally appropriate. Thus, it is not surprising to hear that the increasing ubiquity of English has aroused many reactions and raised many questions for those active in the

field of applied linguistics. In fact, while the global spread of English, as Sharifian (2009) writes, has had serious ideological, socio-cultural, political, and pedagogical implications and consequences, has thoroughly been documented in a range of well-known publications, the appearance of new sets of questions and revised arguments and positions has been adding fuel to the debates. In this condition, specifically, as Anderson (2002) maintains, the appearance of the Phillipson's revealing and critical book entitled *Linguistic Imperialism* in the early years of 1990s was the beginning of forming an intellectual and critical shift in the conception of the global spread of English and such a shift is ongoing in the field of applied linguistics.

In this new critical shift, while Tollefson (1995), Tsuda (1997), Holborrow (1994) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1998) have mostly paid attention to the political, cultural and linguistic consequences of the global spread of English and the current status and role of this language throughout the world and less to the pedagogical implications of ELT, three other names, known as Phillipson's Children, namely Pennycook (1994, 1998 and 2001), Holliday (1994, 1997 and 2005) and Canagarajah (1999 and 2005) have tried to problematize more notably the current status and the increasing growth of mainstream ELT as well as the global spread of English.

In fact, the outstanding appearance of this critical shift in ELT not only has significantly challenged and complicated the mainstream ELT, but also has mostly introduced critical pedagogy (CP) as an alternative approach to the mainstream ELT. It is worth noting that although the incorporating critical pedagogy is more recent, it seems that it is going to find a notable position in the domain of applied linguistics. In the following, introducing the main components and features of this outstanding approach, we attempt to review its great potential and highlight the rationale and necessity of its application with specific reference to the Iranian society as an Expanding Circle country.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As noted, in the field of applied linguistics, the emergence of a prominent intellectual shift, involving some new trends, has led to viewing English and ELT through different critical paradigms. According to Davari (2011), Phillipson's *Linguistic Imperialism* (2002) was a milestone which has led to establishing a critical shift in applied linguistics and his ideas in this watershed work and others have invoked some notable scholars throughout the world in such a way that since 1992 many mainstream tenets and widespread beliefs in ELT have been challenged. According to Hall (2000), writers within the broad and somewhat diverse "critical pedagogy" such as Canagarajah, Pennycook and Phillipson have criticized the current view that sees the globalization of ELT as an inevitable, unproblematic and natural development. In his words, these writers accuse ELT of helping to maintain unequal Core-periphery relations in the capitalist world-economy and of suppressing diversity of language and thought.

Facing this situation, it is nothing to be surprised when Johnston (2003) writes that possibly the most significant development in ELT in the 1990s was the acceptance of this idea that ELT is and always has been a profoundly and unavoidably political activity. Akbari (2008a) also strongly maintains that education in general and ELT in particular is an activity filled with politics.

Reflecting the belief that education is never neutral and foreign language education has a political role to play in any educational system of the world (Byram and Feng, 2004), applying CP in ELT, as an approach to language education which places sociopolitical considerations high on the classroom agenda and incorporates a set of principles and practices that aim "not only to change the nature of schooling, but also the wider society" (Pennycook, 1990, p.24), can be introduced as an alternative approach in Outer and Expanding Circle countries especially those are culturally, politically, socially and ideologically different from or especially in contrast with the Inner Circle countries.

Having a look at the Iranian society as a member of Expanding Circe countries which is ideologically, culturally, politically and socially different from the two main representatives of the Inner Circle counties, namely USA and Britain, reveals that contrary to expectations, as Talebinezhad and Aliakbari (2003) maintain, English seems to have smoothly found its way to the heart of Iranian society. In other words, it appears that the Iranian society is no exception to the worldwide trend of English being learned more widely. Moreover, as big business, English is the most commonly taught foreign language in this society both in public and especially private sectors and the mainstream ELT is presented often without any sensitivity, criticism and resistance (Davari, 2011).

Encountering this situation, we strongly believe that since at present the current spread of English especially through ELT in Iranian society on the one hand, cannot be really halted and on the other hand, we do not dispute the importance of learning English in a globalizing world, it is suggested that applying CP in ELT not only can ameliorate the detrimental effects of English spread, but also it can manage this spread and also can adapt it to our society's needs and interests. In fact, following Canagarajah's (1999, p. 174) belief, we also maintain that "what is demand is a "third way" that avoids the traditional extremes of rejecting English outright for its linguistic imperialism or accepting its wholesale for its benefits".

Here, before dealing with the rationale for applying CP in ELT in Iranian society, it seems necessary to briefly introduce CP and its main features and components in more practical terms.

A. What is CP?

While, as Ford (2009) asserts the last few decades have seen a growing interest in CP in both ESL and EFL contexts, according to Akbari (2008b), in spite of the great potential of CP, the potential implications of CP have not been well

appreciated and most of the reference to the term have been limited to its conceptual dimensions. Tackling this drawback, in this paper it has been attempted to introduce and highlight this approach in ELT in more practical terms.

In Pennycook's (1990) words, CP can be defined as an approach to teaching and curriculum that "seeks to understand and critique the historical and sociopolitical context of schooling and to develop pedagogical practices that aim not only to change the nature of schooling, but the wider society. According to Akbari (2008b), CP in ELT is an attitude to language teaching which relates the classroom context to the wider social context and aims at social transformation through education. Canagarajah (2005) introduces CP not as a theory, but a way of doing learning and teaching or borrowing Pennycook's (2001) terminology, it is teaching with an attitude. According to Byean (2011), in ELT, CP primarily prompts teachers to scrutinize English language in light of the historical, cultural, sociopolitical and economic issues. Given the complexity and the role of English, Norton and Toohey (2005) believe that CP asks teachers to surpass the view of English as "simply a means of expression or communication", but a practice that constructs the ways learners understand themselves, their sociohistorical surrounding and their possibility for the future. In Crookes and Lehner's (1998) words, CP in English should not be seen as a merely pedagogical method as to "how to teach English", but as a social and educational approach which is concerned about how English learning can affect personal and social change. In this sense, Byean (2001) maintains that in CP, English pedagogy should be focused on enriching not the English language, but the education of a country; in turn, CP values glocalized English pedagogies in conjunction with local educational context.

In fact, while as Byean (ibid.) asserts, in ELT, professionals have made less or no effort to raise the critical awareness toward English per se and the dominant principles in the ELT discipline have led ELT professionals to pay more attention to language teaching methodologies about what goes in the classroom in favor of an oversimplistic functionalist attitude toward the global spread of English as *natural* (a natural result of globalization), *neutral* (a neutral medium of communication with no cultural or political issues attached) and *beneficial* (a beneficial language since it improve international or intranational cooperation) (see, Pennycook, 1995), and the mainstream ELT mostly concerns specific strategies and techniques for achieving predetermined learning objectives in classroom, critical pedagogy involves all the aspects of educational practices in a society such as curriculum content and design, classroom teaching, technique and evaluation methods as well as historical, sociopolitical and cultural facets of a society. In more detail, it is noteworthy that contrary to the mainstream pedagogy in ELT which presents itself as a mere educational activity, publicizes native-based or the Inner-circle varieties of English especially the American and British ones, ignores or rejects World Englishes, introduces itself as the only legitimate reference of planning and producing methods, materials and programs and advertises the homogenization of cultural and educational goods influenced by global standardization carrying from the center to the periphery, critical pedagogy in ELT proposes that ELT functions as a vehicle for imposing western capitalist values and beliefs, questions the cultural and social relevance and appropriateness of inner-circle produced methods and materials, focuses on the political, cultural, social, economic and ideological aspects of ELT, challenges the established and globally known tenets and bases of ELT and promotes itself as an alternative approach to the mainstream pedagogy in ELT.

Simply put, avoiding some usual conceptual dimensions and referring to the practical implications and features of CP, in the following firstly the contextual considerations of the Iranian society as the specific reference of this study is presented, then the main features of CP in ELT are introduced and the rationale for its applying in ELT in Iranian society is discussed.

B. Contextual Considerations

As Matsuda (2006) asserts, all pedagogical decisions need to be made taking into account the context in which the instruction take place and certainly providing a local perspective of English and ELT in Iran as well as a picture of the Iranian society itself in general seems necessary. Thus, in the following, such a picture is presented.

Islamic Republic of Iran, as a home to one of the world's oldest civilizations, is known as a developing country in the modern world. While the cultures of this society are fascinating and complex in their linguistic and ethnic diversity, the Islamic culture is more dominant. During the recent decades especially after the Islamic Revolution in 1979, this society has been experiencing a period of transition. Undergoing undeniable changes in different areas including social, political and cultural ones, changes in the system of education have also been significant.

Regarding the foreign language education also English has become synonymous with foreign language in Iran. Considering the status of English in Iran, Tollefson (1991) attempts to study its presence before and after the Iranian Islamic Revolution in 1979. In this regard, he writes that before the Iranian Revolution, English was widely taught and studied as part of country's push for modernization, in a way between the mid-1950s and late 1978, English steadily expanded at the most common second language in Iran and became the major language of business, the military, higher education, and the media. He believes that the fate of English after 1978-79 without a basic understanding of its role in Iran under the Shah is impossible. After studying the economic and political reasons as well as educational ones which led to accelerating the penetration of English in Iranian society, Tollefson tries to present a picture of English in Iran after the Islamic Revolution. In his words, the Revolution sought to nationalize the use of English. In addition, the end of modernization program began by the Shah meant that English was no longer the dominant language of business, government, the military, and industry. Thus, English was gradually restricted to areas in which it would be beneficial to newly defined Iranian interests like diplomacy and access to scientific literature. Tollefson believes that the end of

English domination was associated with the changing structure of power in Iranian society. Moreover, he predicts that as long as the current political leadership dominates, the role of English is likely to remain limited. Beeman (1986) also, studying the position of English in two phases, namely before and after the Islamic Revolution, holds a similar position.

In spite of these views toward the role of English in Iranian society after the Islamic Revolution, it seems that the current status and position of this language have been significantly changed during the recent years, in a way that it has received particular attention. As Riazi (2005) writes, today a need for English language in Iran is obvious. Moreover, Talebinezhad and Aliakbari (2003) believe that English is going to become a necessity, rather than a mere school subject.

At present, English is the widely taught foreign language in Iran. Respecting the changes and the former and current status of ELT in Iran, Aliakbari (2002) writes that English language teaching in Iran has passed through a host of ups and downs and has experienced extreme courses. In his words, prior to the Islamic Revolution in 1979, because of the exceptional relations between the Iranian government and the West, especially the U.S. and England, English language teaching received particular attention. Vigorously strengthened by the presence of abundant native speaking teachers, and the contribution of several American and British institutions, the condition led to such an extreme position that certain national universities were conventionally called American Universities. Post-revolutionary reactions to ELT, in certain ways, went to extremes as well. Following the revolutionary oppositions against the U.S. as the main supporter of the fallen kingdom, and because of the perception of parallelism between English and the U.S., ELT received waves of hostility. A movement, generally referred to as ' book purging', aimed at 'de-culturalization' of school and university English-teaching textbooks. As an urgent reaction, certain words and concepts were replaced by 'proper' acultural or neutral ones. Replacing the national course-books and designing new materials were the next steps. The materials developed, then, generally represented the concepts, topics and ideas that Iranian students might learn in other courses including history and divinity. At present, in his words, the dominant trend in Iran is toward more English language teaching.

In Iranian educational system, while in the public sector, English is taught from junior high school as a compulsory school subject on the curriculum, it is taught in most of private primary schools and even at pre-school levels. Moreover, in higher education English has found an important status. But, in private sector, the changes have been more significant. Like many parts of the world, ELT is known as an important educational activity in private sector and also big business. Due to some limitations and drawbacks in state educational system, private language institutes have simply attracted an increasing number of learners. According to Talebinezhad and Sadeghi Beniss (2005), the deficiency of public schools and universities in satisfying students' ever-increasing desire to learn English communicatively has resulted in an extensive and still growing private sector of English teaching in Iran. In this regard, Riazi (2005) states that today in addition to formal private schools offering English language at different levels in their curriculum, there are plenty of private and semi-private English-language institutes and centers that offer courses at different levels and for different purposes. Looking at the methods, materials and assessments current in Iranian private sector reveals that the model of English to emulate tends to be mostly the Inner Circle varieties of English. For instance, the latest versions of well-known educational books produced and published in Inner Circle, such as *New Interchange, New Headway, Fundamentals, Impact, Gold,* etc. are the main sources of English teaching in private sector. Along with their audio-visual aids, their teacher guides and achievement tests are used. In this growing sector, English is mostly taught communicatively and the most important skill is speaking. In this sector, monolingual education is more dominant and native pronunciations, especially American pronunciation, are mostly followed. In all, the Inner Circle English enjoys the most important position in this EFL context.

Being familiar with these considerations, in the following the rationale for applying CP in this context is discussed:

1. Socio-political and ideological factors

As noted, the Iranian society as an Expanding Circle society is known as one whose dominant ideology is "anti-imperialistic" and Islamic culture is predominant. During the recent decades, the Iranian government not only insists on rich cultural and social values, but has tried to announce its cultural and political independence more widely. Facing these facts, today as Phillipson (1992 and 2009) and Bourne (1996) maintain a very important aspect of the politics and economics of English is ELT and the spread of English especially through ELT has played a key role in the expansion of the cultural, economic and political influence of the Center in less developed countries or the Periphery especially in government and education, the Iranian language policy-makers should encounter English and ELT more consciously and critically. According to Phillipson, the high status of English in these two interrelated sectors perpetuate the dependency of the Periphery on the powerful Center countries and there interests. In such a situation, as Al-Issa (2006) writes, the less developed countries are the mere consumers of the expertise, methodology and materials dispensed by the West and according to Canagarajah (1999) such a transfer promotes Western ideologies and contribute to its domination more subtly. In this regard, Phillipson (1990) notes that ELT has been a means toward political and economic goals and a means of securing ties of all kinds with the Third World countries. Thus, it is not surprising to see that Dua (1994) writes that the USA looks at the promotion of English as one of its objectives of cultural policy and Pennycook (1994) introduces ELT as a fundamental component of the Center policy throughout the world.

Referring to this fact that the complexity resulting from the spread of English is not limited to its linguistic forms and functions, but has also found its political and ideological and poses a new set of questions about an aspect of ELT that

has received only peripheral attention until recently, we should accept this fact that as Johnston (2003) asserts ELT undoubtedly is and always has been a profoundly and unavoidably political activity or as Phillipson (1992) notes ELT is a tool for the Center's imperialism or hegemony.

There is no doubt that the Iranian decision-makers and language policy makers and planners must consider such issues and do not see ELT as a value-free or a mere educational issue which is avoid of any sociopolitical factor. In this regard, findings of Davari (2011) also reveal that the Iranian ELT community believes that ELT is tied to the Western political system and it should be studied from a sociopolitical standpoint.

Currently, since the importance of English in the globalizing world is not deniable and the available evidence, as Ahmadipour (2008) notes, reveals that the Iranian language policy makers on the one hand attach importance to English language and on the other hand attend to its sociopolitical, cultural and ideological impacts, certainly the best and the most suitable approach to face English and ELT can be critical pedagogy which as mentioned chooses the 'third way" that avoids the traditional extremes of rejecting English outright for its linguistic imperialism or accepting its wholesale for its benefits. Thus, considering the socio-political and ideological dimensions and impacts of ELT, critical pedagogy which as Byean (2011) asserts clearly maintains that English teachers, being aware of the interlinked facets of English and its underlying ideologies in ELT, need to approach ELT with more critical minds, can be an alternative approach to the mainstream ELT which is mostly current in ELT profession in Iranian society.

2. The issue of culture

In Akbari's (2008b) words, culture has always been treated as an indispensable part of any language teaching/learning situation. From a broader perspective, according to Davari (2011) one of the most controversial facets of the globalization of English and ELT is the relationship between language and culture. In this regard, Wilson (2005) states that cultural homogenization or in many cases Americanization is a controversial aspect of globalization in ELT. While Crystal (1997) clearly asserts that different cultures throughout the world can exist along with the global spread of English, the scholars belonging to CP tradition including Phillipson (1992), Pennycook (1994, 2001 and 2007), Alptekin (2002) and Canagarajah (1999) maintain that the spread of English threatens different cultures in the world. Alptekin (2002) believes that ELT is "enculturation" in which the learner acquires new cultural frames of reference and a new worldview, reflecting those of the target language culture of its speakers. Canagarajah (1999) also demonstrates the cultural load of ELT practices developed in the Center. In this regard, he maintains that English spread especially through ELT strengthens the cultural hegemony of the Center. Moreover, Pennycook (2007) introduces the impact of English culture so great that clearly asserts that we must rethink the relationship between English, pedagogy and culture within the contemporary world.

Focusing on the position and impact of culture, Fredricks (2007, p. 22) writes that "as EFL programs become more prevalent throughout the world, the cultural imperialism of English teaching are more often debated." In her words, these cultural considerations are extremely relevant in Islamic cultures, where English education can be viewed as contributing to the influence of western Christian or secular pedagogy. According to Pennycook (1994) the kinds of knowledge and cultures to which English is strongly associated clash with or even threaten an Islamic worldview, culture and lifestyle. For example, studying the cultural content of the teaching materials used in Iranian society even those developed locally indicates that most cultural content however has been from the target culture.

Currently, observing the English language classes shows that they often incorporate the teaching of culture as part of their content. Sometimes, cultural topics are there merely to give the classes something to read, write, listen to and talk about in the target language and other times, learning culture is one of the explicit goals of an English language curriculum. For example, teaching some books such as *Impact series* can be introduced as a significant case of learning culture rather than language.

Regarding this situation, the main justification has been that those who want to learn English want to communicate with the users of this language, and successful communication would not be possible without the learners' familiarity with the cultural norms of English speakers. In this case, Akbari (2008b) insists on this fact that this assumption is only true for those who want to migrate to countries such as the US or UK for work or study. Moreover, in his words, due to the scope of English application both geographically and communicatively, most of the communication carried out in English is between people who are themselves the so-called non-native speakers of English with a distinct cultural identity of their own. Thus, there is little need in this context for the Anglo-American culture, since neither party is a native with whom the other interlocutor is going to identify.

Encountering these facts, there is no room to doubt that CP as an educational approach which shows sensitivity to the issue of culture and does not see ELT as a value-free profession, can be an alternative approach in EFL contexts especially in societies like Iran whose cultural and religious values are different from the Center.

3. Local as well as global topics

As Bardovi-Harling (1996) notes, teaching materials, especially textbooks, are perceived as a prestige source of input and play an important part in curriculum design of a foreign language class, because learners especially in EFL contexts do not receive much input outside the classroom.

Reviewing the topics of the current ELT textbooks indicates that most of the topics in these books are either Center-oriented or sanitized. Concerning the Center-oriented textbooks, Gray (2000) maintains that it is precisely the ambassadorial aspect of the ELT coursebooks which has led to recent criticisms. Phillipson (1992) also sees the

promotion of such global couresbooks as a government-backed enterprise with an economic and ideological agenda aims ultimately at boosting commerce and the dissemination of ideas.

Studying the topics of some current textbooks used in Morroco, Sellami (2006) reveals that the topics and the content of such Center-oriented couresbooks are in sharp contrast with an Arab and Islamic culture.

Gray (2002) also maintains that one effect of globalization is the imposition of Center materials on the Periphery in the increasing spread of global ELT couresbooks which are thematically and culturally "inclusive" and "inappropriate". In this regard, Canagarajah (1999) demonstrates such a lack of appropriateness in this way: "The Tamil students sit listening to the teacher reads about the life of a middle-class British university student, while Government helicopters fly above searching for Tamil tigers. The textbooks could not move detached from the students' lives" (p. 10). According to Banegas (2010), such couresbooks are criticized not only for avoiding provoking topics, but also for presenting a romantic view of countries such as Britain or the USA. In his words, in an attempt to avoid some controversial and real issues, material writers opt for selecting themes that are rooted in the British or American culture. Gray (2000) writes that topics are chosen in such a way that the target culture seems to uphold values and living standards that are better than those of the student's culture, leading to the perception that the target culture is superior to the student's. Even if textbooks do contemplate topics such as poverty, hunger, or even discrimination, they are contextualized in Africa or the Muslim world, creating the idea that poverty or discrimination is nowhere to be found in Europe or the USA.

Raising such sensitivities to such textbooks and even setting aside some Center-oriented textbooks in some educational systems, have led to developing some new famous textbooks which are mostly sanitized and neutralized (Gray, 2001). In this regard, Akbari (2008c) states that many of the textbooks are sanitized and neutralized "to make sure they do not lose their market potential and in this process most of the topics of interest for a critical pedagogy are removed. In his terms, most of the topics one encounters in commercially prepared textbooks deal with harmless issues such as travel, shopping, holidays and food recipes, leaving little room for social transformation and political awareness rising." Hillyard (2005) points out that when we study the topics of such textbooks, there is little controversial material. On the contrary, we find themes such as the family, sport, hobbies, travel, pop culture, festivals from remote countries which bear no impact on students' lives, fashion and food, among others. Also according to Banegas (2010) recently for reasons generally attributed to the production and matching of mainstream couresbooks produced for the general EFL class regardless of where they are used, publishers avoid the inclusion of provocative topics in developing the units of work couresbooks may be divided into.

In CP, what is more essential for both teachers and students are being critically aware of issues surrounding them both locally and globally (Byean, 2011). According to Akbari (2008b) CP takes the local as its point of departure and local here includes the overall actual life experiences and needs of learners. Akbari believes that a problem of commercially produced couresbooks is their disregard for the local issues or in a more precise word, their real-life concerns. In his belief, from a critical perspective, reliance on one's own local culture has the added value of enabling learners to think about the different aspects of the culture in which they live and find ways of bring about changes in the society where change is needed. If students are going to transform the lives of themselves and those of others, they cannot do so unless due attention is paid to their own culture in the curriculum and opportunities are provided for crucial reflection on its features. Akbari also writes that reliance on learners' culture as the point of departure for language teaching will make them critically aware and respectful of their own culture and prevent the development of a sense of inferiority which might result from a total reliance on the target language culture where only the praiseworthy features of the culture are presented. Criticizing such topics presented in the mainstream textbooks, Banegas (2010) supports CP as an approach which critical teachers are empowered so that they can reject, criticize and adapt the material they use in order to help their students develop their cultural thinking skills.

In addition to local topics, CP insists that global issues should be incorporated in ELT. In Sampedro and Hillyard' s (2004) terms, global issues can no longer be dismissed as the "out there", but they are very much "in here" too and can no longer be safely ignored. Matsuda (2006) points out since at present learners want to become effective users of English in the international context, some awareness of global cultures and issues needs to be fostered. In her words, such topics as world peace, environmental conservation and other relevant topics in the field of global education provide appropriate content for readings, class discussions and course assignments.

According to Gursoy and Saglam (2011), since critical pedagogy turns attention towards the relationship between the society and school, language educators feel the need to combine educational goals with social and global responsibilities. Arikan (2009) maintains that global issues and their use in foreign language teaching are considered very relevant as newer approaches examining the learners within their social and natural environment. Brown (1997) also attempts to offer a rationale for giving learners of English language an opportunity to engage in critical thinking on questions of global importance. In Byean's (2011) words, CP aims at raising students' critical reflections on local and global problematic issues.

Since CP, insisting on improving critical thinking, aims to empower language learners and provides an opportunity for the learners to transform their lives, on the one hand, it is strongly suggested that the topics and content of textbooks, class discussions and course assignments are contextually and locally situated and on the other hand to be effective users of English in the global context, integrating global issues needs to be fostered. According to Rashidi and Safari

(2011), for CP to be truly effective in an English language program, materials should simultaneously develop learners' language skills and their awareness of the social structures. Concerning the Iranian society also findings of Davari (2011) reveal that the Iranian ELT community believes that learners' interests and their life experiences can be a valuable choice for the starting point in ELT.

Thus, avoiding the Center-oriented or sanitized textbooks as well as considering this fact that raising learners' critical consciousness to be aware of their sociopolitical surroundings in the globalizing world is an object of the education for the Iranian society, incorporating local as well as global issues in ELT can meet this need.

III. CONCLUSION

This study, considering the contextual considerations of the Iranian society as an Expanding Circle country, tried to introduce and discuss the rationale of applying CP as an alternative and effective approach in ELT. Although other factors including the potential use of mother tongue, native speaker fallacy/tenet, teaching methods, etc. can be also dealt with, only three factors of (a) socio-political and ideological factors, (b) the issue of culture, (c) local as well as global topics were discussed in more details. Considering these factors, it is believed that applying this critical approach can meet not only the goals of the Iranian educational system, but also can meet the Iranian EFL learners' needs and interests. Accepting this given that the emergence of English as a global language is going to seriously influence language planning and policy making in every society (Nunan, 2003), it is essential for us to adopt a more dynamic, critical and conscious position toward this trend. In this regard, encountering this trend critically involves firstly doubting what is taken for granted by the mainstream ELT and seeing English and ELT through a broader socio-political and cultural perspective. Reviewing the features of CP reveals that undoubtedly this approach enjoying these criteria might be the best choice for such a society.

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Ferdows Aghagolzadeh received his MA in linguistics in 1994 from Tarbiat Modares University (TMU), Tehran, Iran, and his PhD in 2002 from TMU. He is currently an associate professor and the head of Linguistics Department at TMU. His interests are discourse analysis, pragmatics and applied linguistics. He is the author of two books and has published and presented papers in these areas.

Hossein Davari received his MA in linguistics in 2005 from Tarbiat Modares University (TMU), Tehran, Iran, and his MA in TEFL in 2011 from Payame Nour University (PNU). He is a lecturer of PNU, Damghan, Iran. His interests include sociolinguistics, materials development, lexicography and ESP and has published and presented papers in these areas.

Research on College Teachers' Politeness Strategies in EFL Classrooms[*]

Liu Peng
School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Technology, Zigong, Sichuan, China
Email: wwpengliu@hotmail.com

Lingling Cai
School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Technology, Zigong, Sichuan, China
Email: cherrylingling1130@163.com

Xianjun Tan
School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Technology, Zigong, Sichuan, China
Email: tanxianjun821@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—**Politeness is a common phenomenon in any society. Thus conventions of politeness vary from culture to culture. How people value politeness or show politeness is influenced by many factors such as age, gender, knowledge level, or social status or power. In this research, we deal with politeness in China EFL classrooms. Based on Brown and Levinson's Face Theory and applying a series of research methods like class observation, survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews in a case study, the researcher tries to find out: how students' gender and level of English proficiency influence their understanding of teachers' politeness strategies, what attitudes they have towards the application of teachers' PS, and how students value politeness strategies in EFL classrooms. In conclusion, on one hand, teachers should increase their own politeness awareness as well as students'; on the other hand, it is very important to improve students' English proficiency, which can help them understand situational contexts in English and interpret teachers' well meaning in the term of politeness.**

Index Terms—**politeness, face theory, politeness strategies, EFL classrooms**

I. INTRODUCTION

According to College English Curriculum Requirement issued in 2007, China College English is aimed at developing college students' comprehensive abilities in using English, especially in reinforcing listening and speaking skills in order that they will be able to communicate effectively, increase their ability in independent studying and improve their general cultural awareness to meet the minimum standard of China's economic prosperity and international exchanges. From the *Requirement*, it is easy to tell that the key point is effective communication. As we know, "knowledge of the elements of a language in fact counts for nothing unless the user is able to combine them in new and appropriate ways to meet the linguistic demands of the situation in which he wishes to use the language" (Morrow, 1979:145). Consequently, language learners need to understand culture, context and politeness so as to be able to function and communicate appropriately in the target language.

In this research, politeness is the main theme of the thesis, while Brown and Levinson's model of politeness acts as the major theory for it. Based on theories above and through a series of research methods, the researcher aims at exploring: a) students' gender difference and levels of English proficiency influencing their comprehension of teachers' politeness strategies; b) the existence of the gap between teachers' initial intention of using PS and students' perception of teachers' politeness strategies; c) students' expectation of teachers' politeness strategies; d) students' attitudes towards teachers' application of politeness strategies; and e) contextual factor affecting students' interpretation of teachers' politeness strategies;.

II. RELEVANT THEORIES

A. Brown and Levinson's Face Theory

1. The notion of face

Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness model is considered as the most influential politeness theory (Fukushima, 2000; Thomas, 1995). The heart of it is *face*, originated from Goffman (1957, 1967). Brown and Levinson define face

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as "the public self-image that every human being wants to claims for himself" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.61). Comparing with the two definitions of face, we notice that the former emphasizes its social significance, while the latter stresses individual wants. In this study, Brown and Levinson's redefinition bears a more practical meaning. According to Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), there are two types of face: positive face and negative face. Positive Face refers to one's self-esteem, while negative face refers to one's freedom to act. The two aspects of face are the basic wants in any social interaction, and so cooperation is needed for the participants to maintain each other's faces.

2. Politeness strategies

According to Brown and Levinson, positive and negative faces exist universally in human culture. Normally any rational individual cooperates in maintaining both the speaker's and the hearer's faces. But it is not always the case in reality. During social interactions, face-threatening acts (FTAs) are at times inevitable based on the terms of the conversation. Thus four main types of politeness strategies are proposed: bald on-record (without any redressive action to minimize H's FTAS), positive politeness (S satisfies H's desires of being liked or approved of), negative politeness (S satisfies H's desires to be unimpeded), off-record (S has the chance to evade responsibility by claiming that H's interpretation of the utterance as an FTA is wrong). Sometimes if the potential for loss of face is too great, the speaker may abandon the FTA completely and say nothing, which is understood as the highest degree of politeness strategy of "Don't do FTAs".

Formulating Brown and Levinson's degrees of politeness strategies, the researcher of this study designed a questionnaire with five degrees of options for the students to determine the teacher's politeness strategies. Differently from Brown and Levinson and also following their theory that any speech act can be FTAs, the researcher abandoned their highest degree of politeness (5. Don't do FTAs), instead, the researcher set "4. Off record" as the highest degree of politeness, and the others moved upwards a bit, and the least degree of politeness was highest risk of FTAs. In this way the researcher attempts to find out whether the students comprehend the teacher's politeness strategies as Brown and Levinson have postulated.

3. Three sociological variables in degree of politeness

To illustrate when deciding whether and how to use the various strategies in real life situations, Brown and Levinson (1987, pp.71-84) propose three sociological variables in choosing politeness strategies. 1) Social distance between the speaker and the hearer. For example, we may use less elaborate positive strategies or we may choose to use positive rather than negative strategies when speaking with family. Regarding social distance between teachers and students, their relation is far, e.g. due to age gap, gender difference, and how teachers develop relations with students. 2) Power relations between the speaker and the hearer. In classrooms teachers have higher power over students in a traditional sense other than age gap etc. How teachers use this power in class varies individually, which can affect the building of the teacher-student relation. 3) The absolute ranking of impositions in a particular culture, in other words, the absolute ranking of threat of the FTA. Highly imposing acts like requests demand more redress to mitigate their increased threat level.

B. Student Factors Influencing Teachers' Politeness Strategies

The first, students' age is the initial consideration. As a saying goes, suit the remedy to the case. Different age groups of students have different tendencies or expectations from the teacher. Younger students don't have much knowledge of face saving or face losing or face wanting. What they want most is to get as many as positive comments from teachers. In this case, teacher's continuous praise or agreement is the source of greater motivation in learning. The targeted subjects of this research are freshmen whose age ranges from 18 to 20. On one hand, they have the same wish for the teacher, such as seeking agreement; they want the respects of their self-esteem, and if possible, they try not to suffer the less FTAs. On the other hand, like other adults, they are realistic about the world and accept challenges in a critical way. Since the students in this research belong to the same age group. Students' age factor is overlooked on purpose.

The second, gender difference is an important factor. Through class observations, the researcher noticed that girls use more auxiliary means (e.g. hand gestures, facial expression) to show their politeness in making class presentations. Here it is worth mentioning that another obvious difference in girls' speech lies in their normative language. More often girl students give answers following the teacher's question pattern, and thus they speak longer sentences than boys. With regard to the comprehension of teachers' politeness strategies, do boy and girl students apply the same standards to judging the teacher's language? How do boy and girl students respond to the teacher's politeness strategies differently? The following discloses them on the basis of an empirical study.

The last, the level of English proficiency is a key ingredient other than age and gender factors in EFL classrooms. Following Brown and Levinson (1987), higher levels of indirectness may result in higher levels of politeness, that is to say, the lower level learners show strong tendency towards the use of the most direct type of politeness strategy. Likewise, EFL learners with lower English proficiency are less capable of giving clear and specific explanations than those with higher language proficiency.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

In this study, there are seven questions to be explored via class observations, survey questionnaires and

semi-structured interviews.

1) How students' gender and levels of English proficiency influence students' comprehension of teachers' PS?
2) Is there any gap between teachers' initial intention and students' perception?
3) How does contextual factor affect students' interpretation of teachers' PS?
4) What expectations do students have of teachers' PS?
5) How do students value teachers' application of teachers' PS?

B.   Research Procedures

Altogether the research consists of seven steps. The first step was to determine how to collect and analyze data. The second step was to observe classes in EFL classrooms and record teachers' language via MP4. The third step was to design questions for survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The fourth step was to invite seventy-four students to conduct survey questionnaires during break between classes after the researcher finished non-participant observation, and then collected back on the spot. The fifth step was to have individual interviews with four students (Boy A, Boy B; Girl A, Girl B) in different times at their convenience. The sixth step was to analyze data collected from questionnaires and interviews. And the final step was to have a discussion based on data analysis.

C.   Subjects

In this research there are two groups of subjects from Sichuan University of Science and Engineering. One group is a female teacher aged 30, and with eight years of teaching career. The other group is her seventy-four students at their first semester of freshmen year. Normally in this university there are about thirty students in each class, and an English teacher gives lessons to a mixed class (two natural classes are combined into one in English class). It is engineering major, boys outnumber girls: there are fifty-one boys and twenty-three girls. The e-commerce major sounds "hot" for most college-bound students. There are more than 35 students in each natural class. Their levels of English proficiency are measured by college entrance exam scores: advanced level (AL), intermediate level (IL), ordinary level (OL) and low level (LL). From the *Figures 4.3* below, we can see that each level of students' English proficiency take on almost an even distribution of all subjects: Advanced level accounts for 26%, IL 23%, OL 20% and LL 31%. Among four semi-structured interviewees, Boy A belongs to low level, Girl A average level, Boy B intermediate level and Girl B advanced level.
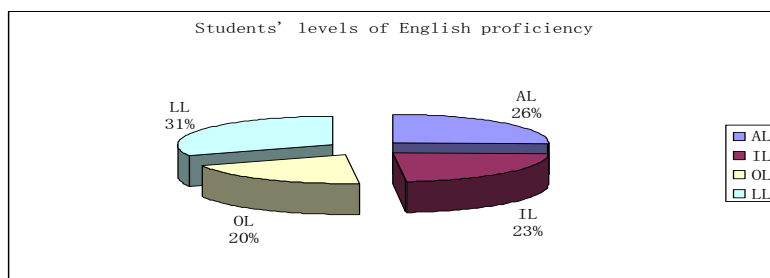

Fig. C Students' levels of English proficiency in the research
Note:
1. Students' levels of English proficiency are measured by college entrance exam scores
2. AL=Average level; IL=Intermediate level' OL=Ordinary level; LL=Low level
3. AL≥110; 100≤IL≤109; 90≤OL≤99; LL<90

D.   Instruments

In this study, the researcher implements data collection and analysis techniques from quantitative and qualitative researches. It involves class observation, questionnaires, and interviews. Given the purpose of this study, mixed research methods are the most appropriate research methodology to be used. It is not only significant to investigate the teacher's practice of politeness strategies in EFL classrooms, but also it is crucial to explore students' response to the teacher's politeness strategies. In such cases, the teacher's action and students' reaction are correlated. Besides, two main types of data collection methods were employed: survey questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. These instruments permitted the researcher to identify students' perception and interpretation of teachers' politeness strategies as well as the significance of using them, and what relevant politeness strategies can be highlighted for the good of teachers and learners.

1. Data collection

Before data collection started, the researcher made it clear to the subjects (the teacher and the students) in private respectively that it was part of M.A. program related to teachers' politeness strategies. When inviting the English teacher, the researcher informed that there was no risk of privacy-revealing or academic interference. When talking to the students, the researcher promised that there was no threat to their academic achievements. The data is only for an English teaching and researching project.

1.1 Class observation

The researcher had one-week class observation in the first month of the students' entering college. The researcher observed twice in a week. Each time it lasted 45 minutes, i.e. one class period. During observation, the researcher recorded the teacher's language with MP4. Altogether the researcher collected thirty-six sentences related to Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies. When creating a survey for the students, the researcher picked out the most frequently-used sentences as questions to create survey questionnaires.

1.2 Survey questionnaire

In this research there involves a questionnaire (Appendix A) aimed at students. There are two parts: part one is to find out how students interpret teachers' politeness strategies in their language use; part two is to probe into how students evaluate the significance of teachers' application of politeness strategies. Part one is based on class observation. There are ten multiple-choice questions followed by five rating choices on basis of Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies. According to them, there are five degrees of politeness strategies: 5. Don't do FTAs; 4. Off-record; 3. Negative politeness strategy; 2. Positive politeness strategy; 1. Bald on record. However in EFL classrooms, it is almost impossible for the teacher not to do FTAs. Again according to Brown and Levinson, all speech acts involve a certain kind of face threat. Modeling them, the researcher created five rating of choices to let students decide the teacher's politeness: A. Off-record; B. Negative PS; C. Positive PS; D. Bald on-record; and E. Highest rank of FTAs (Appendix Two). For part two there are also five rating choices of (dis)agreement: A. Totally agreement; B. Agreement; C. No idea; D. Disagreement; E. Totally disagreement. The survey was conducted during break between classes. Students were given 15 minutes to finish it and then handed it in on the spot. Altogether seventy-five questionnaires were handed out, all were returned but one questionnaire was invalid as he/she failed to tell "gender".

1.3 Semi-structured interview

There are two parts for students' interview (Appendix B). Part one is situational questions based on four classroom situations. Followed by each situation, four politeness strategies are given in case students may need them in order to let the interview move on successfully. Its aim is to know about students' expectation of teachers' application of politeness strategies. Part two is to ask about students' opinions about teachers' politeness strategies in a general sense. Four questions are listed, and the last question is an optional one. For this research method, four students are chose according to their level of English proficiency. To achieve gender balance, two boys and two girls are invited. Boy A's English belongs to low level, girl A belongs to ordinary level, boy B's belongs to intermediate level, and girl B's belongs to advanced level. The interview was conducted at different times of the four students' free time respectively. For each student it lasted thirty minutes, and the researcher recorded the whole process with MP4 after being granted the permission. Considering that the language difficulty might hinder them from giving an honest answer and making the interview more comfortable, the interviewees were allowed to use Chinese. Plus, they were reminded that extra questions might be added based on their responses. Once the interviewee finished all the required questions, the researcher played the recording to him/her for verification so that extra information might be added.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Students' Comprehension of Teachers' Politeness Strategies

Face want is an essential ingredient that people in all cultures try to save and maintain. Since introduced to China in 1980s, Face Theory and politeness strategies have been researched by many Chinese scholars (Gu, 1992; Shu, 1993; Gao, 1996; He, 1995; Wang, 2001, Xiong, 2002). Here the present study attempts to reveal that when teachers assume they are using higher or lower degree of politeness strategies, do students rate the same degree of their politeness strategies? Is there any gap in existence between the teacher's expectation and students' comprehension in term of politeness strategies? How boy students and girl students decide the teacher's rating of politeness strategies respectively? And how differently students with different levels of English interpret the teacher's politeness strategies? Decoding data from questionnaires and converting into digits, the researcher input them via SPSS 19.0 version for statistical calculation and then output the results shown as figures below.

1. Students' gender difference

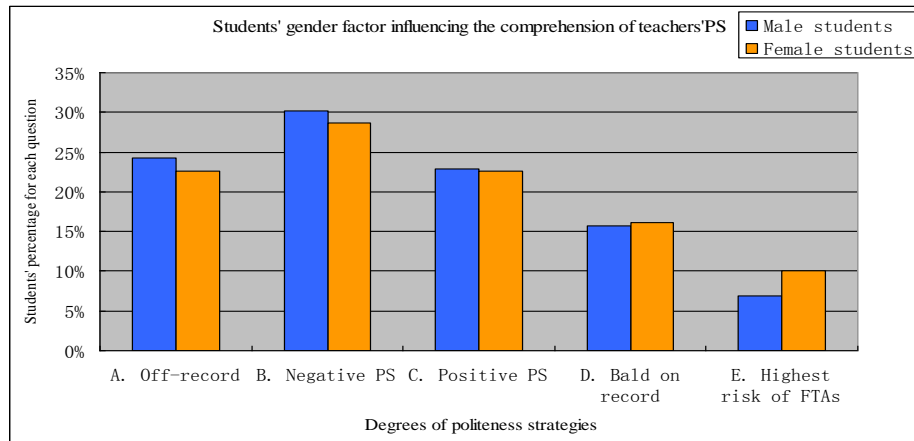From fig. A.1, there are three implications in students' comprehension of teachers' politeness strategies.

Fig .A.1 Students' gender factor influencing the comprehension of teachers' PS

a). Boy and girl students share common ground in determining that the teacher uses more higher degrees of politeness strategies, i.e. A. Off-record; B. Negative PS; and C. Positive PS. It is a happy thing as we can tell the teacher has built a friendly relationship with students from the very beginning.

b). Boy students emphasize the teacher's literal intention conveyed by speech acts and decide its degree of politeness strategies; while girl students tries harder to interpret the teacher's speech act beyond words, and understand the depth meaning in term of politeness strategies. It is easy to tell from the figure above that boy students have higher percentage than girl students in option A, option B and option C (which are ranked as higher degrees of politeness strategies), but in option D and option E girl students outnumber boy students.

c). This difference can be understood in accordance to other previous researchers besides Brown and Levinson. Females are concerned about the application of their own politeness strategies in speeches. Likewise, they adopt the same standards to treat and measure others' degree of politeness strategies. EFL classrooms are no exception.

2. Students' different levels of English proficiency

According to Fig.A.2, we can tell that students' different levels of English proficiency influence students' comprehension of teachers' politeness strategies. The researcher divides them into four levels referring to their college entrance exam scares.
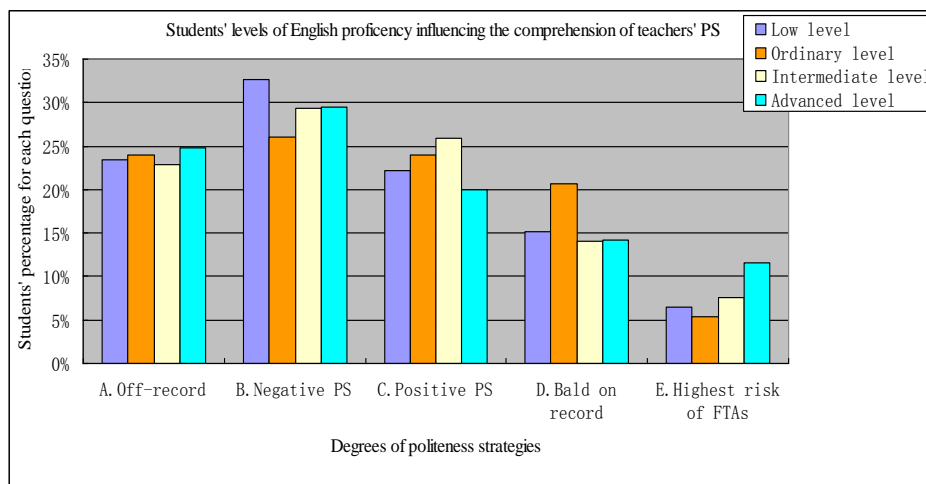

Fig.A.2 Students' levels of English proficiency influencing the comprehension of teachers' PS

a). Low level of students are most liberal about teachers' politeness strategies. Maybe because the correct comprehension is limited by their poor English, what they care most in class is to understand what the teacher says in a literal sense instead of rating the teacher's degree of politeness strategies. Teachers' directness strategies are more suitable if the teacher means to communicate with them effectively. Their preference is reflected in their choice of higher degrees of teachers' politeness strategies.

b). Ordinary level of students are more likely to go two extremes. Their English allows them to make some judgments on their own but their comprehension is restrained by the lower level of English too. They are sensitive and fragile when understanding what the teacher says. Once they catch some "improper" word in teachers' speeches, they might abandon objectivity and assume that the teacher is "impolite". This attitude is disclosed in the figure above: in options A, B, C the percentages stay stable, while in option D (bald on-record) the number rises highest sharply and in option E the percentage drops the lowest extent.

c). Intermediate level of students are most neutral. Their English is good. Normally for most students there is no problem to understand the teacher's literal meaning. Plus they enjoy better advantages in class. As a result, they give most objective ratings of teacher's politeness strategies.

d). Advanced level of students are most critical about teachers' politeness strategies. Attributing to their excellence in English, they can understand the teacher's literal and implied meanings in the speeches. When they decide the teacher's degree of politeness strategies, they might go two extremes like OL students. Based on independent critical thinking and decision making, in order to protect their self-esteem and public self-image they appeal for higher standards of teacher's politeness strategies, also they are more indirect in judging the teacher.

B. Gap between Teachers' Expectation and Students' Comprehension

This part is most surprising. As we know when the teacher uses some politeness strategies, he/she means students to "read" them correctly and helps to bridge the gap between teachers and students. Examining the table above, the researcher notices that there exists much difference between the teacher's anticipation and students' comprehension. Among ten questions in the first part of the questionnaire, both teachers and students have reached an agreement at question one. Fortunately for questions 2-4, 7-10, students choose higher degrees of politeness strategies than what the teacher expects to achieve. But how do student comprehend question 5 and 6? In order to tap into the truth, the researcher commented out each question with situations, and then talked to the teacher in private and to the students in class for further information. She was quite supportive and stressed what she meant when saying out each sentence. Her words and intention go in accordance with Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies in column two (teachers' expectation in the table 5.3). Back to class, the researcher asked students how they interpret the teacher's speeches in question 5 and 6 without explaining anything. The same result had gained. Next the researcher showed them the same two questions but with annotations. *Question 5*, I'm afraid it is not a *best* word here. (When a student gives a wrong word, the teacher doesn't want to point it out directly.). *Question 6*, Is he *go* to work on time every day? (The teacher repeats the sentence that a student has said. In fact there is a grammatical mistake in it.) This time most students chose higher degrees of politeness strategies than the teacher's original intention. When asked why, they explained that they failed to figure out why (in what situation) the teacher said so. Some thought of them as the teacher's normal speech acts instead of kind reminders for students' mistakes.

TABLE B.
COMPARISON BETWEEN TEACHERS' EXPECTATION AND STUDENTS' COMPREHENSION

Questions	Teachers' Expectation	(Students' comprehension) A	B	C	D	E
1	B	36%	**39%**	12%	5%	7%
2	D	16%	28%	**46%**	9%	0%
3	C	**38%**	24%	24%	11%	3%
4	D	32%	**46%**	18%	3%	1%
5	A	18%	**39%**	30%	8%	5%
6	A	9%	28%	**31%**	27%	4%
7	B	**51%**	39%	9%	0%	0%
8	E	0%	8%	30%	**45%**	18%
9	E	1%	1%	9%	**47%**	41%
10	C	35%	**43%**	19%	3%	0%

Note: The number in blue is teachers' expectation in using politeness strategies; the number in bold is highest percentage of students' comprehension.
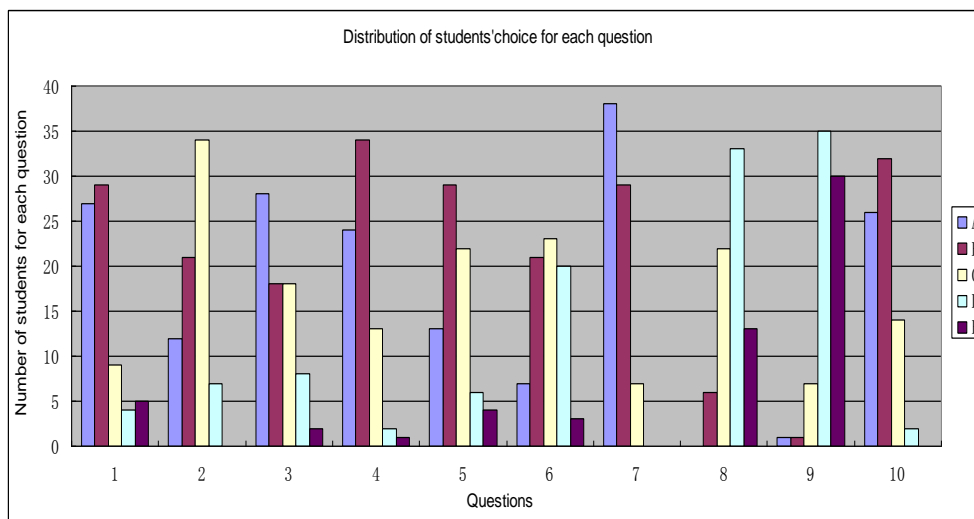

Fig. B. Distribution of students' choice for each question
Note: A. Off-record, B. Negative politeness strategy, C. Positive politeness strategy, D. Bald on-record, E .Highest degree of FTAs

Generally speaking, there exists a problem how to bridge the gap though students tend to be tolerant about the teacher's politeness strategies. Maybe the teacher is a young female, always has a pleasant relationship with students, and students like her. Or maybe students are new here, feel excited about college life, and look at everyone and everything around with a positive heart. The result is encouraging for the teacher. However, how will it be if the researcher uses sophomore, junior or senior as the survey respondents? Perhaps the best policy is to increase the politeness awareness of teachers and students and improve their language communication competence.

C.   Students' Expectation of Teachers' Politeness Strategies

According to one finding of the survey questionnaire in 5.3, we know that there exists a gap between teachers' initial expectation and students' ultimate comprehension in term of teachers' politeness strategies. But what do students expect the teacher to do when there involves some kind of FTAs? Do they really value the teacher's employment of politeness strategies in classrooms? In order to answer them, the researcher invited four students to have semi-structured interviews one by one. As was mentioned in 4.5.3, there are two parts of questions. In part one, four tips followed by each question are ranked as off-record, negative PS, positive PS, bald on-record. The four situations are designed out of toughest activity for teachers and students and might incur highest risk of FTAs if dealing with them carelessly. Analyzing four students' answers in part one, all interviewees chose to answer from four options and then explain something relevant.

TABLE C.
INTERVIEWEES' OPTIONS FOR SITUATION QUESTION

S1	Misbehaving such as dozing off, talking in private			
	Boy A: Talk to me in private after class (Positive PS)	Girl A: Talk to me in private after class (Positive PS)	Boy B: Ask me to answer a question (Off-record)	Girl A: Ask me to answer a question (Off-record)
S2	Encounter difficulty with the study			
	Boy A: Offer to help (Bald on-record)	Girl A: Wait till students ask for help (Negative PS)	Boy B: Encourage me to solve it by myself (Positive PS)	Girl A: Wait till students ask for help (Negative PS)
S3	Giving wrong answer			
	Boy A: Make positive comment on it (Positive PS)	Girl A: Help to solve it patiently (Off-record)	Boy B: Correct it directly (Negative PS)	Girl A: Correct it directly (Negative PS)
S4	Teachers' FTAs			
	Boy A: Explain it (Off-record)	Girl A: Minimize the threat (Positive PS)	Boy B: Be straightforward (Bald on-record)	Girl A: Apologize to me after that (Negative PS)

In situation one, students are divided into two groups: lower levels are weak group in class and hope that the teacher shows concerns in private, while higher levels show more confidence in class and prefer that the teacher deals with it in an indirect way.

In situation two, students show different preferences in teachers' application of politeness strategies. Boy A is an outgoing happy person. Though his English is not good, he is brave enough to face the reality. When he has difficulty with study, he would like the teacher to offer help directly. Boy B is a cheerful person, his good English builds up his confidence, and during the whole interview, he is very talkative. When he has some trouble, he enjoys gaining positive support from the teacher. For two girls, though with different levels of English proficiency, they hope to obtain more freedom in handling their difficulty with study. Both of them explained if the teacher offers to help, they will feel more embarrassed than being appreciative.

In situation three, Boy A expects that the teacher will be optimistic about his answer. For Girl A, perhaps because of gender difference, she appreciates that the teacher treats it indirectly and helps to solve it patiently. Boy B and Girl A are higher levels and they don't want the teacher to do anything else that may threaten their face wants, instead, they would like the teacher to get to the point. If their answers are wrong, the teacher is supposed to give the right answer immediately, which is what "good" students want most.

In situation four, the four students have their own attitudes towards it. Boy A, firstly explained that he totally understood the teacher if she didn't mean to damage students' face wants but she did so in reality. In addition, he still expects the teacher to say something before or afterwards to make him feel better. He doesn't want to have a feeling that the teacher is prejudiced against him because of his bad English. Girl A's thought is understandable. Her English is not good, she is compromising about the teacher's dilemma, but she says she will be thankful if the teacher tries not to damage her face want. Boy B is confident about himself and his English too. He said he quite understood the teacher if she had to make him lose face in class. Girl A is a nice girl but kind of overconfident or straightforward in character. She contended that teachers and students should respect each other. If the teacher makes her lose face, she expects the teacher to do something to remedy it like apology.

As to the second part questions, all the four different levels of students chose to answer items 1, 3, and 4. When the researcher asked why, there was a great consistency in their responses that their teacher adopted politeness strategies often and they liked it when the teacher used it. In addition, they expressed that it was important for the teacher to use

politeness strategies in class. He said he'd like the teacher to employ politeness strategies as they make them feel comfortable and confident about class participation and performance. Boy A (low level) said that although his English was bad, he didn't want to give it up easily. He added that it didn't matter a lot how often the teacher uses politeness strategies; what he cares more about is how much he learns in class. But at the same time, he told that teachers' politeness helps build up "bad" students' confidence. Girl B (advanced level) explained that she was greatly interested in English and wanted to use it in her future employment. Thus she wishes that the teacher uses politeness strategies frequently because it helps build a harmonious relationship between teachers and students. She explained she enjoyed working hard in a pleasant environment. For Boy B (intermediate level) and Girl A (ordinary level), the former expressed his satisfaction with the teacher's current application of politeness strategies, while the latter suggested that it would be better if the teacher could stick to using politeness strategies consistently.

D.　Students' Attitudes towards the Importance of Teachers' Politeness Strategies

To find out the students' attitudes towards the importance of teachers' politeness strategies, four relevant statements were designed and placed in the second part of the survey questionnaire (Appendix A). For each statement there are five ratings of "agreement" is provided: A. Totally agree; B. Agree; C. No idea; D. Disagree; E. Totally disagree. To the researcher's relief, there is none to choose E (Totally disagree).
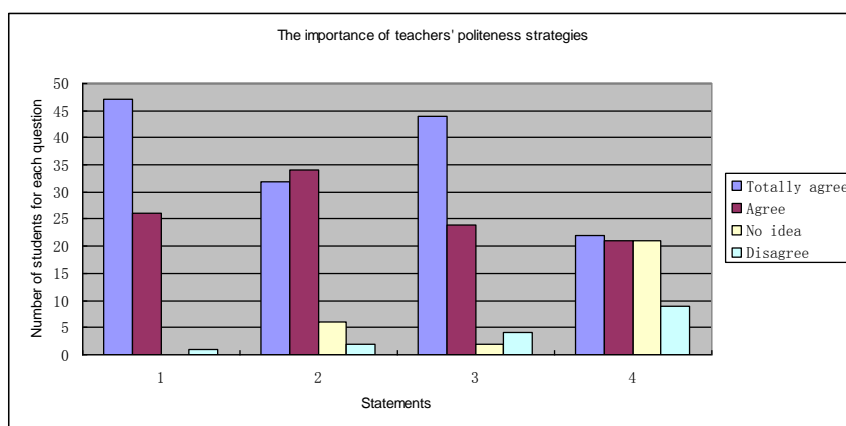

Fig. D. Students' attitudes towards the importance of teachers' politeness strategies

Statement One: It is very important for the teachers to apply politeness strategies. This statement has the least controversy. Of 74 respondents, 73 students chose A (47 students) or B (26 students), while only one chose D (disagree). The researcher didn't go to the class and find out the "D" student because the personal information tells it is a boy and his college entrance exam in English is 68, the lowest score among the respondents. Based on the analysis above, the researcher assumed that his bad English stops him from having any other interests except improving his own language knowledge itself. Why is it important for the teachers to adopt politeness strategies? The following three statements explain something and the students' choice validates it.

Statement Two: The application of teachers' politeness strategies can reinforce students' learning interests. 66 students chose A (32 students) or B (34 students), 6 student chose C (no idea) and 2 chose D (disagree). Revisiting the class, the researcher was told that their learning interests were determined by internal cause instead of external one. The truth that most students chose A or B is to let the teacher know he/she is not alone. It sounds harsh; however, we can tell that the teacher has succeeded in building a friendly relation with her students.

Statement Three: The application of teachers' politeness strategies can promote the establishment of harmonious relation between teachers and students. The result of it show a similar tendency as statement one except that 2 students chose C (No idea). It is easy to understand the students' attitude on this aspect. Literally "politeness" is a pleasant manner in any society. Since there is no cultural confusion or misunderstanding, the teacher can achieve this goal just by observing Chinese "courtesy". Concerning politeness in pragmatics, few students thinks about it seriously or they become acquainted with some basic knowledge related.

Statement Four: The application of teachers' politeness strategies can facilitate the comprehensive development of language skills. On one hand, it is very surprising that quite a number of students ("A", "B" and "C" almost share the name number of students) haven't realized the important connection between teachers' politeness strategies and cultivation of English skills. Even some students disagree with it. On the other hand, it is understandable that students don't have enough politeness awareness. Before quality education prevails all over the country, high school students are faced with "one-size-fits-all" exam system, which emphasizes grammatical competence, reading and writing skills more than language communication competence such as speak and writing skills, cultural knowledge. What they (and their teachers) are concerned most is to obtain high scores, and English course is no exception. In class they care about how many notes they have taken and what language problems they have solved with the help of the teacher. As to whether the teacher applies any politeness strategies or what politeness strategies the teacher adopts, it is beyond their concern.

V. Discussion

According to the researcher's observation, we have a feeling that the teacher manages to build a friendly relation with students, and their class environment is cheerful and relaxing. As to the teacher's teaching objects, her students are in the first month of entering college and their language ability and knowledge level vary a great deal ranging from 126 to 70 in their college entrance exam. By talking to the whole class again, we try to explore how students determine the degree of teachers' politeness. In class students' reply is shocking: they tried to figure out what each question sentence meant word by work, regardless of its contextual situation. Through further inquiry, we notice that in Appendix A, there are two questions that confused students most because they are highly context-dependent. They are question 3 (Hello? Mr. Zhang. Would you like to share your funny story with us?) and 5 (Is he *go* to work on time every day?): question 3 belongs to class management in class activity; question 6 is teachers' evaluation. We know that class management involves teachers' much attention in class while evaluation is a most sensitive part of teachers' class activities, and thus they have to be more diplomatic to deal with it. At such times teachers' politeness strategies and contextual understanding matter much. According to Brown and Levinson, the teacher used positive politeness strategy in question 3 and off-record strategies in question 6. Take a close look at figure 5.3. For question 3, most students chose A (Off-record), next B (Negative PS) and C (Positive PS), and few chose (Bald on-record) and E (Highest risk of FTAs). However, when asked about how they interpreted the context, they gave a surprising response. They said it was about when the teacher asked the student (Mr. Zhang) to tell a funny story. As we know, the real context is that Mr. Zhang was talking and laughing with his desk-mate. In order not to make him to lose face in class, the teacher said something irrelevant to his misbehavior using a favorable strategy. If the teacher used direct strategy by saying "stop talking and laughing", it is a highest risk of FTAs which threatens the student's face completely. For question 6, both students' choices and their contextual interpretation are shocking. Most chose C (Positive PS) and B (Negative PS), next D (Bald on-record) and few chose A (Off-record) and E (Highest risk of FTAs). Students explained that they didn't understand the situation; rather, they understood each question in a liter. Some explained this is one of teachers' class languages, and there is nothing special at all. When the researcher reminded them of correcting a grammatical mistake, they just couldn't find it. The truth is when a student answered a question with "Is he *go* to work on time every day?", there was a grammatical mistake. Still the teacher didn't want to damage the student's face-want; she chose to point it out indirectly by repeating his wrong sentence, expecting to catch his/her (or the whole class') attention.

Revising the questionnaires based on class observation and attaching some annotations of contextual situations to each question, the researcher invited them to make their choice again. This time most of the students rated the other eight questions as A (Off-record) and B (Negative PS), when they marked question 8 and 9 as D (Bald on-record) and E (Highest risk of FTAs). A small percentage found it little of use; they said their English knowledge failed them to understand "new" words in the contextual annotations. Once again we emphasize that two factors can be understood important: a) students' gender difference; b) students' English proficiency. Apparently the second factor plays the most important role in it when student participants try to understand both what the teacher says and in what context the teacher says so.

VI. Conclusion

As is indicated in this study, we know that positive and negative politeness strategies are mainly used by college teachers in EFL classrooms, which shows the teacher of this research is highly aware of politeness strategies and enjoys her models of "positive" control over students in order to obtain their approval or favor, or seek their agreement and attend to their interests. Praising and complimenting helps develop students' positive self images. This point is emphasized in the process of teachers' academic instructions and evaluations, which we can see helps bridge the gap between teachers and students, and build a more relaxing and friendly relationship between them.

However, the researcher also finds out that there exists a gap between the teacher's intention and students' expectation in term of politeness strategies. This can be interpreted from two viewpoints of gender differences and different levels of English proficiency.

In addition, by way of individual interviews, the researcher discovers that students' expectation of the teacher's politeness strategies presents similar characteristics as in the results of questionnaires due to two factors of gender differences and different levels of English proficiency.

In general, both teachers and students realize its importance of politeness strategies, and the teacher does apply them to EFL classrooms. Since there is a gap between the teacher's original intention and students' final comprehension, it is significant to increase teachers' and students' politeness awareness and competence in order that the difference is ironed out and EFL teaching benefits teachers as well as students.

Appendix A Survey Questionnaire

调查对象：四川理工学院 2011 级（大一新生）

英语高考分：_____   性别：_____

问卷共两部分

问卷一

以下都是英语老师课堂用语，请您理解后根据 5 个等级判断老师的礼貌用语。

1. Please read carefully and find a similar word for "nasty".
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

2. Now look at the phrase "take a dive".
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

3. Hello? Mr. Zhang. Would you like to share your funny story with us?
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

4. Now it is your show time. Don't be shy.
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

5. I'm afraid it is not a *best* word here.
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

6. Is he *go* to work on time every day?
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

7. It's my fault. I forgot to remind you of it last time.
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

8. Wang Yong, don't talk.
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

9. You are terribly wrong.
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

10. Excellent.
   A. 很有礼貌   B. 有礼貌   C. 基本礼貌   D. 不礼貌   E. 很不礼貌

问卷二

以下是关于老师礼貌策略重要性的认识。您的诚实选择关系到研究结果的准确程度。谢谢！

1. 老师礼貌策略的使用在课堂中很重要。
   A. 完全同意   B. 同意   C. 不知道   D. 不同意   E. 完全不同意

2. 老师礼貌策略的使用能够增强学生学习兴趣。
   A. 完全同意   B. 同意   C. 不知道   D. 不同意   E. 完全不同意

3. 老师礼貌策略的使用能够推进和谐友好师生关系的建立。
   A. 完全同意   B. 同意   C. 不知道   D. 不同意   E. 完全不同意

4. 老师礼貌策略的使用能够帮助学生语言运用能力的提高。
   A. 完全同意   B. 同意   C. 不知道   D. 不同意   E. 完全不同意

APPENDIX B SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

For each part, you are allowed to preview all the five questions in 5 minutes before real interview starts.

Part I Situational questions

The following are four situations in class. What do you expect the teacher to do?

1. Suppose you don't behave appropriately in class, such as talking and dozing off.

   Ask me to answer a question; pay little attention; talk to me privately after class; point it out directly.

2. Suppose you have some difficulty with the study.

   Ask about whether students have problems; wait till students ask for help; encourage students to solve it by themselves; offer to help

3. Suppose you give wrong answers.

   Help to solve it patiently; correct it directly; make positive comments on the correct part of the answer; make negative remarks on the wrong answers first and then correct it.

4. Suppose the teacher has to say something that makes you lose face in class.

   Explain it before or afterwards; apologize to me after that; minimize the threat; be straightforward.

Part II *What do you think?*

Opinions about the teacher who uses politeness strategies.
I admire him/her; It is encouraging; I don't take it seriously; I care more about what to learn
Opinions about the teacher who doesn't use politeness strategies.
I won't like him/her; It is discouraging; I don't take it seriously; I care more about what to learn
Preference to the teacher with(out) politeness strategies
Why
Expectation of the teacher in term of politeness strategies
Use it all the time; Use it sometimes; I don't care
Why
5. Extra Information related to teachers' politeness strategies

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Liu Peng was born in Chongqing on Nov. 22nd, 1976. In July 2001 she graduated from Chongqing Technology and Business University (Chongqing, China) with B.A. degree in English education and teaching. In June 2012 she graduates from University of Electronic Science and Technology of China (Chengdu, China) with M.A. degree in applied linguistics.

She attends various summer training projects every year. Most is about textbook compiling sessions or teaching methodologies with support of modern technologies. In 2011, she published an article related to the current research. Liu Peng (2011). China College English Teaching with the Support of Modern Technologies. *China South-west Technology 8, 80-81.* Besides, politeness theory in China EFL is a major research in her M.D. thesis.

Lingling Cai was born in Nanchong on Nov. 30, 1980. In July 2003 she graduated from China West Normal University (Nanchong, China) with B.A. degree in English education and teaching. From Feb-July 2010, she studied European Integration in Sabanci University (Istanbul, Turkey) as an exchange student in Erasmus Mundus Scholarships (Europe and China). In June 2011 she graduated from Sichuan University with M.A. degree in European Culture. In 2010 she had a relevant article published. Lingling Cai (2010). An Investigation of Qualitative Research: College English Teachers' Tenets and China College English Teaching Reformation. *Journal* of *Sichuan University of Science and Technology 6, 72-73.*

Xianjun Tan was born in Zigong on Dec. 30 1981. In 2004 he graduated from Luzhou Medical College (Luzhou, China) with B.A. degree in Medical English. From Sep. 2007 to July 2008 he studied the Spanish language in Havana University (Havana, Cuba) in a national project "Human Resources Training of West China". In June 2009 he graduated from University of Electronic Science and Technology of China (Chengdu, China) with M.A. degree in applied linguistics. His previous related research is about the M.D. thesis, in which he writes about the comparison of English learning and Spanish learning.

Second Language Acquisition of Progressive Aspect of Stative and Achievement Verbs in English

Mohammad Falhasiri
Department of English Language, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: Falhasiri@yahoo.com

Manijeh Youhanaee
Department of English Language, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: Youhanaee_m@hotmail.com

Hossein Barati
Department of English Language, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: H.barati@gmail.com

Abstract—The progressive aspect in stative verbs, due to their semantic, and in achievement verbs, due to their occurrence at a single moment, is widely recognized as unacceptable and uncommon. This paper reports on the judgment of EFL learners of English as well as native speakers on compatibility of progressive aspect with these two verb categories. To the mentioned aim, 70 EFL learners of English, assigned to four groups of elementary, low intermediate, high intermediate and advanced learners, as well as 10 native speakers were chosen as the participants of the present study. A test of grammatically judgment of progressive form in state and achievement verbs in which the participants were given some sentences containing state and achievement verbs in progressive form along with some fillers was devised and the participants were asked to evaluate if they were grammatically acceptable or not. The results showed that the majority of native speakers judged progressive use in both state and achievement verbs as acceptable while advanced learners, with a wide margin, considered progressive forms unacceptable. When the results of all groups were analyzed, it was concluded that the higher the level of participants was, the more they accepted the progressive form as unacceptable.

Index Terms— state verb, achievement verb, aspect, progressive aspect

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Tense and Aspect

Comrie (1976) differentiates between tense and aspect explaining that "Tense relates the moment of the situation in relation to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking." Three kinds of tense (i.e., past, present and future) are commonly observed in most languages. Aspect, however, is the way events evolve in time i.e., whether or not an event is ongoing or has reached the culminating point (Comrie, 1976; Chung & Timberlake, 1985; Smith, 1991).

Gabriel (2005) states that Zeno Vendler (1967) was the first person who tried to establish four distinct categories of English verbs according to aspectual differences with regard to their restrictions on time adverbials, tenses, and logical entailments (Dowty, 1979). *Situation aspect (aspect in verbs/ verb phrases)* classifies verbs and verb predicates into four classes based on their semantic properties: *states, activities, accomplishments* and *achievements. States* (or *statives*) are homogeneous and static and have no internal structure which changes over time. *Activities* are homogeneous, ongoing, dynamic situations with no inherent goal (i.e., *atelic*). *Accomplishments* involve an activity which progresses towards an inherent culmination point in time, after which the event can no longer continue (i.e., *telic*). *Achievements* have an inherent culmination point, in which the duration of time leading up to this point is instantaneous (i.e., *telic*). Dowty (1979) further defined Vendler's classification and therefore, the classification of verbs is also known as the Vendler-Dowty classification. Each verb class has internal characteristics helping us differentiate verbs and categorize them into different classifications. These internal characteristics are indicated by contrasting features: [+/- static], [+/- telic] and [+/- duration] (Smith, 1991). Table 1 shows the schematized situation types categorized by these three features.

TABLE 1.
FEATURES OF SITUATION TYPES

Situations	Static	Durative	Telic
States	[+]	[+]	n/a
Activities	[-]	[+]	[-]
Accomplishments	[-]	[+]	[+]
Achievements	[-]	[-]	[+]

As can be seen in Table 1, [+/- static] divides situation types into two classes: *states* and *events*. *States* are static and they consist of an undifferentiated moment with no endpoint, whereas *events* are dynamic and involve agency, activity and change (Smith, 1991). [+/- durative] classifies the event types as either durative [+ durative] or instantaneous [-durative]. Since achievements are instantaneous events, they are categorized as [Indurative] whereas the others are classified as [+ durative] (i.e., states, activities and accomplishments).

The feature [+/- telic] is only relevant to events, but not to states, since events have an internal structure which would make a distinction between either telic or atelic (telic events have inherent goals and ending point, whereas atelic events do not). Activities which do not have inherent endpoints are atelic, whereas accomplishments and achievements are telic as they have intrinsic endpoints.

Now consider the examples in (1).

(1) a. Ken is finding an answer.

　b. *Ken is knowing an answer.

These examples show the syntactic difference between the verbs. In particular, the verb in example (1)a. *find* can combine with the progressive form *-ing,* entailing an event in progress, whereas the verb in example (1)b. *know* cannot appear with the progressive form. These examples show that it is not the case that all verbs can be compatible with the progressive marker *-ing.* (These examples are mentioned because this study tries to evaluate students' grasp of this issue). Take examples in number (2) into consideration.

(2) a. A train was arriving at the station.

　b. David was running.

Examples in (2) demonstrate the difference in semantic entailment of the verbs. For example, (2) a. *A train was arriving at the station* does not imply *A train arrived at the station.* However, (2) b *David was running* implies *David ran.* It can be concluded that some verbs show different semantic implication.

According to Smith, there is variation across languages at the levels of grammatical and VP aspect and also in the interaction between the two levels. For example, at the level of VP aspect, a certain verb may be a stative in one language and an activity in another. This is true of the verb that means 'understand' in English and Farsi. *Understand* is classified as a stative in English because it is somewhat awkward in progressive form, but in Farsi the verb *"Fahmidan"* can be used in progressive form.

The Vendler classification, developed further by Dowty (1979), is presented with examples in Table 2. (Modified version of table in Dowty, 1979, p.54).

TABLE 2.
DOWTY'S CLASSIFICATION

States	Activities	Accomplishments	Achievements
Know	Run	paint a picture	recognize (NP)
Believe	Walk	make a chair	find (NP)
Have	Swim	draw a circle	reach (NP)
Love	push a cart	deliver a sermon	Die
Desire	Drive a car	Recover from illness	Spot

Vendler distinguishes the four classes on the basis of two main properties: First he groups state and achievements together because he observed that neither was generally compatible with the progressive (the two categories considered in this study); activities and accomplishments on the other hand are compatible. Rothstein (2004) refers to this property with the features [± stages]. Verkuyl (1993) refers to this property as [± process]. Despite the fact that states and achievements do not have a process component, activities and accomplishments do. This is because states have no internal structure and achievements are said to occur instantaneously (Cited in Gabriel, 2005).

Table.3 taken from Rothstein (2004, p. 12) summarizes some of the main properties that delineate the Vendler verb classes.

TABLE 3.
PROPERTIES OF VERB CLASSES

	[± stages]	[± telic]
States	-	-
Activities	+	-
Accomplishments	+	+
Achievements	-	+

Vendler offers aspectual verb categories according to two kinds of criteria, continuousness and participation of endpoints. The following table shows the summary of Vendler's aspectual verb classification in English. (Vendler 1967; Dowty, 1979, p. 54):

TABLE 4.
VENDLER'S ASPECTUAL VERB CLASSIFICATION (VENDLER, 1967)

	+continuous tenses	- continuous tenses
+ endpoint	Accomplishment	Achievement
- endpoint	Activity	State

According to Vendler, while states correspond to non-continuous tenses without an endpoint, activities associate with continuous tenses without an endpoint. On the other hand, both achievements and accomplishments are associated with an endpoint, but only accomplishments denote continues tenses while achievements do not.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Stative Verbs

The use of stative verbs in progressive forms in English has been commonly recognized as ill formed and almost infrequent (Comrie 1981; Quirk et al., 1972). Progressive statives have been considered as unacceptable due to their semantics and they have been deemed as independent of context (Smiecinska, 2002). Progressive aspect implies a typical durative situation which is expressed as progressing through time with an internal temporal structure (Collins, 2008). Kaietel (1997) suggested that different structures with state verbs can be acceptable as long as context is taken into account. Progressive aspect has traditionally been associated with the semantic of the verb, it expresses a duration which is not common to be used with state verbs in comparison with action verbs. Comrie (1976); Lakoff (1970); Leech (1971) are among those who consider the progressive form unacceptable with state verbs, however they also make lists of exceptions i.e. the statives which can appear in progressive forms. Kakietek (1997) argues that statives are not separate categories with which progressive form is unacceptable rather its use can be justified as acceptable depending on the context.

Smiecinska (2002) reports that Hirtle (1967) differentiated between states and actions claiming that progressive form is only acceptable with action verbs, since their lexical content is open to variation from one moment to another while in states every instant involves the same lexical content (cited in Smiecinska, 2002). Comrie (1976), Joos (1964), Ota (1963), among others also argue that certain lexemes express unlimited duration and are rarely used in the progressive. Hence, Smiecinska (2002) concluded that not only the context but also the semantic content plays an important role in aspectual format. The terms *status* and *stative* are also used to refer to these verbs, the latter being probably the most common term used, among others, in Quirk et al (1972) and Comrie (1976).

In this section, the researchers who believe that statives can occur in progressive form are discussed (Cited in Kakietek, 1997). Scheffer (1975) in a corpus study of contemporary British and American novels found numerous uses of stative verbs in progressive form. Kakietek (1997) drew a similar conclusion mentioning the increasing use of the progressive, with verbs traditionally labeled as stative. He reported that stative verbs are not of a separate syntactic category. He also stated that "the overwhelming majority of statives when used under appropriate circumstances are quite free to take the progressive form and cannot be viewed as constituting a separate syntactic category". Debopam Das (2010) investigated the uses and distribution of non-progressive verbs in progressive forms in an electronic corpus (COCA). He considered the occurrence of non-progressive verbs in progressive aspect against a number of factors such as tense, VP structure, polarity, contraction type and genres. The basic observation of the study is that the conventionally recognized non-progressive verbs are not at all forbidden to occur in progressive form or that they are rather very frequent in that particular aspectual usage is in contradiction with the notions adopted by traditional grammarians. The findings were more in line with others' such as Kakietek (1997) and Smiecinska (2002). Smiecinska (2002) conducted a survey on the acceptability of progressive form in stative verbs. He examined the lists of stative verbs from Scheffer (1975), and chose 30 verbs assumed to be statives by the majority of the authors quoted by Scheffer. Based on the frequency of usage, the number was narrowed down to 14 which were used in the progressive form in a context generally assumed to be characteristic of process or dynamic verbs. He concluded that stative verbs occur in the progressive in various corpora and everyday speech does not seem sufficient to postulate a fully contextual analysis of these verbs in present day American English.

Many speakers, on the other hand, find the relevant constructions rather awkward. Thus, contrary to Kakietek's postulations, no matter how convincing a context one invents, for many native speakers the kind of the verbs used, or actually its meaning, still imposes the form of the grammatical construction in which it appears. Comrie (1976) stated that "stative verbs do not have progressive forms since this would involve an internal contradiction between the stativity of the verb and the nonstativity essential to the progressive". This idea is emphasized in Lakoff's (1970) verb typology where the semantically stative verbs are considered to be also syntactically stative (nonactive). He assumed that stative verbs should be marked as +stative as opposed to process verbs which are −stative. Thus, the ungrammaticality of sentences such as *He is knowing the answer* can be ascribed to the fact that a +stative verb is used in a −stative context.

Debopam (2010) mentioned some authors, like Hirtle (1967), Quirk et al. (1972) or Vendler (1968) who speak of stative and dynamic uses of certain verbs, rather than of stative and dynamic verbs. They claimed that any verb can have a stative or dynamic use, depending on the context and in principle there would not be a justification for distinguishing a separate class of stative verbs. Leech et al (2002) define non-progressive verbs as verbs referring to the states or actions other than something in progressive. They divide these verbs into the following four categories: (the following categories are adapted from Debopam Das, 2010).

1. Verbs of perceiving

Verbs such as *feel, hear, see, smell, taste* etc. constitute some members of this category since they show a physical perception. Palmer (1988) defines these verbs as "private verbs" as the speaker is the only one who is able to sense them.

2. Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling

These verbs denote emotions, attitudes and intellectual states. Verbs such as *believe, adore, desire, detest, dislike, doubt, forget, hate, imagine, know, like, love, mean, prefer, remember, suppose, understand, want, wish* etc. fall under this category.

3. Verbs referring to a relationship or a state of being

These verbs refer to relationships between entities (such as *belong to, concern, consist, include, involve, own, possess, represent, resemble* etc.) and relationships between entities and descriptions (such as *be, seem, appear* etc.).

4. Verbs referring to internal sensations

Leech et al., (2002) consider these verbs to be least non-progressive, as in most cases the progressive forms are completely interchangeable with their simple counterparts. Verbs such as *ache, feel, itch, hurt* etc. fall under this category.

Debopam (2010) in his study considered the relative frequency of each verb types in progressive form: Group 2 > Group 1 > Group 4 > Group 3. In other words, the *verbs of state of mind or feeling* are the most frequently occurring category followed by the *verbs of perceiving* while the least occurring verbs are of *relationship or state of being*. However, the fact that *verbs of internal sensations* are not that frequent in progressive aspect (they stand in third position in order) contradicts Leech et al., (2002) assumption that they are the least non progressive among all categories.

B. Achievement Verbs and Telicity/Duration Tests

Achievement verbs are defined as a category which expresses an occurrence at a dingle moment. Yasuko (2005) proposed a revision of achievement verbs categories done by Dowty (1979).

A. Cognition (realized as transitive verbs): *detect, find, discover, notice, perceive, recognize, spot, witness*

B. Acquisition and Loss (realized as transitive verbs): *acquire, get, lose, win*

C. Arrival and Departure (realized as transitive/intransitive verbs): *arrive, land, reach, leave, depart*

D. Emergence, Appearance and Disappearance (realized as intransitive verbs): *happen, occur, appear, die*

E. Change of quantity (realized as intransitive verbs): *increase, decrease, ascend, descend, rise, sink, fall, drop*

F. Change of State (Bounded states) (realized as intransitive verbs): *break, shatter, split, explode, collapse,*

G. Change of State (Unbounded states) (realized as intransitive verbs): *cool, warm, narrow, slim, slow, thin*

The progressive uses of achievement verbs and minor differences in meaning brought about by the verb-type of achievement were discussed by Yasuko, a summary of which is proposed here.

Yasuko (2005) mentioned examples from Kearns (1991) saying that achievement verbs are generally inconsistent with the progressive as shown in (3).

(3) a. *John is noticing the hole in the floor.
    b. *She is recognising the one with the moustache.
    c. *He's spotting the car. (Kearns 1991, p.p. 166-167)

The reason for this inconsistency is the incompatibility of achievement verbs with the duration that the progressive requires. The progressive is possible, however, for some achievement verbs as follow:

(4) a. The train is arriving at platform.
    b. The queen was dying. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 209)
    c. Jane is just reaching the summit. (Rothstein 2004, p. 43)

Progressive achievements as shown in (4) represent 'fortunate (Dowty 1979) and require what Caudal and Roussarie (2000, p. 362) call "prospective reading" i.e. the progressive is possible where the utterance is close to the goal point and the realization of the attainment is anticipatory enough. In the examples of (4a-c), the arrival of the train, the queen's death, and Jane's reaching of the summit, respectively, must be expected as a plausible event in an immediate future.

Yasuko discussed in detail whether each of the subcategories of achievement verbs is compatible with progressive form or not.

She stated that Group (A) Cognition and (B) acquisition/loss verbs resist the progressive because the punctual event expressed by the verb does not coincide with the duration that the progressive presupposes.

(5) a. *John is noticing the hole in the floor.

The progressives of *win, find, die, (group C)* and arrival/departure verbs are possible only when the subject almost reaches the final goal and is about to reach the ending point

(6) a. Flight 246 is now arriving at Gate 20.

If the context is in violation of this 'prospective reading' (cf. Caudal and Roussarie 2000, p. 362), the progressive is unacceptable.

(7) a. *Mary was reaching the top of the mountain when she had to take refuge from an avalanche. So she didn't make it that time. (cf. Rothstein 2004: 56)

(7a) is unacceptable because the subject, *Mary,* actually didn't attain the goal (Vlach 1981, p. 280).

Group (D) and (F)

Emergence (D) and appearance/disappearance verbs (F) naturally occur in the progressive.

(8) a. What's happening?

Group (E) and (G) telic and atelic

The verbs in Group (E) and (G) have no problem with the occurrence in the progressive.

(9) a. The inflation is rising rapidly. *(COB)*

(10) a. His body chilled to the bone was gradually warming as he took a rest beside the fire.

III. Purpose and Research Question

In this study, the L2 learners' of English as well as native speakers' judgment on achievement and state verbs are investigated. Students are assessed if they have acquired the fact that these categories are not used in durative forms in certain contexts. (Activities and accomplishment are excluded because there is not much difference with regard to aspect between English and Persian).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study is an attempt to answer the following questions and null hypotheses:

1. How well do Persian learners of English acquire aspect in state verbs comparing with English native speakers?

2. How well do Persian learners of English acquire aspect in achievement verbs comparing with English native speakers?

Based on these research questions, the following hypotheses were form:

H1. Persian learners of English do not acquire aspect in achievement verbs to native level.

H2. Persian learners of English do not acquire aspect in state verbs to native level.

Despite the fact that linguistically speaking state and achievement verbs are considered as incompatible with progressive form, many verbs from this category can be seen in progressive form. Therefore, this study reports on the judgment of both native English speakers and EFL learners of English.

The finding of this study can boost our understanding of different stages of acquisition of aspect (where differences exists between Persian and English), and whether advanced learners' judgment is close to that of the native speakers. Investigation into how interlanguage develops and what factors contribute to the learners' language progress is needed for a comprehensive understanding of the mechanism of L2 acquisition (Carroll, 1999 a. b; Gregg, 1996; Klein & Martohardjono, 1999).

IV. Method

A. Participants

The population from which the participants were selected included the students of Iran Language Institute (Isfahan branch) who had enrolled in English classes in winter semester in 2011. The ILI courses are composed of 18 levels which are made of six main proficiency levels i.e. basic, elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper intermediate, and advanced. There are three separate levels in each one of the main proficiency levels which make a total of 18 levels. Levels, 6, 12, 18 i.e. Elementary 3, Intermediate 3, and advanced 3 respectively were chosen for the placement test. The rationale behind choosing elementary 3 as the initial level for the prospective participants was a pilot study and OPT (Oxford Placement Test) which was administered a month before the study. Participants were told that the results of the study are for educational purposes and were asked to write their names so that they would take the tests seriously. The test was taken in the presence of the researcher and the class teacher. Participants were both male and female whose ages ranged from 15 to 25. Even though the students were studying in the levels titled elementary, intermediate, and advanced, to confirm the homogeneity and to determine the proficiency level, an OPT (Oxford Placement Test) had been administered before the study was carried out. Out of a 120 student population, 100 were chosen for the study and this number was later narrowed down to 80, by excluding the ones who filled the questionnaires carelessly or not completely. The careless test takers were identified by insertion of a repeated item or the ones who had not answered the tests completely.

Having administered the OPT, the researcher divided the participant into three proficiency groups: elementary (N=20) those who scored (18-29), lower intermediate (N=20) OPT scores of (30-39), upper intermediate (N=20) OPT range scores of (40-47) and advanced (N=10) within 55-60. The advanced learners were English language teachers who held

Master's degree in TEFL. All of the students took the questionnaires regardless of the OPT results; nevertheless, papers of heterogeneous ones were discarded and not included in the study.

Ten English native speakers living in London, age ranges of 21-30, working at Accura Partners LLP, and who held Bachelor's Degree were asked to participate in this study.

B. Material

Eight stative verbs including: like, think, know, understand, hate, believe, cost, doubt were chosen for the purposes of this study. The verb "understand" was repeated in a different context, to check the testing effect. Smiecinska (2003) examined the list of stative verbs from Scheffer (1975) and chose a sample of around thirty verbs assumed to be statives by majority of authors. Smiecinska further narrowed it down to the total of 14 verbs, based on their frequency in Brown Corpus and Collins Cobuild Corpus of spoken English. Eight out of these 14 verbs which were determined as unacceptable in progressive form by more than 50 percent of the 30 native speakers in Smiecinska's study were chosen for this study. Each verb was used in a sentence with a context generally assumed to be characteristic of dynamic or process verbs. All of the verbs were used in progressive form and the participants were asked to determine whether the sentences were grammatically correct or not. Provided that they found it incorrect, they were asked to modify the sentence in a way that is sounded grammatically acceptable. The sentences were devised in a way that the literal translation in Persian would lead to an acceptable sentence.

This test not only included stative verbs in progressive form but also ten achievement verbs including: discover, recognize, find, win, reach, achieve, notice, spot, arrive and lose. Yasuko (2005) revised the categories of achievement verbs made by Dowty (1979) and introduced six categories which were introduced in the review of literature. These verbs are thought to express an occurrence at a single moment and it is widely accepted in the literature that achievement verbs express punctual events i.e. an event that occurs at a single moment, as so incompatible with progressive form (smith, 1991; Tenny, 1992; Beavers, 2002) and are characterized as the featural opposition [+telic, -stage] in Rothstein (2004). Yasuko stated that among the six categories, two i.e. cognition and acquisition/loss verbs resist progressive and that is because of the fact that the punctual event expressed by these verbs does not coincide with duration that the progressive presupposes. She argued that arrival/departure verbs are possible only when the subject almost reaches the final goal of the act and the attainment of the act can be anticipatory enough in the situation and if the context is in violation of this "prospective reading" (cf Caudal & Roussarie, 2000), the progressive is unacceptable, as so, the arrival verbs used in the questionnaire cannot be used in progressive form due to the fact that the context is devised in a form that the prospective reading is violated. Consequently all the contexts in this questionnaire are devised in a way that the prospective reading (Yasuko, 2005) is violated and based on the study done by Rothstein (2004) and Vlach (1981) can be considered as ungrammatical. All the progressive forms which were anticipated to be unacceptable by native speaker, if literally translated into Persian, were grammatically correct. The questionnaire also included 9 fillers or distracters, Sentences 2, 5, 7, 10, 14, 17, 21, 24, 27. Sentences 2, 7, 20 and 21 all displayed a misuse of preposition. Sentences 5 and 14 involved misuse of the adverb "gradually". Sentence 17 included the structure "rather that" instead of "rather than" and in sentence 27 double negation occurred. The participants were asked to circle (√) if they felt the sentence is grammatically acceptable and (*) if they thought of the sentence as grammatically incorrect and (?) in case they were not sure whether the sentence sounded correct or not. For all the unacceptable sentences, they were asked to underline the erroneous part and write the correct form. All the instructions were given in participants' native language and they were provided with an example. The example and instruction were read by the researcher and if the students had any problems considering the questionnaire they were allowed to ask.

C. Procedure

The grammaticality judgment of stative and achievement verbs was made of 29 items, fillers included. The participants had almost 30 seconds for each item which enabled them to read the item at least 4 times. This time was calculated after asking ten elementary students to read the item aloud, slow enough to understand the meaning. This part took a total of 15 minutes. The participants were not allowed to go back through the questions and each page of the questionnaire included on question so that the participants could not compare and change their answers.

D. Data Analyses

All of the questionnaires were graded by the researcher and an assistant. Each item was either grated as correct that is 1 and incorrect i.e. 0.

To address the research questions, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) Version 16.0 was used to perform all the statistical analyses in this study.

A number of statistical analyses were conducted; firstly, the mean score of each level in each test was calculated. Then, ANOVA was run on each dependant variable to see whether there were any statistically significant differences across the groups. Lastly, Pos hoc scheffe was carried out to locate the significant factor.

V. Results

A. State and Achievement Verbs

This sections deals with results from all of the five groups on their judgment of progressive aspect on achievement as well stative verbs. The mean scores of each group's performance on these two kinds of verbs are compared in Fig. 1. In all groups, the participants performed superior on state verbs comparing with achievement verbs.
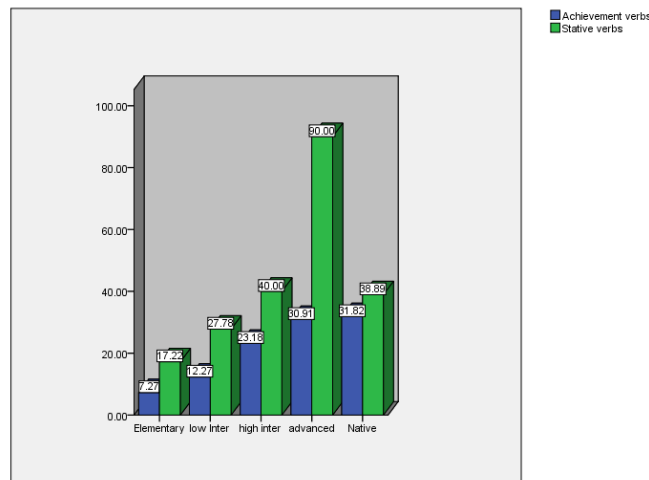

Fig. 1. Mean scores of different groups on stative and achievement verbs

The mean score on stative verbs gradually increased from elementary to high intermediate; nevertheless, there is a dramatic increase in advanced level with a mean score of 90 percent which is 50 percent higher that high intermediate level. What makes the result very interesting is the fact that native speakers did not perform even as well as high intermediate participants, though the numerical difference is marginal and not significant. In achievement verbs, the increase is gradual, that is, the higher the level of the participants is, the higher the mean score on the test is.

ANOVA results in Table 5. proves the fact that the differences in performance of the groups is significant for both state (F=7.152, P=.000) and achievement verbs (F=16.219, P=.000).

TABLE 5.
ANNOVA RESULTS FOR STATIVE AND ACHIEVEMENT VERBS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Grammaticaly judgment achievement verbs	Between Groups	7048.554	4	1762.138	7.152	.000
	Within Groups	18479.339	75	246.391		
	Total	25527.893	79			
Grammaticaly judgment Stative verbs	Between Groups	37819.444	4	9454.861	16.219	.000
	Within Groups	43722.222	75	582.963		
	Total	81541.667	79			

Post hoc was run (Table 6) to locate the differences between the different levels.

TABLE 6.
POST HOC RESULTS FOR STATE AND ACHIEVEMENT VERBS

Dependent Variable	(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Grammaticaly judgment achievement verbs	Elementary	low Inter	-5.00000	4.96378	.907	-20.6770	10.6770
		high inter	-15.90909*	4.96378	.045	-31.5861	-.2320
		advanced	-23.63636*	6.07936	.007	-42.8367	-4.4360
		Native	-24.54545*	6.07936	.005	-43.7458	-5.3451
	low Inter	Elementary	5.00000	4.96378	.907	-10.6770	20.6770
		high inter	-10.90909	4.96378	.315	-26.5861	4.7680
		advanced	-18.63636	6.07936	.062	-37.8367	.5640
		Native	-19.54545*	6.07936	.044	-38.7458	-.3451
	high inter	Elementary	15.90909*	4.96378	.045	.2320	31.5861
		low Inter	10.90909	4.96378	.315	-4.7680	26.5861
		advanced	-7.72727	6.07936	.805	-26.9277	11.4731
		Native	-8.63636	6.07936	.732	-27.8367	10.5640
	Advanced	Elementary	23.63636*	6.07936	.007	4.4360	42.8367
		low Inter	18.63636	6.07936	.062	-.5640	37.8367
		high inter	7.72727	6.07936	.805	-11.4731	26.9277
		Native	-.90909	7.01985	1.000	-23.0798	21.2616
	Native	Elementary	24.54545*	6.07936	.005	5.3451	43.7458
		low Inter	19.54545*	6.07936	.044	.3451	38.7458
		high inter	8.63636	6.07936	.732	-10.5640	27.8367
		advanced	.90909	7.01985	1.000	-21.2616	23.0798
Grammaticaly judgment Stative verbs	Elementary	low Inter	-10.55556	7.63520	.752	-34.6697	13.5586
		high inter	-22.77778	7.63520	.074	-46.8919	1.3364
		advanced	-72.77778*	9.35117	.000	-102.3115	-43.2441
		Native	-21.66667	9.35117	.262	-51.2004	7.8670
	low Inter	Elementary	10.55556	7.63520	.752	-13.5586	34.6697
		high inter	-12.22222	7.63520	.635	-36.3364	11.8919
		advanced	-62.22222*	9.35117	.000	-91.7559	-32.6885
		Native	-11.11111	9.35117	.841	-40.6448	18.4226
	high inter	Elementary	22.77778	7.63520	.074	-1.3364	46.8919
		low Inter	12.22222	7.63520	.635	-11.8919	36.3364
		advanced	-50.00000*	9.35117	.000	-79.5337	-20.4663
		Native	1.11111	9.35117	1.000	-28.4226	30.6448
	advanced	Elementary	72.77778*	9.35117	.000	43.2441	102.3115
		low Inter	62.22222*	9.35117	.000	32.6885	91.7559
		high inter	50.00000*	9.35117	.000	20.4663	79.5337
		Native	51.11111*	10.79780	.001	17.0085	85.2137
	Native	Elementary	21.66667	9.35117	.262	-7.8670	51.2004
		low Inter	11.11111	9.35117	.841	-18.4226	40.6448
		high inter	-1.11111	9.35117	1.000	-30.6448	28.4226
		advanced	-51.11111*	10.79780	.001	-85.2137	-17.0085

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

The results of post hoc revealed that with regards to achievement verbs there were significant differences between elementary with high-intermediate, advanced and native speakers and the low-intermediate participants differed significantly with native speakers only.

In state verbs, advanced participants differed significantly with all groups, native speakers included. The reason can be contributed to fact that advanced learners of English are exposed to explicit rules of prescriptive grammar. In different grammar books, they have studied state verbs (comparing with action verbs) are not used in progressive form while native speaker use their intuition to mark the progressive form of stative verbs as either acceptable or

unacceptable. Accordingly both hypotheses are rejected since Iranian learners of English acquire the aspect in achievement and stative verbs.

What follows are two figures representing the participants' performance on each verb of stative and achievement category. As can be seen, some verbs are not accepted as acceptable in progressive form more than the others.
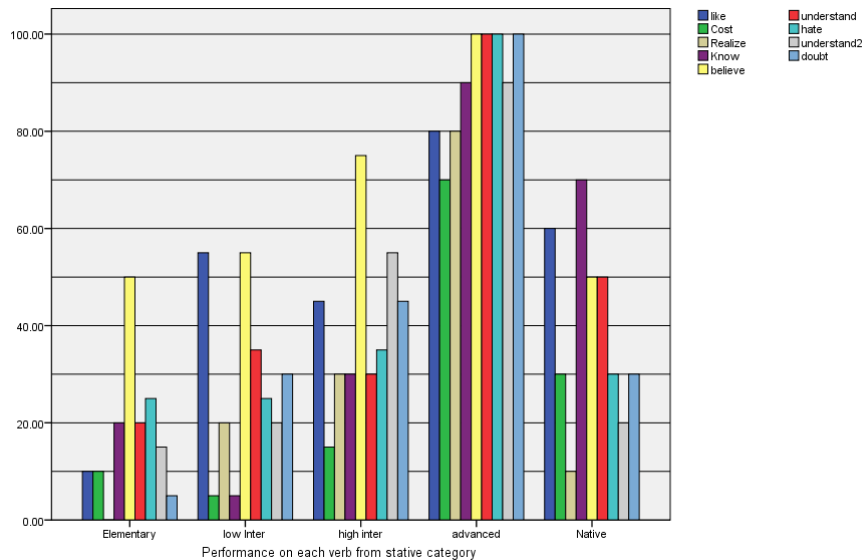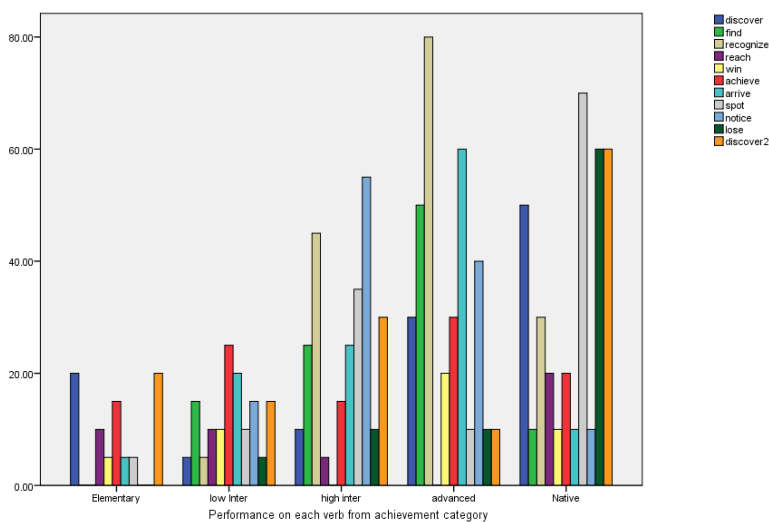

Fig, 2, Mean scores on each verb of stative verbs

Fig. 3, Mean scores on each verb of achievement verbs

B. Summary of the Results

The results for stative verbs was unpredictable since advanced participants considered progressive forms unacceptable with a high margin comparing with even native speakers, showing the fact that they follow the rules in prescriptive grammar which states that stative verbs cannot be used in progressive form. While native speakers considered the usages in most cases acceptable. As so, hypotheses 1, was rejected; Persian learners of English have acquired the aspect in stative verbs.

The results of achievement verbs showed that in all groups, even native speakers, the majority did not consider progressive use of achievement verbs as unacceptable. However the numerical differences between native and advanced participant was marginal which led to the rejection of the second hypotheses and proving the fact that the advanced participant can perform as accurately as the native speakers do.

VI. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Progressive Forms in Stative Verbs

The first research question dealt with the fact if native and non native learners of English consider progressive form in stative and achievement verbs as acceptable or not. Very interesting results were found; more advanced learners considered progressive use in stative verbs unacceptable than the native speakers did. In fact the difference was significant. To account for this finding, first some points on the use of progressive form in stative verbs should be discussed. As mentioned, the use of stative verbs in progressive forms in English has been commonly recognized as exceptional and rather infrequent (Comrie 1976, 1981; Quirk et al.1972; Lakoff 1970; Leech 1971). Progressive statives have been considered as unacceptable due to their semantics and they have been deemed as independent of context (Smecink 2002; Collins, 2008). Comrie (1973), Joos (1964), Ota (1963), among others argued that certain lexemes express unlimited duration and are hardly ever used in the progressive. Comrie (1976) stated that "stative verbs do not have progressive forms since this would involve an internal contradiction between the stativity of the verb and the non-stativity essential to the progressive". This idea is emphasized in Lakoff" s (1970) verb typology where the semantically stative verbs are considered to be also syntactically stative (nonactive). He assumed that stative verbs should be marked as +stative as opposed to process verbs which are −stative. Thus, the ungrammaticality of sentences such as *He is knowing the answer* can be ascribed to the fact that a +stative verb is used in a −stative context. Considering claims made by the aforementioned researchers, the test was designed. The results revealed that the advanced learners considered the progressive usage as unacceptable. The reason why advanced and high intermediate groups considered the progressive usage as ungrammatical resorts from the fact that they study the prescriptive grammar which explicitly dictates some forms of usage. Most popular grammar books, the ILI text book included, reject the progressive usage of state verbs. Consequently, due to studying the rules for usage, advanced learners find these examples erroneous. Nevertheless, the native speakers resort to their intuition of their native language to judge the sentences as either grammatical or ungrammatical.

On the other hand, in the literature, it is found that statives, in certain contexts, can occur in progressive form (Kakietek 1997; Smiecinska (2003) Scheffer (1975 Debopam Das (2009). Scheffer (1975) in a corpus study of contemporary British and American novels found uses of stative verbs in progressive form. Kakietek (1997) drew a similar conclusion mentioning the increasing use of the progressive, with verbs traditionally labeled as stative. He showed that stative verbs do not constitute a separate syntactic category suggesting that different structure with stative verbs are acceptable as long as context is taken into consideration. Debopam Das (2010) investigating the uses and distribution of non-progressive verbs in progressive forms in an electronic corpus (COCA) found that the conventionally recognized non-progressive verbs are not at all forbidden to occur in progressive form or that they are rather very frequent in that particular aspectual usage is in contradiction with the notions adopted by traditional grammarians. The results of this study are in line with the studies mentioned in this part i.e. despite the fact that all the verbs and context were devised in a form that the progressive of which was considered as unacceptable by the opponents of this usage (Comrie 1976, 1981; Quirk et al.1972; Lakoff 1970; Leech 1971) the native speakers showed a different picture. To put it in other words, they considered most of the usages as acceptable.

B. Progressive Forms in Achievement Verbs

It is generally assumed that achievement verbs are inconsistent with the progressive (Kearns 1991: 166-167). The traditional account for this phenomenon is that the punctuality of achievement verbs is incompatible with the duration that the progressive requires. The progressive is possible, however, for some achievement verbs (Quirk et al. 1985), (Rothstein 2004). As mentioned, some sub categories of achievement verb resist progressive form regardless of the context in which they are used.

As for the present study, almost 70% of participants in all groups considered the progressive form of achievement verbs acceptable, while only 10% of advanced learners marked continuous stative verbs as compatible. The explanation for this difference can be sought in the learners L1. In Farsi, the progressive form sound rather natural and the only factor making advanced learners mark progressive stative verbs as ill formed is the grammatical rules they have studied. However, when it comes to achievement verbs, since they are not as explicitly rejected with progressive forms as stative verbs are in different grammar books, they resort to their L1, hence, it sound rather natural to them.

C. Conclusion

Based on the results reported and the discussion conducted in the previous sections, several conclusions can be drawn.

First of all, the results for stative verbs revealed that, surprisingly, more advanced participants considered progressive forms unacceptable comparing with even native speakers, showing the fact that they follow the rules in prescriptive grammar which states that stative verbs cannot be used in progressive form, while native speakers considered the usages in most cases acceptable.

Secondly, in all groups, even native speakers, the majority did not consider progressive use of achievement verbs as unacceptable and numerically, the difference between native and advanced participant was not marginal, proving the fact that the advanced participant performed closely to the native speakers. In Farsi, the progressive use in achievement verbs and state verbs is rather acceptable and natural. Most English grammar books reject this usage with state verbs and not achievement verbs, thus, when it comes to state verbs, the learners report that progressive usage is ill formed. For achievement verbs, however, since they do not study any explicit rules, they resort to their L1 and since in Farsi it is acceptable, the majority marks them as acceptable.

D. Implications of the Study

With regards to aspect in state and achievement verbs, the teachers need to be more cautious when claiming that these verbs cannot be used in progressive form, a fact that is mentioned in many grammar books they study or teach. Being a verb of these categories does not necessarily mean that they cannot be used in progressive form, even if they are linguistically deemed as incorrect. As was shown in the present study, the native speakers considered many of the progressive usage acceptable, especially in achievement verbs.

Material developers, especially those writing grammar books, are expected to consider the fact that the native speakers do accept the progressive form in achievement and stative verbs and they cannot strongly prescribe that the usage is unacceptable because the only trustworthy materials for learners as well as teachers in foreign language context are the grammar books. As seen in the present study, more advanced non native speakers of English considered the usage as ungrammatical comparing with the native speakers of English proving the fact that they are influenced by the prescriptive grammar. This claim is made since if the advanced participants had resorted to their L1, they would have marked the usage as acceptable, as it is the case in Farsi.

E. Limitations of the Study

This study faced a number of limitations which will be discussed briefly.

Firstly, there was no access to a sufficient number of native speakers of English. Having sought many native speakers cooperation, no more than 10 native speakers answered the questionnaires which are not enough for a comprehensive conclusion to be drawn.

Secondly, to count for the problem of careless answering, the researcher conducted two measures. First, one of the questions in the questionnaire was exactly repeated after almost 20 items to detect the careless and unwilling participants. Another thing was to ask participant to correct the parts that they had marked as incorrect. The papers which had a problem in any of these two aspects were drop out of the study. Despite these measures, some errors might have crawled because the participants might have answered some of them carelessly.

The third issue is the matter of learning or test effect that might have occurred. Because of the number of questions, the participants might have gotten cognizant of the issue tested and changed their answers after recognizing one of the items. To counter this problem, each question was in one page of a pamphlet and the participants were not allowed to change their answers once they moved to next page or to go through the previous pages. If the researcher had access to OHP it might have been more accurate.

Fourthly, the number of participants in advanced level was not enough, that is because of the fact that the advanced participants were chosen among a population who were graduate students of English and had scored 50 and above on OPT, as so, no more than 10 participants were legitimate for this study.

F. Suggestions for Further Research

Having conducted this study in the area of second language acquisition, the researcher discovered some potential avenues for further research:

1. Using a variety of verbs from state and achievement category in different contexts with a large population of participants will enrich our understanding of the natives' intuition on the use of progressive form with the mentioned types of verb.

2. Increasing the numbers of native speakers and choosing from educated and less educated people both in England and America or other English speaking countries can help the researchers draw a comprehensive conclusion. A corpus study can be of value if a large number of verbs from the same category are examined.

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Mohammad Falhasiri was born in Kuwait in 1985. He received his Bachelor's degree in English Language Translation from Shiraz Azad University in Iran and did his M.A in TEFL at University of Isfahan in the same country.

He has 6 years of experience as English teacher in different Language Institutes and is an IELTS/TOEFL instructor at Isfahan University. For the last 3 years, he has also been a teacher trainer. He has published a number of articles and has two books in press and has also presented some papers in both local and international conferences.

Manijeh Youhanaee holds a PhD in language and linguistics from the University of Essex. She has co-authored with Badrizadeh "A Descriptive Dictionary of Theories of Generative Grammar". She has published a number of articles on the teaching/ acquisition of different English syntactic properties by native speakers of Persian. She teaches MA and PhD courses in linguistics, generative grammar, TEFL and SLA. Her areas of interest include syntactic theory, acquisition of L2 & L3 syntax and issues in teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language.

Hossein Barati works in the English department, University of Isfahan, where he is assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics. He has a PhD in Language Testing from University of Bristol, England and has been involved in research in language testing, program evaluation, reading strategies, and classroom discourse. He has published in areas of language testing and assessment, and language program evaluation. He is a member of a research project on *Developing a new model of teaching to adult English non-majors at University of Isfahan*, funded by University of Isfahan.

He has also co-authored some publications on DIF in Iranian National University Entrance Exam (INUEE), 2007; Linguistic constraints and language teaching, 2008; and Cultural differences in EFL performance on cloze tests, 2010. Further a text-book "*A step forward in English for intermediate EFL learners*" is among his latest publications.

He is currently working on "*New plans for Teaching English to Iranian adult non-majors*", "*Teaching English to Iranian young learners*" and "*The consequential validity of high stakes tests in the Iranian context*".

Investigating the Rate of Quran Reciting by Persian Language and Literature Students in Comparison with Students of Other Fields and Its Effect on Depression, Anxiety and Stress

Shokrollah Pouralkhas
Department of Literature and Humanistic Sciences, University of Mohaghegh Ardabili, Iran
Email: Pouralkhas2011@yahoo.com

Soran Rajabi
Department of Literature and Humanistic Sciences, University of Mohaghegh Ardabili, Iran
Email: soranrajabi@gmail.com

Ahad Pishgar
Department of Literature and Humanistic Sciences, University of Mohaghegh Ardabili, Iran
Email: A.pishgar@live.com

Abstract—**This study aims to examine the rate of Quran reciting by Persian Literature students in comparison with students of other fields and its effect on depression, anxiety and stress. This study has been done over Mohagheghe Ardabili Students in the first semester of 2010. Three hundred and ninety-one students-male, (age: 20.32 ± 2.12 years) were chose by multistage (random) sampling Instruments which have been used in this study are researcher – made questionnaires and a questionnaire of depression, anxiety and stress. Analyses of result by indicate that there is a meaningful difference among students of different fields in reciting Quran. The findings also show that there is a meaningful difference among students who recite Quran and who do not in depression, anxiety and stress. This study depicts that Persian Literature student's recite Quran more than other field's students and those students have less depression, anxiety and stress.**

Index Terms—**mental health, Quran, Persian language and literature**

I. INTRODUCTION

From the psychologists view, mental easiness and sense of satisfaction of life are characteristics of healthy people. Investigating feeling and inside of a faithful person show that He is replete with morality and virtue (Mottahari, 1993). Quran verses also confirm it. For example, in Thunder chapter of Quran, the 28th verse, it is said that "the ones who believe and whose hearts feel tranquil through remembering God surely hearts feel tranquil whenever God is mentioned". So, Islam religion which completes all religions is based on two points: upbringing and morality. On the other hand, Quran, a miracle of Islam religion, emphasizes these two principles which have different issues (Bakhshi, 2002).

Quran is our religious book; its concepts had affected our life during fourteen centuries overtly or covertly. For instance, we can see Quran effects in the poems and writings. "Effects of Quran on writers and poets date back to the third century and it can be seen greatly in seventh and eighth especially in Molana's Mathnavi" (Rastgou, 2008, p.4).

Iranian's honorable treasures are poems of poets and texts of writers and teachers and thoughts of philosophers and spoke men who were Muslim, whose verses and phrases refer to symbols, quotations, warranties, interpretations, stories and allegories from Quran. For example, a person who studies works or Rudaki, Molave, Hafez, Attar, Nasro-Allah Monshi and the others cannot understand unless he knows Quran interpretation. All these writers and poets said that "all they have are because of Quran" and study Quran "in fourteen narratives" and nothing "except Quran won't help them". For this reason, intentionally or unintentionally, their sayings have a word, phrase, verse and quotation from Quran (Halabi, 2007, p.12).

Effect of Quran on Persian Literature is obvious. But the questions which arise are that this valuable treasure can effect on students of Persian Literature and lead them toward Quran reading and interpretation?

The next issue of the present study is effect of Quran on its followers and friends. The complexity of present era lead the people toward impotency and this feature is obvious in those university students who are in their late teens and early youth and recently entered the university because of change in their life; they are under pressure of depression, anxiety and stress (Ross, 2010).

Different attempts have been done to prevent or decrease life pressure and people and researchers through frameworks. So religion and belief are of high importance and are used as supernatural power among religious followers and leaders.

Recently, politics and WHO strategies organizers have make use of religious beliefs (Maltby & Day, 2009). As, one of the ways of increasing mental health and decreasing depression, anxiety and stress among the university students is religion and belief (Francis & et al, 2004).

But among the religions, Islam, which is the last and complement of all the others; give the comprehensive framework for wale fare and tranquility.

As, Mohammad prophet introduced Quran as God's words and Islam miracle. Psychologists of Egbal Lahoori University of Pakistan (1985, as cited in Maltby & Day, 2009) Showed that treating depression through praying to God and reading Quran versus in 78 percent of treatment group was effective and the Comparison group which stay late at high to pray to God shows only 15 percent improvements of depression. Boalhry and Ferrand (1995) in the research with the name of Quran and the ways of preventing mental pressures came to the conclusion that Quran introduces some ways to prevents mental pressures. Those ways are praying to God, patience, repent, talking to God, thinking about those things which are ever ending and getting away from permanent things. Hassanpour and Loya (1997) indicated that teen's high school students who recite Quran regularly have less depression, anxiety and stress than the other Comparison groups who do not recite Quran regularly. Jafari and Moosavi (1997) showed that hawing insisted read Quran regularly; female University students have a few degree of stress. Understanding concepts of Quran decrees degree of stress. Galedar and Saki (2001) showed in their study that those who listen to Quran at the time of Azan, they have a few degree of stress than their contrast groups who do not listen to Quran. Gazarpour and Najafi (2004) depicted that 65 variables with the name of prohibition variables (such as being kindness, patient, devote and so on) and 65 variables with the name of moderator variables (such as being betrayer and so on) are mentioned in Quran. Iahammiri, Hajipooran and Hashemzadeh (2010) showed in their studies that there was a significant difference between treatment and control groups in the degree of depression. But there was no significant difference between the groups who read Quran and who memorize Quran in the degree of depression. Also it is concluded that those who read Quran or memorize it have fewer degree of depression.

Based on the review of literature, it can be said that there have been fewer studies about Quran and degree of depression, anxiety and stress. This study aims to study and answer the question that whether the students of Persian literature who recite Quran have fewer degrees of depression, anxiety and stress or not?

II. METHOD

Method of investigating in the present study is measurable and sectional. Sample of this study are boys and girls who are studying in Bachelor science of different fields of academic year of 2010.

Sampling are multistage, Cohen and associates (2001) said that this kind of sampling is a kind of cluster sampling, in which the researcher can choose the sample any time during research from cluster or representative sample whenever need. On the other hand, in cluster sampling, purpose is changing in every stage of sampling and it is possible to choose samples based on geographical, economical and political factors. So, representative sample of this study is the result of a two – stage samplings:

1) Choosing one field of study randomly in each college.

2) Choosing 400 boys and girls randomly who were freshmen, sophomore, junior and senior 190 (48/6) were girls and 201 (51/4) were boys.

Totally, 391 university students take park in this study. Their ranges of age were 18-27 and mean were 22/11 and variances were 1/14. 118 (30/2) students were studying in science college. 106 (27/1) in Agriculture college, 73 (18/7) in Literature and Humanities college and 94 (24/0) in Technical and Engineering college. 108 (27/6) were senior, 123 (31/5) junior, 113 (28/9) sophomore and 43 (11/0) freshmen. In this study, most of students were junior. 190 (48/6) university students recited Quran occasionally and 201 (51/4) did not at all.

Measuring Instruments

Researcher–made questionnaire: This questionnaire assess age, sex, marital status, field of study, time of entering university, Quran reciting , rate of reciting Quran in a day, week, Quran background and gaining rank and so on.

Depression, anxiety and stress scale: Depression, anxiety and stress was made by lovibond and Lovibond in 1995. This scale has 21 articles. There is 4 responses for each item such as never (o), hardly (1), most (2) and mostly (4). Items 1, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14, 18 evaluate stress, items 2, 4, 7, 9, 15, 19, 20 evaluate depression and items 3, 5, 10, 13, 16, 17, 21 evaluate anxiety.

Different searches have been done for finding this questionnaire's validity and reliability. Antony and associates (1998) analyzed this scale into its components and again they found three factors of depression, anxiety and stress as the components of this questionnaire. The finagling showed that 68 percent of the whole scale evaluates these three factors of depression, anxiety and stress. The sig. of depression, anxiety and stress in this study are 9/01, 2/89 and 1/23 and F are 0/99, 0/92 and 0/95.

III. RESULT

In this section, the rate of Quran reciting compare with the field of study and sex and its relationship with mental health.

TABLE 1:
RESULT ANALYSIS OF FACTORIAL VARIANCE OF THE FIELD OF STUDY IN INTERACTION WITH SEX AND ACADEMIC SEMESTER

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1720.95a	1	254.95	18.32	0.001
Field of study	619.12	1	619.23	46.16	0.001
Sex	14.73	1	14.41	1.09	0.29
Academic semester	6.08	1	6.08	0.45	0.50
Field*sex	13.76	1	13.76	1.01	0.35
Field* Academic semester	15.59	1	15.59	2.05	0.21
Field*sex* Academic semester	1.17	1	13.41	0.08	0.76
Error	8114.95	605			
Total	1681352.00	613			

a. R Squared=0.18 (Adjusted R Squared=0.16)

According to table 1, it can be conclude that F is 46/16, so it is significant; it means that there is a significant difference among university students of different fields in Quran reciting. F is 1/09 in sex which means that there is no significant different among boys and girls from the view point of sex in Quran reciting. Also the year of entering University is not significant in reciting Quran too. Fs gained from interacting groups are not significant too and this shows the homogeneity of groups in interacting with each other in reciting Quran.

For comparing two by two, Scheffe test is used and its results are shown below.

TABLE 2:
SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST RESULTS TO COMPARE PAIRS OF GROUPS IN TERMS OF READING THE QURAN

Group		Mean difference	Sig.
Persian Language and Literature	Agricultural Machinery Engineering	1.25*	0.02
	Civil Engineering	2.18*	0.001
	Biology	1.16	0.07
Agricultural Machinery Engineering	Civil Engineering	-0.93	0.10
	Biology	0.09	0.91
Civil Engineering	Biology	-1.02	0.12

*.The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 2 shows the differences between 2 groups, as there is a difference in the rate of reciting Quran among students of Persian Language and Literature with students of agricultural Machinery Engineering and Civil Engineering. It means that rate of reciting Quran in students of Persian Language and Literature is more than students of Agricultural Machinery Engineering. There is no significant difference among the students of Persian Language and Literature and Biology. There is also no significant difference among other groups.

TABLE 3:
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST TO EVALUATE MEAN DIFFERENCES, DEPRESSION, ANXIETY AND STRESS IN THE QURAN READER AND
STUDENT GROUPS COMPARED

variable	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
depression	Comparison Group	11.11	3.79	2.49	*
	Quran Reader Group	10.31	3.56		0.013
stress	Comparison Group	10.26	2.82	2.78	**
	Quran Reader Group	9.61	2.32		0.006
anxiety	Comparison Group	7.92	1.98	2.15	*
	Quran Reader Group	7.59	1.10		0.03

According to table 3, t is 2/49 with 389 degree of freedom at the level of α= 0/05, so t is significant and null hypothesis (H0) is rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference among the students who recite Quran and who do not in the degree of depression. It means that the mean of depression in students who recite Quran is fewer.

The calculated t is 2/78 with 389 degree of freedom at the level of α= 0/01, so t is significant and null hypothesis (H0) is rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference among the students who recite Quran and who do not in the degree of stress. It means that the mean of stress in students who recite Quran is fewer.

The t is 2/15 with 389 degree of freedom at the level of α = 0/05 and it is significant. So the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference among the students who recite Quran and who do not in the degree of anxiety. It means that the mean of anxiety in students who recite Quran is fewer.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study's findings show that there is a significant difference among the students of different fields in reciting Quran. This means that students of Persian Literature recite Quran more than students of Agricultural Machinery Engineering and civil Engineering. There is no significant difference among the students of Persian Literature and Biology and other groups too.

To confirm these findings, it can be said that Quran concepts had affected our life during fourteen centuries overtly or covertly. For instance, we can see Quran effects in the poems and writings. "Effects of Quran on writers and poets date back to the third century and it can be seen greatly in seventh and eighth especially in Molana's Mathnavi" (Rastgou, 2008, p.4).

Iranians' honorable treasures are poems of poets and texts of writers and teachers and thoughts of philosophers and spokesmen who were muslem, whose verses and phrases refer to symbols, quotations, warranties, interpretations, stories and all allegories from Quran. For example, a person who study works of Rudaki, Molavi, Hafez, Attar, Nasro – Allah Monshi and the others cannot understand wiles he knows Quran interpretation. All these writers and poets said that' all they have are because of Quran" and study Quran "in fourteen narratives" and nothing" except Quran won't help them". For this reason, intentionally or unintentionally, their sayings have a word, phrase, verse and quotation from Quran (Halabi, 2007, p. 12) and on the other hand based on the theory of sample choosing, students of Persian Literature are addressed, so the effects of Quran represent in the form of reciting and interpreting Quran in these students.

The other findings show that there is a significant difference in the degree of depression, anxiety and stress in the degree of depression, anxiety and stress in students who recite Quran and who do not. It means that the mean of depression, anxiety and stress are lower in students who recite Quran. This study is in accordance with the studies of Psychologists of Egbal lohoori University of Pakistan (1985, as citedin Matby & Day, 2009), Boalhry and Ferrand (1995), Hassanpour and Loya (1997) Jafari and Moosavi (1997), Galedar and saki (2001), Gazarpour and Najafi (2004), JahanMiri, HajiPoran and Hashemzadeh (2010) and also Maltby (1999), Koeing and associates (2001), Moreira and Koeing (2006) and Dezutler and et al (2006), Dew et al. (2010), Weisman et al. (2010), and Barrera et al. (2011).

In confirming the findings of the present study, it can be referred to some mechanisms seen in the morality of person's who recite Quran which are tranquilizing and excitement ejection which are some techniques to decrease the degree of depression, anxiety and stress and stress and increase happiness and mental health (Kannedy and Doepke 1999);

A) Tranquilizing: Religious tranquilizing is a way of decreasing pain and sadness. One example of religious tranquilizing is praying to God. In most of narrative, gaining tranquility through praying to God by religious Imams and leaders has been said. Getting out an arrow from the ankle of Imam Ali or saying of Mohammad Prophet to Belal to call for praying are examples of religious tranquilizing. Also, it is said that Abu-Ali-Sina whenever was not able to solve a problem after praying to God, he would gain his tranquility. Besides, a faithful person after praying to God, start to recite Quran and this is again an example of gaining tranquility through religion for a moment after praying.

B) Excitement ejection: One of the valuable aspects of religions is that its followers perform whatever the religion says wholeheartedly. One of its examples can be seen in holy shrines and tombs such as holy Mashhad. Believing and preserving and searching religious beliefs and concepts are paling in today's developing and industrial lives. Away from its effect on the person's life, it effects on mental health of the person too. Turner, Dell KL. and et al (1998) assert that 20-60 percent of mental health is determined with religious beliefs. As for as, human being is cultural, mental, social and biological so for removing his mental problem, every factors should take into use. On the other hand, it is found that religious beliefs are aspects of a culture which should take into account in increasing mental health and decreasing social harms. Knowing the principles of a religion prevent the person from deviance.

Generally effects or Quran on mental health are as a result of:

1) Reading Quran gives meaning to life.

2) Reading Quran gives hope and positive view of life.

3) Reading Quran helps the person to control himself.

4) Quran prescribe a sound way of living which also effect on mental life.

5) Overall, religious morality is supported by others too because they are a kind of social behavior. Religious morality of a person who read Quran gives a kind of supernatural feeling.

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Shokrollah Pouralkhas, 45-year-old, is an assistant professor of Persian language and literature department in Mohagegh Ardabili university. His major in BA, MA and PhD is Persian language and literature. He has got these degrees simultaneously in Gilan university, Tarbiyat Modares university and Tehran university in Iran.

He has been involved in teaching since 1995. He is a member of the Academy of Persian literature. His main areas of interests are literature, mythology, religion, Persian literature and functional analysis. He has published articles in Iran, Turky, and Azerbayjan.

Soran Rajabi, 30-year-old, PhD student in psychology in the university of Mohagegh university of Ardebil. He has pyblished numerous articles in the field of psychology and religion. Also, has has written a book entitled "Religion and Mental Health". He has been selected as the top student in Iran at 2011.

Ahad Pishgar, 45 years old, is an assistant professor of Persian language and literature department in Mohagegh ardabili university. His major in BA and Ma is Persian language and literature and in PhD is Arabic language and literature. He has got these degrees simultaneously inTabriz university, Zanjan University in Iran and Baku state University in Azerbayjan.

He has been involved in teaching since 1987. He has published 25 articles in countries such as Iran, Turky, Pakistan, India, Azerbayjan and Egypt. He also has written 6 books and took part in 6 national and international conferences.

An Empirical Study of Memetics Applied in Optimizing SLT

Lihua Zhu

School of Foreign Languages, Tianjin University of Commerce, 300134, China
Email: lhzhu@126.com

Abstract—Memetics, a new branch of study researching into the replicate, proliferation and evolution of meme based on Neo-Darwinism, probes dynamically into the cultural medium: meme, in the perspective of culture evolution, information intercommunion and thought contagion. Meme, depositing in individual's memory as the replicative gene, can be replicated in another individual's memory so as to remodel the other individual's thought, action and even consciousness by means of imitating and replicating. As the hosts to meme, the individuals continue their proliferating and self-proliferating among the whole community and result in enhancing the evolution of society, culture and language. The paper attempts to give a general review of memetics studies and then make an investigation into the theory models and practical significance of memetics applied in optimizing SLT from the aspect of imitation, taking culture evolution, information intercommunion and thought contagion as the study module, social-linguistics and pragmatics as the theory models.

Index Terms—memetics, teaching strategies, imitation, thought contagion

I. INTRODUCTION

The term "meme", the unit of cultural evolution and the cultural equivalent of gene, was firstly put forward by the biologist Richard Dawkins in the last chapter of his best seller treatise *The Selfish Gene,* in order to explain the amazing similar phenomenon between different cultures, and meanwhile some examples of memes were enumerated: tunes, ideas, catch-phrases, clothes fashions, and ways of making pots or of building arches. Meanwhile, Dawkins explained that the word was borrowed from the Greek word "mimeme" and abbreviated to the monosyllable "meme" whose pronunciation sounds like gene. Just as genes propagate themselves in the gene pool by leading from body to body via sperm or eggs, memes propagate them in the meme pool by leaping from brain to brain via a process which, in the broad sense, can be called imitation.

The term "meme" is actually defined by dozens of scholars in various ways as: a unit of imitation, a unit of information residing in a brain (Dawkins, 1976), culturally transmitted instructions, any permanent pattern of matter or information produced by an act of human intentionality, roughly equivalent to ideas or representations, a unit of information in a mind whose existence influences events such that copies of itself get created in other minds, actively contagious ideas, a mental representation, a self-replicating element of culture passed on by imitation (Oxford Language Dictionary), etc. Besides, meme is defined as having intimate relations with memetic and memory, rhyming with "dream" in encyclopedia; "American Heritage Dictionary" defines it as "A unit of cultural information, such as a cultural practice or idea, that is transmitted verbally or by repeated action from one mind to another." In consequence of these overflowing definitions, the word becomes almost meaningless, when applied to the instructions in brains, information, behaviour, words, mental states, books and all kinds of cultural artifacts without consistency, and that is why a scientific study of meme, memetics, is required urgently.

Memetics, a branch of scientific study of meme, a new theory expounding the law of culture evolution on the basis of Neo-Darwinism, the importance of which is becoming conspicuous day by day in the research of language information transmission, presentation imitation and inter-contagion of thoughts.

A. The Study of Meme across the World

At present, quite a few of scholars are engaging in the research on Memetics at multi-levels and in multi-perspectives. Memetics center, memetics webpage and periodical of memetics such as "Journal of Memetics" have been established. There are several groups of scholars who are for memetics: a) From the point of view of thought contagion. Paul Marsden (1998) and Derek Gatherer (2001) take it as an idea that is replicated by parasitically infecting human minds and altering their behavior, causing them to propagate the ideas. William S. Burroughs (1999) also supports this standpoint and advances that "Language is a virus". b) From semiotic point of view. Bio-anthropologist Deason thinks that a meme is regarded as a sign or, exactly, as a carrier of a sign that replicates by infecting human minds and altering their behavior, similar to the way a virus reproduces by hijacking the DNA of a bacterium. Unlike a virus, however, which is encoded in DNA molecules, a meme is nothing more than a sign that induces people to repeat its pattern. c) From the view of information processing. The philosopher Dennett (1991) and Lynch (1991) understand a meme as an information pattern held in an individual's memory, which is capable of being copied to another individual's memory. d)

From the viewpoint of cultural evolution. The sociologist Edward O. Wilson (1998), Gabora (1997) and Marion Blute (2003) regard meme as a unit of the socio-cultural evolution stored in mind with cultural or social phenotypes. For them, memes taking the role of genes as the second type of replicators are embodied in individual brains or social organizations or stored in books, computers and other knowledge media. And other scholars devote themselves to memetics, such as Nick Rose (2004) who combines memetics with neurology and ecology in order to study the biological features of meme.

In recent years, the interest in memetics research is raised to a new climax, which is symbolized by *The Meme Machine* written by Susan Blackmore and published from Oxford University Press in January of 1999. *The Meme Machine* summarizes the development of memetics during these years and announces the new connotation of its conception.

Although most of the scholars admit that the memetics play an inestimable role in the way of lowing to reveal the profound mystery of culture, they also take some questions about concrete manipulate of this theory, such as the copying-fidelity and the distinction between meme and its phenotype.

B.   The Study of Meme in China

In China, however，memetics is still a new subject. At present, only a few scholars，such as He Ziran, Wang Bi, Xie Chaoqun, He Xuelin and Han Jianghong, are committing themselves to this study and writing some articles about memetics. And some of them are researching into the application of memetics in some of the foreign language teaching strategies: the grammar-translation method, direct method, the oral approach and the situational language teaching (SLT), communicative approach, cognitive approach, total physical response, etc.

II.   THEORETICAL MODELS OF MEMETICS OPTIMIZING SLT

Chen Linxia and He Ziran (2006) argued that it was the memetics who introduced the idea of information intercommunion into language teaching. By means of memetics, as a kind of medium, Words can be replicated, and meanwhile even the mode of creating words can be replicated as well. Thus the interactive mode between people and languages is formed, and the change and development of languages can be explored. Memetics has a capacity of enriching the theory of verbal communication, providing new way of thinking for the research on the verbal communication and explaining more reasonably the verbal and behavioral communication character in Internet. The phenomenon of duplication and transmission of meme can illustrate the regular pattern of reproduction, evolution of meme, as well as the appearance and disappearance of language itself. Memetics not only provides the model of cultural information transmission, which is an assistance of interpreting the inherited similarities of various cultures, but also proposes the view of meme imitating, which is of great theoretical and practical significance in the perspective of cultural transmission, language teaching and translatology research. Their paper also reveals the important influence of Memetics research upon language research, and has thus laid the theoretical foundation of the study of Memetics and language as well as the study of language teaching reform. Under the guiding of memetics, some traditional teaching methods, which were considered irrational and undesirable in the past, now can be reevaluated, reinstated and even re-advocated. The positive significance of imitation in language learning is being paid more and more attentions to and there is no doubt that the course of learning language is the course of replicating and transmitting memes. And that's why it is firmly believed that memetics will offer more and more helps and enlightenments to foreign language teaching.

The Situational Language Teaching(SLT) is firstly designed by British applied linguists, based on the structuralism, and its basic approaches are setting situations, inputting information, transmitting culture and infecting thoughts (exerting a subtle influence on one's thinking), as well as the error correction and evaluations through observing and the information feedback under a rational monitoring mode. The Situational Language Teaching (SLT) has a strong dependence on the textbook and those audio and video teaching materials, taking the pictures, cards, DVDs, and the Internet media technology for its assistant tools. Among SLT patterns, imitation is a crucial one in acquiring knowledge, and is also the key content of the research on Memetics, functioning as the combinative relationship between acquiring knowledge and studying Memetics. Consequently, from the above two aspects: the imitation in setting situation and imitation in imputing information, this paper will attempts to make an empirical study of memetics applied in optimizing SLT in three different perspectives: information replication, culture transmission and thoughts contagion.

A.   Situation Setting and Imitation

Memetic provides a new perspective for the research of language teaching methodology, which is an important theoretical basis in optimize SLT. The difficult points in the research are to solve the differences between imitation and individual thought patterns, mechanical imitation and active construction, etc.

Language acquisition can't do without language context. The situational context of British structuralism is in accordance with Halliday (1994) systemic functional linguistic context. As the environment of language use, context connects the language form with its situation, and thus yields the context meaning, and traditionally it is categorized into situational context and cultural context, the former referring to the specific meaning in specific context, and the latter regarding the language system of social environment as a context, constructing associative meaning and cultural

meaning. The input of the context theory provides a vital theoretical basis for setting the reasonable situation. In the specific situation, learners can acquire knowledge by means of imitation, imagination, inference in accordance with the situation for the purpose of obtaining knowledge. According to memetics, the life span of meme can be divided into four sequential processes: assimilation, retention, expression, and transportation. Assimilation refers to the first process in which memes are noticed, understood, and accepted by its host. Retention refers the period when memes remain in the memory and possess a strong intention of selection, as a result, only the few memes have the opportunity to survive. Expression is the third process in which memes must come out from the memetic storeroom in the memory when they exchange with other individuals, giving an access to a perceived material configuration. Transmission, an expansion of expression, refers to the last process in which memes expand the scope of transmission by means of varieties of carriers. In this particular situation, the classroom, learners are the hosts, who firstly observe the setting situation, comprehend and accept it, and then form the memory. Finally through the communication with teachers and classmates, they can demonstrate it, and thus make the knowledge spread.

A situation setting is usually carried out at four levels: a) Setting concrete situation. The specific character, the real event in the nature are truly recorded by means of multimedia technology, and are presented intuitively in front of the learners according to the teaching needs so as to "Set the situations, inspire the thinking". In this concrete situation, learners may develop their language sense unconsciously through repeated imitation, practice and communication. b) Setting associative situation. The method is to connect the related knowledge by hyper link, and form the knowledge system so as to prolong the time span in which the memory and the extended memes (i.e. the acquired knowledge) can live a longer life. Take the word "perspective" for example. When learning the word "perspective", learners can use hyper link to link up the same sort of word including its synonyms and antonyms, together with the compound words and phrases deriving from the same root. Setting the associative situation, learners can associate more than 40 such words sharing the related meaning "look" as "aspect", "respect", "inspect", "prospective", "prospect", "spectate", "specter", etc. And in this way, learners can enrich their vocabulary quickly and easily. c) Setting inferential situation. By using the related information from the corpus, learners can construct their own thinking model positively by means of observation, inference and conclusion. Take the following for example. "A child is a child, how can they not make a mistake?" "Rich men are rich men, how thick are the necklaces on their necks?" This rhetoric device "tautology" is also a kind of meme. Learners can perceive and learn the cognitive mechanism through observing, inferring and concluding its rules. d) Setting the pragmatic situation. One sentence or one word may have different meanings in different situations. Let's make an analysis of the meme: "You are really a kind-hearted soul", in the social pragmatic perspective. Firstly, the meme "You are really a kind-hearted soul" can be interpreted as a kind of praise following The Politeness Principle (Levinson, 1983). Secondly, assume these words from a jealous official wife. The implication may be "praise" with quotation mark, because what the wife hates most is her husband always helping his female subordinates too enthusiastically. Learners can take advantage of their own cognitive model to selectively replicate the reasonable and meaningful memes according to the proper context, such as "You are really Chen Shimei (an evil Chinese classic image, tending to murder his wife and two children so as to get married with the princess)", "You are really Hamlet", "You are really Pandora's Box", "You really are Quick Tongue Sister" and so on.

B. Information Input and Imitation

The Situational Language Teaching needs not only a large amount of teaching materials, but also a great deal of information. Memetics argues that imitation is one of the most important natures of human beings. The results of consulting the magazine --- "Journal of Memetics" on line, reveal that the researching scope of meme not only includes the cultural transmission and thought contagion, but also contains the language teaching mode. It is cultural unit, informational unit and mnemon. The main approach is achieved by situational imitation, informational replication, thought contagion and cultural transmission. In fact, to mnemon, the process of meme's imitation and replication is equal to that of acquiring knowledge and learning. Therefore, it's necessary to make full use of the computer which has a big storage and high speed so as to optimize a profusion of teaching information, handle it accurately, and then provide it to learners in time. And that may speed up the teaching process, enlarge the lesson's capability, widen the information and enhance the teaching quality in the fixed time. After replicating a mass of information and stocking it in their brains, the learners can constantly release the replicated information, or the memes, and let them spread by means of communication. And in this way, the knowledge is spread and the teaching purpose is thus achieved. Indubitably, the methodology guided by the theory of memetics can break through the traditional process of Stimulation-Reaction(S-R), prompt the mutual effects between the new and old information, and construct the individual's meaning by the process of assimilation and acclimation incessantly. In the end, learners are able to acquire new knowledge by analyzing and discriminating new information, in the four processes of assimilation, retention, expression and transmission.

III. AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF MEMETICS APPLIED IN OPTIMIZING SLT (EXPERIMENT, TEST AND EVALUATION)

Test and evaluation are two important means of testing and evaluating theoretical model and guiding teaching practice. Data collection and data analysis helps to make a dynamic analysis of the teacher's teaching and the learners' learning as well as the feedback information. Testing and evaluation system mainly includes achievement test, proficiency test and language test. According to the theoretical model of test and evaluation grades, the experimental

classes and control classes are classified, and learners are set to take tests in a specific situation (multimedia classroom), with the results of the test data to evaluate the reliability and validity of applying memetics in language teaching. And the experimental results can provide an important theoretical basis for the design and improvement of SLT. Paper testing is the main approach to the empirical study.

A.   Design of the Experiment

Target of investigation and examinee: undergraduates of English Department, from freshman to senior including Class One and Class Two. Setting of the experimental group and the control group: four Class Ones from the four grades as the experimental group; the other four Class Twos as the control group. The classes are originally divided by English Department, based on their university entrance examination scores, each class with basically equal scores, equal textbook, so that the experiment can be of comparability and serviceability. The test corpus, test methods and test purpose, see table 1:

TABLE 1
CONTENT IN CLASSROOM EXPERIMENTS

Test Objects	Test Corpus	Test Methods	Test Purposes
Experimental Group	50 Names of Animals & 50 Pictures of Fruits	1. Spelling 2. Closed Exam	Information Replication
	50 Sentences of Cultural Communication From Network; Displaying Context by Flash	1. Filling Blanks 2. Closed Exam	Cultural Transmission
	50 Terms from "Pragmatics" "Rhetoric"; Audio Data Reading; Students Imitating	1. Spelling 2. Closed Exam	Thought Contagion
Control group	Adopting Traditional Teaching Methodology	Same Methods	Same Purposes

B.   Steps of the Experiment

Class instruction and closed exam. Firstly, test the Experimental classes of the four grades three times, and 2 hours each time. In the first hour, the experimental group is taught with experimental teaching method, while the control group with traditional mode. And in the second hour, both of the two groups take closed exams simultaneously. The purpose of the 3 times exams is to test the learners' validity of acquiring and replicating information under the sensory stimulation in hearing, vision and so on, to test the reliability of the information fidelity, and to test the extent of culture acquisition in communication and thoughts contagion in language teaching and learning. The first test consists of 100 questions with the score of 100 points. Every kind of animal name treated as a question is inscribed as 1 point. The second and third test each consists of 50 questions each of which is 2 points inscribed as 100 points. And then each of the student's average score is calculated as the data of further research. After a month, the second phase of exam is conducted of which the testing methods and contents are the same as the first time. This time direct exams are taken without the experimental teaching in order to detect the length of the time of the acquired information and thoughts stored in the learners' minds of obtained by the experimental teaching. The supposition is determined the higher scores, that is to say, the longer the memory information storage time is, the better the study effect is.

C.   Statistical Analysis of Experimental Data

Through the statistical results of experimental classes and control classes, we have performed experiments for three times, from the information replication, cultural evolution and thought contagion, to test the reliability and validity of memetics applying to the situational language teaching (see table 2).

TABLE 2
TEST STATISTICS OF THE FIRST PHASE

Class	Students	Average scores			Average scores
		1st	2nd	3rd	3 times
03-1	26	84	81	78	81
03-2	27	73.5	70.5	65	69.7
04-1	20	79	80.5	75.5	78.3
04-2	22	70	70.5	68.5	69.7
05-1	24	75	77.5	72	74.8
05-2	23	68.5	65	66.5	66.7
06-1	25	74.5	77	74	75
06-2	24	68	66.5	60.5	65

Table 2 shows the examinees' paper scores of the four grades, eight classes. In these 3 exams, scores of the four experimental classes are generally nearly 10 percentage points higher than that of the control classes, and between Grade03 and Grade06, the difference value ≥ 10; between Grade04 and 05, the difference value is also 8.6 and 8.1 respectively, $\cong 10$, showing a significant difference. According to the first information replication exam, the scores of the four experimental classes are 84, 79, 75 and 74.5 respectively, while the scores of the control class are only 73.5, 70, 68.5 and 68. Theses remarkable differences indicate that setting situational context (images display, situation setting)

can stimulate the visual senses，enlarge the students' vocabulary and promote the learning of language, especially in the fields of memorizing those specific material nouns, such as the names of animals, plants and so on. In the perspective of cultural transmission and thought contagion, language learners are set in the cultural context, with the aid of multimedia technology, through reading, voicing, imitating, to infer the associative meaning and cultural meaning based on their acquired existing knowledge in order to improve their grades. Compared with the control group, the scores of the experimental group in the last two phases are 615.6 (81+78+80.5+75.5+77.5+78.3+72+74.8), which has remarkable differences and is much higher than the scores of the control group which are 533.

TABLE 3
DIFFERENCES OF TWO GROUPS IN TWO PHRASES

Time/Difference	Grade03	Grade04	Grade05	Grade06	Average Difference
Difference1	10.7	8.6	8.1	10	9.35
Difference2	11.3	8.9	8.5	10.4	9.78

Since the testing method and contents of in the last two phases are similar to the first phase, the specific test table is omitted and only the differences of the four grade between the experimental group and control group are retained, in order to carry on the contrast research of the two stages (see table 3).

Table 3 proves the more remarkable testing differences between the experimental group and the control group in the second phase a month later. The value of difference is 9.78, 0.43(9.78-9.35) higher than that in the first phase, illustrating that the combination of Memotics and SLT can not only improve the learning results remarkably but also store the gained meme (mnemon and theories) longer in the learners' brain, and that the longer the meme is stored in brain, the better the learning effect will be.

IV. CONCLUSION

The above empirical study makes scientific research into the theory models and practical significance of memetics applied in optimizing SLT from the aspect of imitation, taking culture evolution, information intercommunion and thought contagion as the study module, social-linguistics and pragmatics as the theory models. The results clearly show its significance and its positive meanings in promoting language teaching methodology and language teaching reform. Under the guiding of memetics, some traditional teaching methods which were thought irrational and undesirable in the past, now maybe can be reevaluated, even be reinstated and be re-advocated. And we can firmly believe that memetics will offer foreign language teaching more help and enlightenments, though some of the theories and research methods are not so mature, and require further improvement.

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Lihua Zhu was born in Shaanxi Province in 1968. He received his M.A. degree in Linguistics from Northwest Normal University, China in 2000. He is currently an associate professor and tutor for graduates in School of Foreign Languages, Tianjin University of Commerce. His research interests include translation and literature.

Depth and Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge: Which Really Matters in Reading Comprehension of Iranian EFL Learners?

Ahmad Moinzadeh
Department of English, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: moin@fgn.ui.ac.ir

Roghaieh Moslehpour
Department of English, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran
Email: moslehpoorr19846@yahoo.com

Abstract—The present study tried to assess the roles of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Using the multivariate analysis, this study examined the roles of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension of a group of Iranian EFL University students with a minimum vocabulary size of 3,000 word families as was measured by Schmitt's (2001) Vocabulary Levels Test. The study found that 1) the test scores on vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth and reading comprehension are positively correlated and 2) vocabulary breadth was a stronger predictor of reading comprehension than depth of vocabulary knowledge for the participants of the present study.

Index Terms—breadth of vocabulary knowledge, depth of vocabulary knowledge, lexical threshold for reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Of the four language modes (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in studying English as a foreign language, reading comprehension is considered one of the most important sources for language learning in an EFL setting. Reading is a complex process; reading in a foreign language is even more complex. Reading comprehension, in both first (L1) and second (L2) language, is affected by many variables, the most researched being background knowledge, and reading comprehension strategies (Grabe, 1991). Research on the relationship between L2 vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is just beginning to gain attention and very limited number of studies (e.g., Beglar and Hunt, 1999; de Bot, Paribakht,and Wesche, 1997; Laufer, 1992b) were conducted to determine what role vocabulary knowledge plays in reading comprehension.

In their attempts to define aspects and components of lexical knowledge, a number of second language (L2) lexical researchers (e.g., Read, 2004, 1989, 1988; Qian, 2002, 1999, 1998; Haastrup and Henriksen, 2000; Wesche and Paribakht, 1996; Meara, 1996) proposed that lexical knowledge could be regarded as having two primary dimensions: breadth and depth. Therefore, recognition of depth and breadth as two primary dimensions of vocabulary knowledge is essential to understanding the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. In the present study, breadth of vocabulary is defined as the number of words for which a learner has at least some minimum knowledge of meaning and depth of vocabulary knowledge is defined as a learner's level of knowledge of various aspects of a given word.

The present study aimed to determine the contribution of vocabulary size and vocabulary depth to reading comprehension. It is worth mentioning that although all vocabulary dimensions are conceptually relevant in assessing the role of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension, only vocabulary size and a partial dimension of vocabulary depth (synonymy, polysemy, and collocation) was evaluated in this study because the measures of vocabulary size and vocabulary depth were incapable of assessing the other dimensions of vocabulary knowledge in a large-scale testing. Besides, three aspects of depth of vocabulary knowledge were measured since these aspects have been identified as the most fundamental among the depth of vocabulary knowledge aspects in almost all frameworks of vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Qian, 2002, 1999; Nation, 2001, 1990; Chapelle, 1998).

This research study tried to provide plausible answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge and their performance in reading comprehension?

2. Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' breadth of vocabulary knowledge and their performance in reading comprehension?

3. For Iranian EFL learners at lexical threshold level for reading comprehension, does depth of vocabulary knowledge contribute more to their reading comprehension performance than vocabulary breadth?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. What is Involved in Knowing a Word?

Over the years, lexical researchers have built up various criteria for understanding what is involved in knowing a word in second language (L2) research. In an earlier era, Cronbach (1942) classified vocabulary knowledge into five categories by focusing on word meaning (generalization, breadth of meaning, and precision of meaning) and use (application and availability). Realizing the restriction in Cronbach's (1942) framework, Richards (1976) integrated more aspects of lexical knowledge, such as morpho-syntactic properties, association, frequency level, and register into Cronbach's framework. Richards (1976) offered the following assumptions concerning what is involved in knowing a word: frequency, register, syntax, derivation, association, semantic features and polysemy.

Largely retaining Richard's (1976) definition of knowing a word, Nation (1990) added such important components as pronunciation and collocations to make the framework more comprehensive. He proposed 16 questions on what are necessary to fully know a word with the incorporation of the receptive-productive distinction. Later, Nation (2001) revised his earlier framework in order to improve the relatedness between various aspects of word knowledge and its practicability. Within his revised classification scheme, the refined 18 questions on knowing a word arose to reflect three different types of lexical knowledge- form (spoken form, written from, and word parts), meaning (form and meaning, concept, referents and associations), and use (grammatical functions, collocations, and constraints on use).

Taking into account the merits of the previous frameworks of lexical knowledge especially those of Nation (1990) and Richards (1976), Qian (1998) proposed a framework of lexical knowledge. This framework identifies very important aspects composing depth of vocabulary knowledge, i.e., pronunciation, morphological knowledge, syntactic properties, meaning, register or discourse features and frequency especially from the perspective of their possible contribution to reading comprehension process. Qian (2002) developed another framework on the collective strength of earlier models of vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Nation, 2001 Henriksen, 1999; Chapelle, 1998; Qian, 1998) for lexical knowledge which proposes that vocabulary knowledge comprises four intrinsically connected dimensions including vocabulary size and depth. Depth of vocabulary knowledge in this framework includes phoneme, grapheme, morpheme, syntax and semantic features. In Qian's (2002) model, as well as in all other frameworks (e.g., Nation, 2001, 1990; Henriksen, 1999; Qian, 1998; Chapelle, 1998) reviewed so far, there is a clear consensus that depth and size of vocabulary knowledge occupies a primary and central place in the multidimensional domain of vocabulary knowledge.

B. Depth and Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge

In research on vocabulary knowledge, a distinction has been made between depth and breadth as the two primary dimensions of vocabulary knowledge by a number of lexical researchers (e.g. Read, 2004; Qian, 2002, 1999, 1998; Haastrup and Henriksen, 2000; Meara, 1996; Wesche and Paribakht, 1996). Nagy and Scott (2000) examined the breadth and depth of vocabulary and believed that a person who knows a word can recognize it, and use it, in novel contexts, and uses knowledge of the word in combination with other types of knowledge to construct meaning for a text. Furthermore, Schawanemflugel et al (1997) used the terms minimal, partial and full concept to describe breadth and depth of vocabulary. Language learners with minimal concept knowledge link new word with single context while language learners with full concept understand and use words in different contexts, know the varied meanings of multiple-meaning words and can ascertain a word's meaning from the meanings of similar words. Ordonez et.al. (2002), who examined the relationship between paradigmatic and syntagmatic word knowledge, also asserted that although lexical knowledge is most commonly thought of as a number of words known, it is now increasingly clear that richness of the representation of the words known, depth of vocabulary, is also a key dimension of variability.

Breadth of vocabulary knowledge has been taken to refer to the number of the words learners know at a particular level of proficiency (Nation, 2001; Qian, 2002 1999, 1998). According to Nation and Waring, (1997), there are around 54,000 word families in English. Nation and Waring (1997); however, reported the vocabulary size of an educated adult native speaker of English to be only around 20,000 word families. Although there are clearly differences across individuals, this estimate is generally accepted. In one research study, Nation (1993) found that adult learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) have vocabulary size of fewer than 5,000 word families, even after they have studied English for several years. Depth of lexical knowledge, on the other hand, has been used to refer to the quality of lexical knowledge or how well a learner knows a word (Read, 2004; Meara, 1996). Researchers have noted the complexity and multidimensionality of word knowledge and have suggested that knowing a word well should mean more than knowing its individual meaning in particular contexts (Qian, 1999). Various kinds of knowledge are associated with a word that a learner knows, ranging from knowledge related to its pronunciation, spelling, register, stylistic, and morphological features (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2000; Meara 1996; Nation, 1990; Richards, 1976) to knowledge of the word's syntactic and semantic relationships with other words in a language including collocational meaning and knowledge of antonymy, synonymy and hyponymy (Read, 2004; Henriksen, 1999; Chappelle, 1994).

C. Lexical Threshold for L2 Reading Comprehension

The threshold hypothesis in reading postulates that in terms of vocabulary size there is a threshold level below which the reader will be handicapped by lack of comprehension and above which the reader will be able to apply his/her reading comprehension strategies to help comprehension and achieve better results (Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001; Laufer, 1997, 1996, 1992b, 1989; Clark, 1980, 1979; Nation, 1990; Cummins, 1979).

There exist various view points with regard to lexical threshold level which is necessary for successful reading comprehension. Sutarsyah, Nation and Kennedy (1994), for instance, suggested a minimum of 4,000-5,000 word families for comprehending a single university textbook in English which contains 5,438 word families. Furthermore, Hirsh and Nation (1992) suggested that for ease of reading, where reading could be a pleasurable activity, 98-99% coverage is desirable (about one unknown word in every 50-100 running words). To reach 95% coverage of academic text, a vocabulary size of around 4,000 word families would be needed, consisting of 2,000 high frequency general service words, about 570 general academic words (the Academic Word List) and 1,000 or more technical words, proper nouns and low frequency words. In her attempts to determine a lexical threshold level for reading comprehension of English language learners, Laufer (1996, 1992b, 1989) conducted a series of studies. In one earlier study, Laufer and Sim (1985a) used comprehension questions and interviews with learners to determine a threshold score where learners could be said to be able to comprehend an English for Academic Purposes text in the First Certificate in English (FCE) exam. They concluded that a score of 65-70% was the minimum vocabulary necessary. Laufer (1989) then went a step further to see what percentage of word tokens (running words) needed to be understood in order to ensure *reasonable* reading comprehension of the text. Laufer (1989) found that the group that scored 95% and above on the vocabulary measure had a significantly higher number of successful readers than those scoring below 95%. The 90% level did not result in significant differences between those above and below. A comparison of the 95% and above group with the 90-94% group revealed a significant difference in comprehension scores. Laufer (1992b) in a further study looked at the relationship between reading comprehension score and vocabulary size, as measured by the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983) or the Eurocentres Vocabulary Test (Meara and Jones, 1990). Laufer (1992b) indicated that the lexical threshold for reading comprehension is 95% which corresponds to knowing about 3000-word family level of Nation's (1983) test. That is, L2 learners reading comprehension in English will be impeded by having a vocabulary size below 3,000 word families. Another research study by Coady et.al. (1993) further confirmed that explicit learning of 3,000 high frequency English words produces considerable positive effect on reading comprehension of English language learners. And finally, in two more recent studies (e.g., Qian ,1999, 2002) on the relation of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, 3,000 word level, as measured by Nation's (1990) vocabulary Levels Test, was considered as the minimum lexical threshold level for reading comprehension of learners of English.

D. Empirical Studies on L2 Lexical Knowledge and Reading Comprehension

A number of empirical studies investigated the roles of second language vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Koda's (1989) study of 24 college students who were learning Japanese as a foreign language found equally strong correlations between a self-made vocabulary test and two reading tests, one being a cloze test and the other paragraph comprehension. Koda (1989) reported a correlation of .69 (r = .69) between the learners' scores on the vocabulary test and the cloze test and a correlation of .74 (r = .74) between their scores on the vocabulary test and the paragraph comprehension test. Another research study by Coady et. al. (1993), which studied 79 students learning English in a university academic program revealed that the two experimental groups, receiving special training in high frequency vocabularies, achieved better reading comprehension at the end of experiment than did the control group, not receiving such a treatment. Besides, in his study, Khalidieh (2000) concluded that Arabic learners' lack of morphological knowledge, a subcomponent of vocabulary knowledge, prevented the learners from arriving at an interpretation of authentic Arabic texts. The predictive power of L2 vocabulary in reading comprehension was also explored by Stal (2003) who called the relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension a "robust" one and asserted that vocabulary knowledge has consistently been the "foremost predictor of a text's difficulty" (p.241). In his study of 5th grade students, Stal (2003) reported that vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension were strongly correlated, based on a measurement of word difficulty and sentence difficulty. In addition, Anderson and Freebody (1981) maintained, "a reader's general vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of how well that reader can understand a text" (p.3), based on their study of 8th grade students, who were assessed using word recognition checklists and multiple choice vocabulary tasks. The authors reported a high correlation between tests of vocabulary and reading comprehension.

E. The Roles of L2 Vocabulary Breadth and Depth in Reading Comprehension

In second language research few empirical studies have been reported on the relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. In one study, Laufer (1992b) administered the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983) and Eurocentres Vocabulary Test (Meara and Jones, 1990) to 92 university freshmen whose native language was either Arabic or Hebrew. She found that the scores on these tests correlated with reading comprehension scores at .50 (r = .50) and .75 (r = .75) respectively. Qian (1999) found more robust correlations in his study of 44 Korean learners and 33 Chinese learners of English, using Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983) and reading comprehension section of the TOEFL. The correlation between the two tests was .78. Beglar and Hunt (1999) conducted an almost identical study with 496 Japanese high school students using two versions of 2,000 word level and

464 students with two versions of University Word List (UWL) of Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation,1983). They found that the scores on the reading comprehension section of the TOEFL test correlated with the scores on two versions of the 2,000 word level at .66 (r=.66) and .62 (r=.62), respectively, and with the scores on the two versions he UWL section at .67(r=.67) and .71 (r=.71) respectively. Still, in another study which investigated the relationship between the perceived reading comprehension strategies, vocabulary size and reading comprehension of 226 first year EFL learners of 7 different higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia, Al Nujaidi (2003) found a strong positive relationship between the participants' vocabulary size at 2000 level and their performance on a reading comprehension test.

In comparison to vocabulary size, there have been fewer studies exploring the relationship between depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. In one study, de Bot et.al (1997) aimed to model L2 lexical processing in the context of reading comprehension through interview and think aloud protocols. Although de Bot et.al. (1997) did not intend to probe the connection between depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, their study found that various aspects of vocabulary knowledge, such as word morphology, word associations and other vocabulary depth indicators are closely linked to reading comprehension process. In another study, Qian (1999) found a strong correlation of .82 (r=.82) between the vocabulary depth of 44 Korean and 33 Chinese learners of English, using Word Associates Test (Read, 1995), and their reading comprehension.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A group of 112 senior and junior students majoring in English Literature at Shiraz University, Iran, took part in this study. The participants were male and female students between 21 to 25 years old.

Although 112 students took part in this study, 81 homogenized students were chosen as the participants of this study. To find the homogenized group, the participants were selected among those who had reached the lexical threshold level, i.e. the 3,000 word family level or better. Of the total 112 participants of this study, eight participants did not reach the 3,000 word family level. Besides, since the three tests, test of reading comprehension, vocabulary size and vocabulary depth, were administered in single testing sessions, there were 23 participants who did not take part in all three tests and thus were excluded from the participants of the study.

B. Instrumentation

The following instruments used in this study:

A reading comprehension test taken from Longman TOEFL (Philips, 2006).

A vocabulary size test called Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, 2001).

A depth of vocabulary knowledge test called Word Associates Test (Read, 1995)

The characteristics of each of the three tests will be presented below:

Reading Comprehension Test

The reading comprehension test (RC) items used in this research study were taken from Longman TOEFL (Philips, 2006). The reading comprehension test included three passages. There were 30 multiple choice questions in total (See Appendix 1).

Vocabulary Size Test

The English vocabulary size test (VS) chosen for this study was Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, 2001) (See Appendix 2).

It is in five sections, representing five different word frequency levels-the 2,000-word level, the 3,000-word level, the 5,000-word level, the Academic Vocabulary level and the 10,000-word level. The 2,000- and 3,000-word level sections include only high-frequency words in English; the 5,000-word level is a boundary level between the high-frequency and low-frequency word levels; the 10,000-word level section includes relatively low-frequency words; and the Academic vocabulary section contains medium-frequency academic vocabulary.

At each level, the test takers need to check 60 words against 30 definitions to make the correct matches. In addition, the words used in the definitions are always more common than the matched words (Schmitt et al., 2001). The validity and reliability of the Vocabulary Levels Test has been confirmed by a number of researchers (e.g., Schmitt et. al. 2001 Beglar and Hunt, 1999; Read, 1998) and it has also been used by a number of researchers (e.g., Qian, 2002, 1999; Luafer and Paribakht, 1998; Yu, 1996) as an appropriate means of assessing vocabulary size of English language learners. Schmitt etal. (2001) in his study which tested a total of 801 participants in 13 groups in England, New Zealand, Slovakia, Brazil and Spain, in which he compared the scores from two versions of the test, namely, Schmitt (2001, 2000) found that reliability coefficients ranged from .92 to .96 for different sections of the tests. In his study to examine the validity of the VLT (Schmitt, 2000, 2001), Schmitt etal. (2001) realized that nine native speakers had no problems with the two versions of the test and all of them reached the maximum or near maximum scores. Besides, the results from the 801 participants were analyzed using the ITEMAN (1989).Schmitt et al. (2001) concluded the mean facility value decreases as the levels contain words that are progressively less frequent. The mean discrimination indices varied from .509 to .669. For levels other than the 10,000 level, no item had a discrimination index of less than .30 at the 10,000 level, the discrimination fell below .30 in 13 out of 60 cases. They concluded that the discrimination indices for

the VLT are acceptable, bearing in mind that it is quite usual for less able learners to know a certain number of low-frequency words, while more able learners typically have some gaps in high frequency vocabulary.

The results of the analysis of the profile of the sections, using Guttman Scalability analysis, revealed that the four frequency sections had a high degree of scalability. In most cases, therefore, if an examinee reached the criteria at one level, the teacher or the researcher can be reasonably confident that the higher frequency levels are known as well. The results of the factor analysis for separate sections and all of the sections together revealed that the only apparent linguistic feature that the VLT could address is vocabulary (Schmitt etal. 2001).

Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test

The depth of vocabulary knowledge test (DVK) in this study was Word Associates Test, version 4.0 (Read, 1995) (See Appendix 3).

The WAT intends to assess depth of vocabulary knowledge through word associations; the semantic and collocational relationships that a word has with other words in a language.

Each test item comprises one stimulus word, which is always an adjective and eight words located in two different columns, each containing four words. Among these eight words, four are associates (i.e., related words) to the stimulus word and the other four are distractors.

WAT went through a process of repeated piloting and drafting, including a large-scale field test involving 132 participants. In one trial (N=94) a high correlation of .82 was found between the WAT and a comparison vocabulary matching test. The IRT reliability of the WAT in this trial was .93 and that of the matching test was .90 (Read, 1995). In an earlier trial (N= 38) a correlation of .85 was reported between the WAT and the matching test (Read, 1994). Read (1998) continued revising and improving the test and found high correlations between the WAT and one matching test of vocabulary knowledge, and an interview. In addition to be a reliable test, the WAT has been used to measure the depth of lexical knowledge in a number of lexical studies (e.g., Nassaji, 2006, 2004; Qian, 2002, 1999).

C. Procedures

1. Data Collection

Before being administered to the participants of the main study, the three tests- reading comprehension, vocabulary size and vocabulary depth- were piloted with 20 seniors at Shiraz University. The primary purposes of this pilot study were to decide how to provide enough instructions to the participants and to determine the time that test-takers would need to complete the tests.

Based on the findings of the pilot study, the same instructions were provided by the researcher, and the same amount of time was devoted to the completion of the three language tests. The three tests, the reading comprehension (RC), vocabulary size (VS), and depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK), were administered in single testing sessions to the participants. To eliminate the possibility of an order effect, the tests were administered in counterbalanced orders to the four groups of the participants. The orders are listed as follows:

1). VS- DVK- RC
2). VS- RC-DVK
3). DVK- RC- VS
4). RC-DVK- VS

2. Data Analysis

To explore the level of intercorrelations among vocabulary size, vocabulary depth, and reading comprehension two-tailed Pearson correlation, using SPSS version 11.5 for windows, was conducted. When determining the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension, multiple regression analysis was conducted.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to see if there is any significant relationship between depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL University students. Table 1 illustrates clearly the correlational analysis of vocabulary depth scores, and reading comprehension test scores.

TABLE 1.
TWO-TAILED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE (DVK) AND READING COMPREHENSION (RC)

		RC	DVK
RC	Pearson Correlation	1	.734(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	81	81
DVK	Pearson Correlation	.734(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	81	81

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

In light of the results of the Pearson correlation, as can be seen in the Table1, the correlation between depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension test scores is .73 (r =.73). Since the significance value for the correlation between vocabulary depth and reading comprehension is much less than 0.01 (p< 0.01), one can conclude that depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are positively correlated.

To investigate the fact that to what extent scores on the breadth of vocabulary correlated with those of reading comprehension, a two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis was conducted between the scores obtained through the administration of vocabulary size test and reading comprehension test. Table 2 depicts the correlational analysis of vocabulary size (VS) scores and reading comprehension (RC) test scores.

TABLE 2
TWO-TAILED PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN VOCABULARY SIZE (VS) AND READING COMPREHENSION (RC)

		RC	VS
RC	Pearson Correlation	1	.834(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	81	81
VS	Pearson Correlation	.834(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	81	81

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

The results of the Pearson correlation, as can be seen in Table 2, shows that the correlation between vocabulary size and reading comprehension test scores is .83 (r =.83).The significance column of the same table shows the significant value for the correlation between these two sets of variables is much less than 0.01 (P<0.01), so it is not hard to conclude that vocabulary size and reading comprehension are highly related.

At the third step, multiple regression analyses were conducted to predict the reading comprehension performance from, on one hand, vocabulary size, and on the other hand, depth of vocabulary knowledge. To determine the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension, scores on the vocabulary size (VS) and depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK) were taken as the predictor (or independent) variables and scores on the reading comprehension (RC) as the criterion (or dependent) variable. Through a multiple regression analysis using SPSS, hierarchical multiple regression analyses was chosen. With this method, variables or sets of variables are entered in steps, with each independent variable being assessed in terms of what it adds to the prediction of the dependent variable, after the previous variables are controlled (Pallant, 2001).

TABLE 3
THE RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION

		Adjusted R^2	R^2	B	β	Sig
DVK	RC	.532	**.538	.114	**.360	.000
VS		.692	**.696	.197	**.615	.000
VS,DVK		.772	**.778			.000

**p< 0.01

As Table 3 shows both vocabulary size (VS) and depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK) contribute significantly to the reading comprehension performance of the participants of the present study. As it can be seen, vocabulary size accounted for 69.6% (R^2 = .696) and vocabulary depth accounted for 53.8% (R^2 = .538) of the variance in reading comprehension of the participants of this study. Besides, the standardized regression coefficients (β) indicate that both vocabulary size and depth contributed significantly to the reading comprehension performance of the test takers. The above Table further shows that vocabulary size contributes more to the reading comprehension performance of the test takers than vocabulary depth, the standardized regression coefficient index (β) is .615 for vocabulary size and .360 for vocabulary depth.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Summarizing the answers for the research questions, it was found that, with the sample of Iranian EFL learners participated in this research study, scores on the depth of vocabulary knowledge, breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are closely related. Besides, the significance value showed that although vocabulary size correlated more strongly to reading comprehension than depth of vocabulary knowledge, the magnitudes of the correlation coefficients between each predictor variable and the criterion value do not differ significantly. Moreover, the correlations between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in this study are fairly close to their corresponding counterparts in Qian's (1999) Laufer's (1992b) Beglar and Hunt's (1999) Al Nujaidi's (2003) studies.

The results of the multiple-regression analysis indicate that, first, the dimension of depth of vocabulary knowledge is as important as that of vocabulary size: the two dimensions are closely associated with reading comprehension. Since the reading comprehension test in the present study aimed to measure the reading comprehension performance of

Iranian EFL University students, one can thus proceed to state that, for the EFL University Students and in academic settings, depth and breadth of vocabulary are closely and positively associated with the reading comprehension performance. In determining the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension from vocabulary size and vocabulary depth, the results obtained in this study runs against the findings of the Qian's (1999) study. Qian (1999) found that for the 77 Korean and Chinese English language learners participated in his study vocabulary depth contributed more to the reading comprehension of the test takers than vocabulary breadth. Although the results of the present research question run against that of Qian's (1999) study, these results do not seem surprising at the moment due to the stronger correlation with reading comprehension that vocabulary size shows in this study. Among vocabulary size and depth the one that has a stronger relationship with reading comprehension would be the more powerful predictor of reading comprehension. In this study the results suggest vocabulary size to be a stronger predictor of reading comprehension than vocabulary depth. In addition, since the empirical results have shown that vocabulary size and depth measures are similarly powerful in predicting reading comprehension, it would make sense to give equal weight to these two components of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension assessment.

VI. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Acknowledging some limitations through the accomplishment of different phases, several suggestions made for further research. First, a relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension was found to exist in this study; however, whether this relationship involved casualty was not investigated. Further research to investigate this causal relation can study the comparison between two different vocabulary enhancement treatments, such as reading only and reading plus. Next, the present research study employed only one type of vocabulary size measure (Schmitt, 2001) and vocabulary depth measure (Read, 1995) to assess the test takers' depth and size of vocabulary knowledge. The same research can be replicated using other vocabulary size tests, e.g. Eurocentres Vocabulary Size Test (Meara and Buxton, 1987; Meara and Jones, 1988, 1990), Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (Laufer and Nation, 1995) and vocabulary depth measures, e.g. Wesche and Paribakht's (1993, 1996) Vocabulary Scale Knowledge. Finally, the present research investigated the contribution of vocabulary knowledge to reading comprehension. The research did not look into the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and other language skills. Meara and Jones (1988) suggested that vocabulary knowledge is heavily implicated in all language skills, so future studies can be conducted to determine whether vocabulary knowledge can contribute significantly to the performance of English language learners in other language skills, i.e. listening comprehension, speaking and writing.

VII. APPLICATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The findings of this study could prove to be a particularly useful guideline for curriculum designers and material developers. The present research study shows that Iranian EFL University students' depth and size of vocabulary knowledge are strongly associated with their reading comprehension success. Now it is up to the curriculum designers and material developers to incorporate these aspects of vocabulary knowledge in EFL syllabi and materials.

It is also hoped that the findings of the present research can be useful in teaching English as a foreign language. As the results of the present study reveals for Iranian EFL learners both their depth and breadth of L2 lexical knowledge are fundamental components in the vocabulary knowledge-reading comprehension chain. The major trust of this finding is to make the teachers create an awareness of the importance of vocabulary knowledge, both depth and breadth, in the language learners. As Schmitt (1990) suggested what language learners become conscious of, what they pay attention to, and what they notice, influence and in some ways determine the outcome of their learning. Since language is vast and teachers cannot teach all words learners need, it will be highly desirable to raise the language learners' awareness of the importance of paying attention to developing their depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge while learning English as a foreign language.

APPENDIX 1: READING COMPREHENSION TEST (SAMPLE QUESTIONS OF READING COMPREHENSION TEST DEVELOPED BY PHILIPS, 2006)

Carbon tetrachloride is a colorless and inflammable liquid that can be produced by combining carbon disulfide and chlorine. This compound is widely used in industry today because of its effectiveness as a solvent as well as its use in the production of propellants.

Despite the widespread use in industry, carbon tetrachloride has been banned for home use. In the past, carbon tetrachloride was a common ingredient in cleaning compounds that were used throughout the home, but it was found to be dangerous: when heated, it changes into a poisonous gas that can cause severe illness and even death if it is inhaled. Because of this dangerous characteristic, the United States revoked permission for the home use of carbon tetrachloride in 1970.The United States has taken similar action with various other chemical compounds.

1. The main point of this passage is that
(A) carbon tetrachloride can be very dangerous when it is heated
(B) the government banned carbon tetrachloride in 1970
(C) although carbon tetrachloride can legally be used in industry, it is not allowed in home products

(D) carbon tetrachloride used to be a regular part of cleaning compounds.

2. The word "widely" in line 2 could most easily be replaced by

(A) grandly

(B) extensively

(C) largely

(D) hugely

3.The word "banned" in line 4 is closest in meaning to

(A)forbidden

(B) allowed

(C) suggested

(D) instituted

4. According to the passage, before 1970 carbon tetrachloride was

(A) used by itself as a cleanser

(B) banned in industrial use

(C)often used as a component of cleaning products

(D) not allowed in home cleaning products

5.It is stated in the passage that when carbon tetrachloride is heated, it becomes

(A) harmful

(B) colorless

(C) a cleaning compound

(D) inflammable

6. The word "inhaled" in line 7 is closest in meaning to

(A) warmed

(B) breathed in

(C) carelessly used

(D) blown

7. The word "revoked" in line 8 could most easily be replaced by

(A) gave

(B) granted

(C) instituted

(D) took away

8. It can be inferred from the passage that one role of the U.S. government is to

(A) regulate product safety

(B) prohibit any use of carbon tetrachloride

(C) instruct industry on cleaning methodologies

(D) ban the use of any chemicals

9. The paragraph following the passage most likely discusses

(A) additional uses for carbon tetrachloride

(B) the banning of various chemical compounds by the U.S. government

(C) further dangerous effects of tetrachloride

(D) the major characteristics of carbon tetrachloride

APPENDIX 2: VOCABULARY SIZE TEST (SAMPLE QUESTIONS OF VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST DEVELOPED BY SCHMITT, 2001)

The 2,000 word level

  1 copy

  2 event   _____ end or highest point

  3 motor   _____ this moves a car

  4 pity   _____ things made to be like another

  5 profit

  6 tip

  1 coffee

  2 disease   _____ money for work

  3 justice   _____ a piece of clothing

  4 skirt   _____ using the law in the right way

  5 stage

  6 wage

  1clerk

2 frame   _____ a drink
3 noise   _____ office worker
4 respect   _____ unwanted sound
5 theatre
6 wine

1 dozen
2 empire   _____ chance
3 gift   _____ twelve
4 tax   _____ money paid to the government
5 relief
6 opportunity

1 admire
2 complain   _____ make wider or longer
3 fix   _____ bring in for the first time
4 hire   _____ have a high opinion of someone
5 introduce
6 stretch

1 accident
2 debt   _____ loud deep sound
3 fortune   _____ something you must pay
4 pride   _____ have a high opinion of yourself
5 roar
6 thread

1 arrange
2 develop   _____ grow
3 lean   _____ put in order
4 owe   _____ like more than some thing else
5 prefer
6 seize

1 blame
2 elect   _____ make
3 fortune   _____ choose by voting
4 threaten   _____ become like water
5 melt
6 manufacture

1 accident
2 curious   _____ not easy
3 difficult   _____ very old
4 entire   _____ related to God
5 holy
6 social

1 slight
2 bitter   _____ beautiful
3 lovely   _____ small
4 merry   _____ like by many people
5 popular
6 independent

APPENDIX 3: DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE TEST: (SAMPLE QUESTIONS OF WORD ASSOCIATES TEST
DEVELOPED BY READ, 1995)

1 beautiful

enjoyable expensive free loud	education face music weather

2 bright

clever famous happy shining	colour hand poem taste

3 calm'

open quiet smooth tired	cloth day light person

4 natural

expected helpful real short	foods neighbours parents songs

5 fresh

another cool easy raw	cotton heat language water

6 general

closed different usual whole	country idea reader street

7 bare

empty heavy uncovered useful	cupboard feet school tool

8 acute

hidden often rich sharp	angle hearing illness stones

9 common

complete light ordinary shared	boundary circle name party

10 complex

angry difficult necessary sudden	argument passengers patterns problem

11 broad

full moving quiet wide	night river shoulders smile

12 conscious

awake healthy knowing laughing	face decision effort student

13 convenient

easy fresh near suitable	experience sound time vegetable

14 dense

crowded hot noisy thick	forest handle smoke weather

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Ahmad Moinzadeh is an Assistant Professor and teaches graduate courses in Applied Linguistics at University of Isfahan.

Roghaieh Moslehpour is an EFL instructor and teaches English at different language schools. She has received her B.A. in English Literature from Shiraz University and her M.A. in TEFL, from University of Isfahan.

Multiple True-false (MTF) and Multiple-choice (MC) Test Formats: A Comparison between Two Versions of the Same Test Paper of Iranian NUEE

Ali Mobalegh
Department of English, Faculty of foreign languages, Esfahan University, Esfahan, Iran
Email: ali_mobalegh@yahoo.com

Hossein Barati
Department of English, Faculty of foreign languages, Esfahan University, Esfahan, Iran
Email: h.barati@gmail.com

Abstract—This study tried to compare the Multiple-Choice (MC) item format with the Multiple True-False (MTF) item format in Iranian National University Entrance Examination (NUEE). It was desirable to find out (a) if either of the formats –MTF vs. MC– was preferred by test-takers and (b) if there was a difference between the reliability estimates of the tests with the two different formats. The study deployed a questionnaire and two tests with different formats to collect data. The analysis of the responses to the questionnaire determined that the MTF format is preferred over the traditional MC format in general by the subjects of the study. The quantitative analyses of the results of the tests show that the tests with different formats did not differ significantly in the respect of reliability coefficient.

Index Terms—multiple true-false (MTF) test format, cluster, multiple-choice (MC) test format

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the fundamental concepts in language testing is *items*. Fulcher & Davidson (2007) state "it is perhaps items or tasks that first come to mind when we think of tests. This is because they are the most obvious, visible, part of a test" (p. 69). The form of a test refers to its physical appearance which depends on the form of the items comprising the test (Cohen, 1994). According to Frisbie (1992) the purpose of an item is to elicit information. Each item has two parts: one, called the stem, is for eliciting information; and the other, called the response, is for the answer to the stem. Items are classified by the figures in language testing field according to the way the stems are supposed to be responded to.

Recognition items require the examinees to understand the stem and then recognize and select the correct response from among several alternatives. The examinee is not asked to produce anything. The most common forms of recognition items are *true/false*, *multiple-choice (MC)*, and *matching-type* items. In true/false items, a stem is given and the examinee is to recognize whether the idea put forward in the stem is true or false (Farhady, 1985). Multiple-choice (MC) items, on the other hand, include a stem followed by a few alternatives. Only one of the alternatives is the correct response to the stem and the others are distracters. In relation to the stem of the MC items Heaton (1988) states that "the primary purpose of the stem is to present the problem clearly and concisely. … At the same time, the stem should not contain extraneous information or irrelevant clues… " (p. 30).

Many scholars (e.g., Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; and Harris, 1969) believe that MC item format is the most widely used in the field of language testing. This is because of the advantages, like objectivity and high reliability, which are supposed to be inseparable with such items. Regarding the strengths of MC items, Harris (1969) maintains that "because of the highly structured nature of these items [MC items], the test writer can get directly at many of the specific skills and learnings he wishes to measure, and the examinee cannot evade difficult problems as he often can with compositions" (p. 7). Harris (1969) continues to state that "multiple-choice tests tend to have superior reliability and validity" (p. 7). McNamara (2000) points out the fact that MC tests are very versatile and can be used to assess almost all language skills. Still another advantage of MC tests refers to their ease of scoring, i.e., MC items are scored easily, rapidly, accurately and objectively by teachers, scoring machines and computers. Further, the accuracy of scoring MC tests leads to consistency of scores which in turn contributes to a higher degree of reliability (Tuckman, 1988). These advantages have caused MC tests to be used in large-scale administrations.

In spite of the above advantages, MC tests have not escaped the criticisms of the scholars. In relation to the shortcomings of MC items Heaton (1988) states that "the chief criticism of the multiple-choice item, however, is that frequently it does not lend itself to the testing of language as communication" (p. 37). Regarding another weakness of

MC items, Oller & Perkins (1978) assert, preparation of sound MC items is challenging and technically difficult. In the same way, Farhady & Shakery (2000) point out that it is commonly believed that preparing an MC item with sound and plausible alternatives is not an easy task. Some other scholars like Bush (2001), Wood (1991), Akeroyd (1982) and Coombs *et al* (1956) believe that the traditional MC tests are unable to gauge the partial knowledge due to the fact that in that format it is the matter of all or none; a test taker either answers an item or not. This way, the examiner cannot differentiate between a test taker who was doubtful between only two options and another one that did not have any idea about the correct answer. Attempts have been made to overcome such a shortcoming by proposing innovative formats to replace the traditional MC items.

One of the attempts to improve the traditional MC format has been the Multiple True-False (MTF) format. Before discussing the MTF format, which is the focus of this study, some of the formats that have tried to replace the conventional MC format are introduced in the following section.

Bush (2001) proposes an adapted new version of MC tests called *"liberal"* MC test. This innovative MC format allows test takers to choose more than one answer if they are uncertain which is the correct one. The term *liberal* is used to denote the extra dimension of choice. To appreciate the implications of selecting multiple answers, consider the scoring procedure of liberal MC items.

(1) If an examinee knows the right answer to the question, s/he can get 3/3=100% for that question.

(2) If the examinee is correct in thinking that the right answer is one of two options, s/he can get (3−1)/3 = 67% for that question, compared with an equal chance of getting either 0 or 100% in a standard MC test.

(3) If the examinee is correct in thinking that the right answer is one of three options, s/he can get (3 − 2)/3=33% for that question, compared with having a 33% chance of getting 100% in a traditional MC test.

Another innovative trend set in MC testing was proposed by Akeroyd (1982). This is referred to as *"Dual Response"* MC test. Akeroyd (1982) proposed a scheme which is similar to liberal MC tests. It aims to assess partial knowledge explicitly and the test taker can choose more than one option. But the scoring system of *dual response* MC test is different. For an item with 4 alternatives, 1 mark is awarded for selecting the correct answer, 0.5 for selecting two answers including the correct one, 0.25 for an omission of a distracter and 0 for anything else. Bush (2001) believes that this method is inferior to his *liberal* MC test for three reasons: "(1) it appears to be less rational; (2) it only rewards examinees who successfully select one or two answers (not three); and (3) it results in inflated marks overall, even though it does not reward examinees as much as our method for selecting two answers that include the correct one" (p. 162).

Another method which asserts to have some advantages over the traditional MC tests is the *"Elimination Procedure"* proposed by Coombs *et al*. (1956). This requires examinees to select the answers which they believe are *wrong*, rather than those they believe are or may be right. The tests items are marked +1 when the wrong answer is correctly eliminated, but n−1 is for every right answer eliminated, while "n" is the number of answers per question.

Finally, the Multiple True-False format (MTF) is another strive to enhance the MC format. The origin of the format is not clear in the literature but the most influencing propagator of it are Frisbie (1992), Frisbie, D. A., & Becker, D. F. (1991), Frisbie, D. A., & Druva, C. A. (1986), and Frisbie, D. A., & Sweeney, D. C. (1982). It is worth mentioning that no studies on this format have been done in recent years. Since this format is the focus of this study, it is explained thoroughly in subsequent section.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Definition of MTF Items

MTF tests are classified as *recognition* type tests which have been presented only in written mode. Frisbie (1992) defines the MTF item as:

…one of several pieces of a cluster that looks like a multiple-choice item. The cluster has a stem that is an incomplete statement, and it has two or more options that independently complete the stem. The examinee must respond *true* or *false* to each statement formed by the stem and an option (p. 21).

Four points are very important in the definition of the MTF item given by Frisbie (1992): 1. One MTF cluster consists of the stem plus the following options. 2. Each MTF *cluster* contains as many *items* as the options that follow the stem. 3. The stem of an MTF item should be an *incomplete* statement, not a question. 4. Considering the preceding stem, the examinee is supposed to decide if each of the options is *true* or *false*, rather than select only one option as the correct answer, as he/she does in an MC test. Table1 displays 2 MTF cluster; they are not for testing language ability.

TABLE1.
TWO MTF CLUSTERS

*** THE SURVEY METHOD OF RESEARCH USUALLY INVOLVES_____.
__ 1. EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES
__ 2. NON-MANIPULATIVE TECHNIQUES
__ 3. INVASION OF PRIVACY
__ 4. CORRELATION METHODS
*** THE SET OF SCORES (4, 5, 5, 7, 8, 9, 9, 15) HAS____.
__ 5. A MEDIAN OF 7.5
__ 6. A SYMMETRIC SHAPE
__ 7. MORE THAN ONE MODE
__ 8. A LARGER MEAN THAN MEDIAN

The two clusters shown in table 1 are about principles of research and mathematics respectively. Two things are important to note:

1. As shown in table 1, the beginning of each cluster is identified with three asterisks (***) and the stems are not numbered; the options, rather than the stems, are numbered. And it is important to point out that the options of the clusters are numbered consecutively; the same way of numbering would continue to the next clusters. The same layout of the MTF item format has been followed by the figures in the field since many years ago (e.g., Dudley, 2006, 2004; Brown & Hudson, 2002; Frisbie, 1992; Frisbie & Sweeny, 1982; Cronbach, 1939).

2. The second important point about table 1 is that each MTF cluster, which looks like one MC item, contains 4 items; so by converting each MC item to an MTF cluster, 4 MTF items are formed.

About the MTF item format Frisbie (1992) states:

Each MTF cluster may have any number of items true, and the correctness of any one item is judged independently of the correctness of other items within the same cluster. ...unlike an MC item stem, the MTF cluster stem cannot be a question, and it should not ask the respondent to compare options in any way (p. 22).

So in one MTF cluster one, two, three or all of the options (items) could be true. From Frisbie's (1992) comment, it can be concluded that all the items in the same cluster are not about the same point necessarily; each option (item) in the cluster should be looked at as an independent question from other options in the same cluster. A cluster, then, may deal with a single idea or with multiple related ideas. Both clusters in table 1 deal with multiple related ideas.

An important aspect of the MTF item format is the way in which this format is scored. The following section explains briefly the ways that figures in the field have used before.

B. Ways of Scoring MTF Items

One of the areas which is not crystal clear in the literature is the way MTF items should be scored; none of the sources available clarified the subject thoroughly. However, Dudley (2006) and Frisbie & Druva (1986) briefly explain that there are two scoring methods: ***cluster scoring*** and ***primary scoring***. In the former method, items are scored in a similar way to the way traditional MC items are scored. That is, each cluster receives a score based on the number of options correctly identified, true or false, for its stem. In the latter method, the primary scoring, the test is scored based on the total number of correct responses, irrespective of the clusters.

This study particularly focuses on the MTF format and the comparison between the MC and the MTF format. The advantages that are talked about in the literature are discussed in the next section.

C. Advantages of the MTF Item Format

Many studies have been conducted to compare the MTF format with other formats that are popular. Almost all of these studies (Hill & woods, 1974; Albanese & Sabers, 1988; Gross, 1978; Frisbie & Sweeny, 1982; Frisbie & Druva, 1986; Kreiter & Frisbie, 1989 and Dudley, 2004, 2006) agree that:

1) The number of main responses elicited in a particular amount of time is more in MTF format than in other similar formats.

2) The reliability estimates of items in the MTF format is equal to or higher than those of the items in other formats like MC items.

Frisbie & Sweeney (1982) report that "the expected advantage in terms of test reliability was documented by Albanese et al. (1977), Kelly (1979), and Mendelson et al. (1980)" (p. 29).

In line with the advantages of the MTF format Kreiter & Frisbie (1989) point out:

The MTF format elicits four responses per item stem, whereas the MC item permits only one response. If the examinee answers the MC item correctly, it is difficult to make a meaningful inference regarding the individual's knowledge about the unmarked responses. However, because a response is made to each of the four items in the MTF cluster, the altered format [MTF format] appears to yield more information than the conventional MC item (p. 208).

The advantages explained above have made the MTF format an important item format in the field of testing. According to Dudley (2006) "research on the validity of using of the MTF format as a testing tool in general education has been carried out since the 1940s, and its value has been well documented in both early and recent testing literature" (p. 199). In the field of second language testing, however, caution has thus far been advised in using the MTF format because its application to second language testing has not undergone rigorous research (Brown and Hudson, 2002).

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In Iran, almost all of the important high-stakes language tests, like the entrance exam of universities, are administered in the MC format. Very few people are acquainted with the MTF format which can be a strong rival for the MC format. Through this study, the researcher aims to discover if the English language items in the MTF format can exceed their counterparts in the MC format in national university entrance examination, NUEE, in Iran. The researcher was supposed to find out about students' perception of the MTF format compared to their perception of the MC format. Also, it is desirable to compare the reliability estimates of the same test with the two different formats, MC and MTF.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study focused on two research questions:
1. Is either of the formats −MTF vs. MC− preferred by test-takers?
2. Is there a difference between the reliability estimates of the tests with the two different formats?

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Pilot Study

At the beginning, MTF items were constructed out of the MC items of the English part of the NUEE administered in 1386. So, MTF clusters were constructed out of 20 MC items. Since the tests meant to be used in the main study had not been piloted before, the researcher piloted the tests to make sure no problems would crop up in the main study. This pilot study was to ensure the researcher of the appropriate timing, and test administration procedures. The 48 participants in the pilot study were selected from two typical public high schools by chance. All the participants were male students aged 18 to 19. 24 participants in the pilot study were given the MC test and 24 participants in the pilot study took the MTF test. The participants comments on the MTF items compared with the MC items were recorded to be used in the closed questionnaire used in the main study. The pilot study had some implications for the main study: 1. It was found that test takers had some problems understanding test instructions, therefore it was decided to change the instructions into Persian. 2. 20 students of the group who took the MTF test (20 clusters) finished the test within 30 minutes, so it was decided that 30 minutes would be sufficient for the subjects in the main study to take the MTF test.

3. None of the students in the groups who took the MC test (20 items) had any problems with the test and 22 of them finished the test in 15 minutes. Again it was found out that 15 minutes would be enough for the MC test to be taken.

B. Main Study

Investigating if the MTF format can be a good substitute for the MC format in general and in the NUEE in particular gave rise to the present study. The focus of the research is whether prospective test takers prefer the MTF format over the traditional MC format and if the MTF format enjoys a better reliability coefficient.

a. Participants

For carrying out the main study 200 students of the pre-university level were selected. All the participants were 18- to 19-year old boys. The participants were selected through cluster random selection. Two districts, 1 and 5 were selected. In each district two schools and in each school two classes were selected.

TABLE 2.
NUMBER OF THE PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR SPECIFICATIONS IN THE MAIN STUDY

DISTRICT	PRE-UNIVERSITY SCHOOL	CLASS	N	GENDER	AGE
5	SADAT	A	25	MALE	18-19
		B	25	MALE	
	GHADIR	A	25	MALE	18-19
		B	25	MALE	
1	SHEIKHBAHAI	A	25	MALE	18-19
		B	25	MALE	
	NILFOROUSHZADEH	A	25	MALE	18-19
		B	25	MALE	

b. Instruments

As mentioned above this study aims to examine if converting the format of NUEE from MC to MTF can make the test more satisfying for the test takers. To do so, two tests with different formats (i.e., MC and MTF) were developed. In addition, one questionnaire was constructed using the comments given by participants in the pilot study. The instruments are explained in detail below.

1. The MC Test

One of the tests used in the study was in MC format. The test was one of the NUEE papers administered in 1386. The English language test in the first booklet given to the applicants for the universities was selected. It is also important to know that the last part of the test, which consisted of 5 reading comprehension questions, was omitted from the study because reading comprehension questions were not included in the MTF test. The MC test used in the study consisted of 20 items; 5 items on English grammar, 10 items on English vocabulary, and 5 cloze items. Except omitting the

reading comprehension questions, the MC test was not changed anymore; in the pilot study no problems were encountered so no changes were necessary (see appendix1).

2. The MTF Test

This test was developed by the researcher and was the converted MTF format of the MC test discussed above. The reading comprehension questions of the MC test were not converted and were not used in the study. It was done due to the fact that it was not possible to consider more than one correct answer for each reading comprehension question; so converting them to MTF clusters was meaningless After converting the MC items, the MTF items were revised by 2 university professors and 3 postgraduates of applied linguistics and 6 high school English teachers who had more than 7 years of experience in English teaching. Their comments on test rubrics and some items were taken into account and a few changes were made in some items and instructions. The MTF test developed by the researcher had 80 items (20 items on English grammar, 40 items on English vocabulary, and 20 cloze items) that corresponded with the 20 MC items of the NUEE test. Because the tests in the MTF format consist of clusters and each cluster includes 4 *true/false* items the number of items are multiplied by four when the MC tests are converted to MTF tests; each MC item is converted to one MTF cluster (see appendix2).

3. The Questionnaire

The other instrument used to collect data in the present study was a closed Likert scale 4-degree questionnaire (see appendixe3) to be answered by the subjects in the study. This questionnaire had 10 questions based on the comments made by the participants in the pilot study and it was in Persian so that participants would not have difficulty understanding the sentences. The respondents were allowed to ask any questions for clarification if they needed.

c. Procedure

The study was carried out in each school separately. The participants were asked to congregate in the auditorium of the school. The seats were arranged in 4 columns. The participants in the first and third columns took the MTF test and those in the second and fourth columns took the MC test.

On the first page of each test some points were explained. Those points included the time allowed for completing the test (15 minutes for the MC test and 30 minutes for the MTF test), the penalty for each wrong answer and that they should use the answer sheet available to them for answering the test.

As discussed above, the instructions of the MTF test was in Persian but the instructions of the MC test was in English, as it is in the NUEE sessions.

The students were asked to start the test at a specific time. Attempt was made to make the test situation exactly like NUEE sessions. Dictionaries were not allowed and the participants were prohibited from talking with each other. Also, no questions were answered to keep up with the NUEE typical situation.

After 15 minutes all the students in the second and fourth columns, who took the MC test, were asked to hand in their answer sheets and after 30 minutes students in the first and third columns, who took the MTF test, were asked to hand in their answer sheets.

Because the participants' teachers agreed to consider the results of the test as a determining factor for the participants' final mark, the participants in the study were presumably motivated enough to take the test seriously. It is also important to know that this study was carried out right after English language final exam in each school, so test takers were prepared as they are for NUEE.

The participants who took the MTF test were familiar with the traditional MC format of NUEE. They had been studying at high school for 4 years and had experienced taking many MC tests. So they were assumed as qualified for comparing the two formats of MC and MTF. So following the exam session, those participants who took the MTF test completed the questionnaire on the new test, the MTF test.

d. Scoring Procedures

For scoring procedures the MC test items received +1 for each correct response, -1/3 for each wrong answer and the questions left unanswered were given 0; this is the procedure implemented in NUEE.

Because each cluster in the MTF test corresponds to one MC item, attempt was made to apply a method comparable to that used for the MC test. So it was decided to draw on the *cluster scoring* method for scoring the MTF tests. One participant who answered all the items in one cluster correctly should get the same score as the participant who answered one MC item correctly. Each correctly answered MTF item received +1/4, so if a participant answered all the four items of a cluster correctly he received +1. And each wrong response to MTF items received -1/12, so if a participant answered all the four items of a cluster incorrectly he received -1/3. Also, unanswered MTF items were given 0.

VI. Data Analysis and Results

All the gathered data were put into analytical techniques to address the research questions. In order to sum up the participants' opinion about the MTF format and to come up with a general conclusion for the first research question, *Mann-Whitney* test analysis was run on the *average* of the answers to the questions of the questionnaire. The options of the questions in the questionnaire were given different values; *completely agree:* 4, *agree:* 3, *disagree:* 2, *completely disagree:* 1; the average value of the options is 2.5, (4+3+2+1)/4=2.5. This analysis is presented in table 3below.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY ANALYSIS ON THE AVERAGE OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE
Test Statistics(a)

	AVG1
Mann-Whitney U	4000.000
Wilcoxon W	9050.000
Z	-2.612
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.009

a Grouping Variable: VAR00001
Statistics
AVG1

N	Valid	100
Mean		2.7267

As it is shown above Sig. value is .009. The Sig. value is less than the critical value which is .05. So the two difference between the formats is significant. Because the *mean* value is 2.72 it can be concluded that the MTF format is generally preferred over the MC format by the participants; 2.72 is greater than 2.5 which is the average of the values of the responses to the questions in the questionnaire.

The reliability analysis of Cronbach's Alpha on the results of the MC and MTF tests proved that the reliability estimates of the tests with different formats were not very different; the reliability value of the MTF test was 0.78 and the reliability value of the MC test was 0.79. These results are unexpectedly very different from the previous research (e.g., Dudley, 2004; Frisbie & Sweeny, 1982; etc).

VII. DISCUSSION

It should be pointed out that some aspects of the MC format are preferred over those of the MTF format. They are listed below.

1. In the fifth question of the questionnaire, the participants were asked if the *cloze test* of the MTF exam was boring, tiring and time consuming. On the basis of the data obtained from the responses, 68 percent of the participants voted that the MTF test was boring, tiring and time consuming in the cloze part. This can be considered one of the shortcomings or limitations of this new format. No previous research has worked on the effectiveness of the MTF format in cloze testing procedure.

2. In the MTF tests the test taker has to judge the same incomplete sentence (stem) for as many times as the number of the following options (items). In the sixth question of the questionnaire the participants were asked if it was really awkward to do that. Based on the responses to question 6 of the questionnaire, 62 percent of the participants agreed that they were not comfortable reading the stem of each cluster for four times.

3. The ninth question of the questionnaire asked the participants if the MTF test was more confusing and more difficult to understand than the MC format. On the basis of the responses to question 9, 71 percent of the participants believed that the MTF format was confusing. One factor that could have caused it is the fact that test takers had never encountered the MTF format up to then. It should be reminded that any new unconventional format would have been as confusing in the first administration. This confusion might have stemmed from other factors, too. Anyway, the reason is not related to the present study.

All in all, the MTF format can be looked at as a proper substitute for the traditional MC format in the NUEE in particular and in any high-stakes achievement tests in general. This study has proved that the MTF format enjoys a better face validity and acceptance from the test taker perspective. This claim is based on the definition given for face validity by McNamara (2000): "Face validity is the extent to which a test meets the expectations of those involved in its use, e.g. administrators, teachers, candidates and test score users" (p. 133).

VIII. LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Throughout the study, the researcher encountered some problems and limitations which are listed below from the most serious limitation to the least serious one:

1. The MTF format could not be used for the *reading comprehension* part of the English language test in *konkoor*. In fact, all reading comprehension questions can have only one correct answer and using MTF clusters is meaningless for them.

2. Another obstacle that the researcher had to struggle with was motivating the students to prepare themselves for the test and take the test seriously. Of course, the study was carried out after the participants' final English exam, so the participants were prepared. To motivate the students to take the test seriously, their teachers agreed to consider the result of the tests as one part of the participants' final exam.

3. Because of the rules of the educational ministry, the researcher was not allowed to go to girls' high schools to gather data from girls; this is the reason why the participants in the study were only boys.

IX. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of the present study together with the limitations observed above provide some clues for further research studies. The following suggestions may be helpful:

1. In the present study the concurrent validity of the MTF test was not checked against a standardized test like TOEFL. It is important to investigate the extent to which the tests with MTF format are concurrently valid to such tests.

2. This study can be carried out including female participants and also the same study can be done in a nation-wide scale.

X. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study has instigated the way of replacing the MC format with the MTF format. It has been proved that the replacement has many precious advantages like a better face validity. This change calls for more research and other aspects of it should be investigated in further studies.

APPENDIX 1: THE MC TEST OF NUEE HELD IN 1386

Part A: Grammar
Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentence.
1. I turned off the TV because I didn't find the film _____.
   1) amusingly   2) amusing 3) amused   4) amuses
2. Mary is taking driving lessons _____ she can easily pass the test.
   1) when   2) whether   3) because   4) so that
3. It is _____ late for us to go to the movie tonight.
   1) very   2) so as   3) too   4) enough
4. All the food _____ before we got to the picnic.
   1) has eaten   2) had eaten   3) had been eaten   4) has been eaten
5. Ann's birthday was on the 5th, and today is the 8th. Her birthday card _____ a week ago.
   1) should be sent   2) should have sent
   3) should be sending   4) should have been sent
Part B: Vocabulary
Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentence.
6. A thin flat piece of paper, metal, plastic, glass, etc. is called _____.
   1) sheet   2) core   3) layer   4) crust
7. The examination is going to be _____ at 10:30. Try not to come late.
   1) made   2) held   3) performed   4) occurred
8. Jane can get the job done. I have full _____ in her abilities.
   1) confidence   2) exploration   3) endeavor   4) training
9. Could you stop talking please? You are _____ me from my work.
   1) recalling   2) influencing   3) denying   4) distracting
10. My son does not wear these clothes. He says they are not _____ these days.
   1) forbidden   2) emotional   3) fashionable   4) superior
11. There is too little _____ about the present state of the German economy.
   1) certainty   2) attention   3) emergency   4) presentation
12. Were you _____ to move away from home by your parents?
   1) located   2) predicted   3) transferred   4) encouraged
13. I'm afraid there is no mechanism for dealing with your complaint. "Mechanism" means:
   1) purpose   2) method   3) function   4) occasion
14. I was sick and had to stay home for two weeks. Now I think it is hard to _____ up with the class.
   1) give   2) keep   3) pass   4) take
15. From his _____ expression I realized he was sad but not happy.
   1) reasonable   2) natural   3) facial   4) private
Part C: Cloze Test
Read the passage and decide which choice (1), (2), (3), or (4) best fits each space.
Language may have started in one place and spread from that place. Or it may, 16) _____, have started in several places. In any event, if the people of the world had been 17)_____ in touch with one another all through their history, we might now have had only one language. 18)_____ mountains and seas have 19)_____ peoples apart. Today there are more than 1000 languages. Some 20)_____ by many millions of people, others by only a few thousand.
   16. 1) so far   2) instead   3) thus   4) besides
   17. 1) closely   2) briefly   3) silently   4) softly
   18. 1) But   2) Therefore   3) Though   4) While
   19. 1) removed   2) made   3) kept   4) looked
   20. 1) spoken   2) be spoken   3) were spoken   4) are spoken

APPENDIX 2: THE MTF TEST (THE CONVERTED TEST)

<div dir="rtl">

در هر مستطیل یک جمله ناتمام وجود دارد و هر گزینه یک سوال محسوب می شود (هر مستطیل حاوی چهار سوال است) . جمله های ناتمام را بخوانید و در پاسخنامه درستی یا نادرستی هریک از گزینه ها را به صورت مجزا مشخص کنید.

گزینه صحیح:**T**

گزینه غلط:**F**

</div>

There is an incomplete sentence in each box. Decide which options correctly complete the sentence (T) and which ones cannot correctly complete the sentence (F).

Part A: Grammar

> **I turned off the TV because _____.**
> **1) it wasn't amusing   T / F**
> **2) I wasn't amused   T / F**
> **3) it did not amuse me T / F**
> **4) I wasn't amusing   T / F**

> Mary is taking driving lessons _____.
> 5) when she can pass the test   **T / F**
> 6) whether it is easy or not   **T / F**
> 7) because she knows how to drive   **T / F**
> 8) so that she can easily pass the test **T / F**

> It is _____ late for us to go to the movies tonight.
> 9) so   **T / F**   10) really **T / F**   11) too   **T / F**   12) enough   **T / F**

> All the food _____ before we got to the picnic.
> 13) had been eaten   **T / F**
> 14) was finished   **T / F**
> 15) had eaten   **T / F**
> 16) has eaten   **T / F**

> Ann's birthday was on the 5th, and today is the 8th. Her birthday card _____ a week ago.
> 17) should be sent   **T / F**   18) was sent **T / F**
> 19) had been sent   **T / F**   20) should have been sent **T / F**

Part B: Vocabulary

> A thin flat piece of paper, metal, plastic, glass, etc. is called _____.
> 21) sheet **T/F**   22) core **T/F**   23) page **T/F**   24) crust **T/F**
> The examination is going to _____ at 10:30. Try not to come late.
> 25) be given **T/F**   26) be held **T/F**   27) begin **T/F**   28) take **T/F**

> Jane can get the job done. I have _____ in her abilities.
> 29) no exploration **T/F**   30) endeavor **T/F**
> 31) no doubt **T/F**   32) confidence **T/F**

> Could you stop talking please? You are _____ .
> 33) disturbing me   **T/F**   34) interrupting the speech **T/F**
> 35) distracting my attention **T/F**   36) recalling me   **T/F**

> My son does not wear these clothes. He says they are not _____ these days.
> 37) forbidden **T/F**   38) emotional **T/F**
> 39) fashionable **T/F**   40) popular **T/F**

> There is too little _____ about the present state of the German economy.
> 41) certainty **T/F**   42) presentation **T/F**   43) emergency **T/F**   44) hope **T/F**

> Were you _____ to move away from home by your parents?
> 45) permitted **T/F**   46) allowed **T/F**   47) transferred **T/F**   48) encouraged **T/F**

> I'm afraid there is no mechanism for dealing with your complaint.
> "Mechanism" means:
> 49) way **T/F**   50) method **T/F**   51) function   **T/F**   52) occasion **T/F**

> I was sick and had to stay home for two weeks. Now I think it is hard to _____ up with the class.
> 53) give **T/F**   54) keep **T/F**   55) catch **T/F**   56) take **T/F**

> From his _____ expression I realized he was sad but not happy.
> 57) reasonable **T/F** 58) natural **T/F** 59) facial   **T/F**   60) obvious **T/F**

Part C: Cloze Test

متن زیر را به دقت بخوانید. برای هر جای خالی در متن چهار گزینه وجود دارد. در پاسخنامه برای هر گزینه که میتواند جای خالی مربوط به خود را کامل کند **T** را علامت بزنید و برای هر گزینه که نئیتواند عبارت مناسبی برای جای خالی مربوطه باشد **F** را علامت بزنید.

Read the text below and for each gap decide which options are appropriate and true (T) and which options are inappropriate and false (F).

Language may have started in one place and spread from that place. Or it may, (61-64) _____, have started in several places. In any event, if the people of the world had been (65-68) _____ in touch with one another all through their history, we might now have had only one language. (69-72)_____ mountains and seas have (73-76)_____ peoples apart. Today there are more than 1000 languages. Some (77-80) _____ by many millions of people, others by only a few thousands.

61) so far **T/F**	62) instead **T/F**	63) also **T/F**	64) besides **T/F**

65) closely **T/F**	66) quietly **T/F**	67) silently **T/F**	68) well **T/F**

69) But **T/F**	70) Therefore **T/F**	71) While **T/F**	72) However **T/F**

73) removed **T/F**	74)called **T/F**	75) kept **T/F**	76)held **T/F**

77) spoken **T/F**	78) are spoken **T/F**	79) be spoken **T/F**	80) were spoken **T/F**

APPENDIX 3: THE QUESTIONNAIRE GIVEN TO THE STUDENTS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

لطفاً سوألات زیر را به دقت بخوانید و گزینه مورد نظر خود را انتخاب کنید. از همکاری شما کمال تشکر را دارم.

Please, read the questions and choose one of the options for each question.

1. I think the MTF test can cover more parts of the text book than the MC test.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۱. به نظر من این نوع امتحان نسبت به سوألهای چهار گزینه ای مطالب بیشتری از کتاب را در یک سوأل می سنجید.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

2. I think the MTF test let me show my abilities better.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۲. فکر می کنم این نوع سوأل کمک کرد تا توانائیهای خود را در زبان انگلیسی بهتر نشان دهم.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

3. The MTF test made me think more deeply than the MC test.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۳. این سبک سوأل نسبت به سوألهای چهار گزینه ای من را وادار به فکر کردن بیشتری می کرد.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

4. In the vocabulary part of the MTF test I was given a point for each option the meaning of which I knew and was able to say whether it fit the blank or not, which was really fair.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۴.در بخش دوم (Vocabulary) چون معنای لغات داخل هر گزینه را که میدانستم برایم نمره مثبت داشت بسیار خوب بود.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

5. The cloze test of the MTF test *was not* boring or time consuming.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۵. برای بخش سوم (Cloze Test) این نوع سوأل هرگز خسته کننده و وقت گیر **نبود.**
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

6. That I had to read each stem four times, once for each option, was really trouble making.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۶. اینکه مجبور بودم هر جمله ناتمام را چهار بار بصورت جداگانه بخوانم مشکل ساز **نبود.**
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

7. The MTF test raised new questions for me and made me notice important gaps in my knowledge.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۷. امتحان چنان بودند که برای من ایجاد سوأل های جدید می کرد و من را متوجه نکاتی که در آنها نیاز به یادگیری بیشتر داشتم میکرد.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

8. In the traditional MC tests, knowing the answer- the correct option- was enough but in the MTF test I needed to have a better command to get the whole points.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۸. درسوأل های چهار گزینه ای اگر جواب درست را می دانستم کافی بود ولی در این سوأل ها نیاز به تسلط بیشتری به مطالب کتاب داشتم.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

9. The MTF test *was not* confusing in general.
    a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۹. این نوع سوأل در مجموع اصلاً مبهم و گیج کننده **نبود**.
الف) کاملاً موافقم   ب) موافقم   ج) مخالفم   د) کاملاً مخالفم

10. I think that the MTF format was quite different from the regular true-false format.
   a) completely agree   b) agree   c) disagree   d) completely disagree

۱۰. بنظر من این نوع سوأل کاملاً با سوألات درست/نادرست (T/F) معمولی متفاوت است.
الف) کاملاً موافقم ب) موافقم   ج) مخالفم د) کاملاً مخالفم

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Ali Mobalegh (b. 1982, Isfahan, Iran) is currently Master from the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He received his M.A. in TEFL at the University of Isfahan (2008) following the completion of his B.A. in English Literature from University of Isfahan, Iran (2005). His main research areas of interest are: English Language Testing, Language Teaching Methodology. He has been working as an EFL instructor since 2000.

Hossein Barati works in the English department, University of Isfahan, where he is assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics. He has a PhD in 'Language Testing' from University of Bristol and has been involved in research in language testing, programme evaluation, reading strategies, and classroom discourse. Before becoming a university lecturer in 1992, he worked as a language teacher at Ministry of Education, Isfahan, Iran. He has published in areas of language testing and assessment, and language programme evaluation. He is a member of a research project on *Developing a new model of teaching to adult English non-majors at University of Isfahan*, funded by University of Isfahan.

He has also co-authored some publications on DIF in Iranian National University Entrance Exam (INUEE), 2007; Linguistic constraints and language teaching, 2008; and Cultural differences in EFL performance on cloze tests, 2010. Further a text-book *A step forward in English for intermediate EFL learners* (2010) is among his latest publications.

Hossein is currently working on '*New plans for Teaching English to Iranian adult non-majors*', '*Teaching English to Iranian young learners*, and '*The consequential validity of high stakes tests in the Iranian context*'.

The Complexity Structures of Conversational Interaction among Participants

Huaizhou Mao
Foreign Language Department of Changji University, Changji, Xinjiang, China
Email: mhzmed@sina.com

Rong Luo
Foreign Language Department of Changji University, Changji, Xinjiang, China
Email: sbnelr@163.com

Abstract—**This paper aims to explore the complexity structures of conversational interaction among participants based on the theory of cooperative principles, turn-taking and topic shifts theoretically to justify the potential possibility of handling the complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants. Grice's conversational maxims determines the possibility of cooperative principles in conversational interaction, the unpredictability of the turn-taking and the uncertainty of the topic shifts in negotiating topics make the conversational process complex. If speakers probe to develop the awareness of the complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants in conversational situation, the possibility and unpredictability in spontaneous speech can be realized. However, the paper didn't touch the process of the role analysis, the process of turn-taking analysis, the process of conversational maxims analysis and the topic-shifts in actual conversations based on the transcription.**

Index Terms—**complexity of structures, conversational interaction, conversational maxims, turn-taking, topic shifts**

I. INTRODUCTION

In pragmatics, the complexity of the structures of conversational interaction among participants is determined by several factors such as the roles of the addresser and addressee, the structure of the conversation as opening conversation, the turning-taking between the addresser and addressee, the topic-shifts, the cooperative principles of the conversation interaction and the conversational settings as well.

An effective conversational interaction must be sufficient with the above conditions. In that case, the complexity of the addresser and addressee's structure of conversational interaction is justified.

The structure of the conversational interaction depicts the outline of a solid conversation where, according to the conversational settings, the alternative structure of conversational interaction (Charles, Fillmore 1981; Jeff & Feldstein 1970; Sacks, Schegloff & Fefferson 1974; Schegloff & Sacks 1973; Hatch & Long 1980 cited in Carroll 2000 & H, D. Brown 2002) can be roughly divided into two parts as opening and closing conversation; meanwhile, "conversation are cooperative ventures" (Hatch & Long 1980, p4). The question is what the rules is that govern conversational interaction; how we get someone's attention; how we initiate topics and how we terminate topics and avoid topics; how a person interrupts, corrects or seeks clarification. The above questions form an area of linguistic competence that every adult native speaker of a language possesses by virtue of conversation rules as the rules of attention getting, topic nomination, topic development and topic termination.

The complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants depends on the number of the participants as well as the turn-taking in the absence of formal rules. As Clark (1994) pointed out that Conversations often takes place in a context where various types of nonparticipants are also present: (1) supposing Alan asks Barbara a question, Alan and Barbara then are participants in the conversation; (2) supposing Connie has been present during the conversation but is not directly involved in the question. She is a side participant in the conversation; (3) others within earshot are overhearers, who come in varieties; (4) bystanders are those who are openly present but do not participate in the conversation; (5) eavesdroppers are those who listen in without the speaker's awareness. (p4) Many conversational situations bring these roles into play and resort to a variety of strategies when dealing with overhearers, including disclosure, concealment and indifference.

If it is the case that multi-roles played by the participants, "How do speakers avoid 'bumping into' one another in the course of conversations?" According to Sacks et al. (1974), turning-taking during conversational interaction operates by three implicit rules. Turn-taking turns (changes) among the rules of the participants constantly: (1) if the person who speaks first becomes a listener as soon as the person addressed takes h/she turn in the conversation by beginning to speak; (2) the rules for turn-taking may differ from one community to another as they do from one type of speech event to another (Richards; Platt & Platt 2000, p.490).

However, since any statement provides multiple opportunities for topic shifts, it can sometimes seems that the flow of conversation is hardly governed by rules at all especially in a long conversational interactions covering a mumber of topics by confusing "How did we get form there to here?"…

To balance, not only the participants' structure but also the turn-taking eliciting topic shift among different roles of the participants in conversational interaction are based on the conversational settings on whether it is personal settings or institutional settings (Clark 1996; Drew & Heritage 1992; Clark 1996b; Collins, Warnock & Passafiume 1975; He, 1994; Heath, 1993 cited in Carroll 2000) to determine the complexity of the participants' structures of conversational interaction.

II. THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS

The theoretical orientations of the complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants will be formulated by Grice's (1975 cited in He, Ziran 2003) conversational Maxims, Sack's et al. (1974) three implicit rules of turn-taking and Schank's (1994, 1996) topic shifts to make a natural institutional discourse analysis by setting the parameters mentioning in the process of analysis in terms of the transcription among the participants at a travel agency in England.

A. Grice's Conversational Maxims

The theory of conversational maxims put forward by Grice (1967, 1971 cited in Brown 2002 & Richards; Platt & Platt 2000) that conversational maxims is "an unwritten rule about conversation which people know and which influences the form of conversational exchanges". The subdivision of Grice's conversational maxims was evolved from the abstract meaning of the notion of conversational implicature, which is "one of the single most important ideas in pragmatics" (Levinson 1983), and which is noticeable for two contributions: "(1) conversational implicatures can help us understand and find satisfactory explanations concerning some difficult linguistic phenomena; (2) the general conversational principles have some effects on the English language such as the formation of certain grammatical structures depending on context and intention."(Levinson 1983 cited in He, Ziran 2003). The important point made by Grice (1975) regarding the theory of implicature is the distinction between what is said and what is implicated: (1) by what is said, it is meant that with some knowledge of the English language, the speaker produces a standard grammatical sentence and this sentence, without any consideration of circumstantial factors, can be understood properly according to its conventional meaning; (2) by what is implied, it is meant that with factors of context and participants the expression used here can carry more meaning that conventionally assigned to the expression. But sometimes, the pragmatic components and mutual shared knowledge must be obtained by way of understanding the conventional meaning of the sentence and the common knowledge, which has something to with one very important factor in the process of generating implicature-the cooperative principle. (p41-58)The cooperative principle noted as Cole & Morgan (1975) as follows,

Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged. (p.41-58)

According to the conversational maxims, there are four detailed and explicit maxims as the quantity maxim, the quality maxim, the relation maxim and manner maxim as follows,

(1) Quantity maxim: (a) make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange; (b) do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

(2) Quality maxim: try to make your contribution one that is true: (a) do not say what you believe to be false; (b) do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

(3) Relation maxim: Be relevant, which means that you say things that are relevant.

(4) Manner maxim: Be perspicuous: (a) avoid obscurity of expression; (b) avoid ambiguity; (c) be brief to avoid unnecessary prolixity and (d) be orderly. (p.41-58)

The above maxims are said to be observed by participants in all speech communities in communicative events but are different from speech community to speech community though, the possible violations as noted by Grice (1975), which means that there are any cases where people do not follow the cooperative principle and maxims as the following four potential to be violated:

(1) The speaker may violate the cooperative principle deliberately but without making the hearer realize it;

(2) The speaker avoid cooperate in an explicit way by telling the hearer that he is unwilling to cooperate;

(3) The speaker may face a dilemma…;

(4) The speaker may deliberately violate one of the maxims or fail to fulfill it. (p.41-58)

In the first case, the speaker doesn't observe the cooperative principle and doesn't tell or indicate to the other participants that he is being uncooperative or less cooperative; in the second case, the speaker makes it explicit that he is not cooperate at the moment and thus no misunderstanding will take place; in the third case, the speaker faces a dilemma by either sacrificing the quantity maxim to hold the quality maxim; the fourth case is the one that can most likely generate conversational implicatures according to Grice, which means that what is said by the speaker differs from what is implicated and the process of which is called "Default Interpretation" by G. Leech (1983 cited in He, Ziran 2003).

B.   Sack's Implicit Rules of Turn-taking

In the complicated conversational interactions, more than two people are involved so that the single most outstanding fact about conversations is that they run so smoothly in the absence of formal rules. But the question is "How do speakers avoid 'bumping into' one another in the course of conversations?"

According to Sacks et al., (1974) turn-taking during conversations operates by three implicit rules as follows,

(1) The first rule states the current speaker is allowed to select the next speaker. This is often done by directing a question to another person; (2) the second rule is that of self-selection which means if the first rule is not used, another person may speak up; (3) the third rule states that the current speaker can continue, although she or he is not obligated to do so. (p.596-735)

These rules are ordered: "(a) the first one takes priority over the second, who takes priority over the third; (b) if speaker A addresses a comment specifically to B while C starts to talk, B has the floor." This simple set of rules accomplishes a good deal of the organization of conversations. For example, it ensures that most of the conversations take place next turn to a specific individual. The gaps between speakers will tend to be small since the second rule provides an incentive for starting quickly. Thus, although neither turns nor turn length are decided ahead of time, these rules produce an orderly shift from speaker. (Sacks et al. 1974)

In addition, nonverbal behavior between conversational partners also facilitates an orderly transition from one speaker to another. Duncan (1972), after analyzing the signals given to regulate turns in a conversation, defined a turn-yielding signal as the display of one or more of six behavioral cues that appear to indicate a willingness to conclude one's turn as

(1) a drop of pitch; (2) a drawl on the final syllable or final stressed syllable of a final clause; (3) the termination of hand gestures; (4) the use of stereotype expressions such as you know or something, and but uh; (5) a drop loudness and (6) completion of a grammatical classes. (p.283-292)

At times, people wish to continue speaking but fail to find the right word or expression. The "trailing off" of our speech is ambiguous to a listener and may appear to indicate that we are finished. Duncan (1972) also found that, in such cases, speakers resort to what he calls an attempt-suppressing signal, which is the continued use of hand gestures in conjunction with one or more of the turn-yielding cues. When yield cues and attempt-suppressing signals were simultaneously displayed, a listener almost never attempts to take a turn. However, all of this behavior, studied by Beattie, Cutler & Pearson (1982), is not required for successful conversation because accurate judges by given both video and audio information and by given either video or audio information were the same. But they were unable to distinguish middle and end utterances from a written transcript. Thus, people don't need facial or gestural information to anticipate when a speaker is completing a turn. If turn completion is determined by a number of cues, as Duncan (1972) suggests, then people presumably only need some of the cues to identify the turn-completion. (Duncan 1972)

C.   Schank's Topic Shifts among Participants

As Grice (1975) noted that "it is not enough merely to take turns with others in conversation. There is a strong social convention to 'be relevant'. In conversation, negotiating topics (topic shifts) means to stick to the topic and trying one's comments to those of the previous speaker."

Schank (1977) argued that there are rules of this kind although it is probably more accurate to say that they govern rather than severely restrict our responses. This is reflected in the observation that some responses are clearly odd; a wide range of "acceptable" responses to any statement is possible.

What the responses seem to have in common is that they are faithful to the topic identified by the speaker, but this is not helpful unless we are able to specify the notion of topic more precisely. Schank (1977) argues that topics in conversation can be defined in terms of the intersection of propositions across sentences…An implication of this definition of topic is that only conversations, not individual sentences or even speaker, have topics as follows,

A: John bought a red car in Baltimore yesterday.
B: I think a red car would be ugly.
C: You mean he is not going to buy my car?

Thus, if speaker A says, *"John bought a red car in Baltimore yesterday"*, speaker B responds to one of these propositions as *"I think a red car would be ugly"*. The intersection of these two sentences is the proposition *"the car is red"*. However, if B's response to this sentence is, *"You mean he is not going to buy my car?"* This response deals with only one proposition of the preceding sentence as *"John bought a car"* though, a new topic- the selling of B's car occurs. According to Schank, A has three options at this point:

(1) A may respond to the new topic directly as *"No, he didn't like your car"*; (2) alternatively, A may refer back to that part of the original topic that got a response as *"well, John needed a car in a hurry"*; (3) finally, A can make a more generalized response as *"It's always difficult to sell a car."*(p.421-441)

Although all three types of responses preserve the coherence of the discourse, they do so in different ways: (1) the first response effectively enables B to switch the topic of conversation to B's car; (2) while the second response preserves the initial topic but does so in a way that is relevant to B's remark. Specifically, it continues the discussion of the topic *"John bought a car"* but focuses on a reason for John's buying the car that is relevant to B's comment; (3) the third response is somewhat ambiguous from a discourse point of view and permits that conversation to go in several

directions. Non-committal statements are common when there are "lulls" in a conversation.

Since any statement provides multiple opportunities for topic shifts, it can sometimes seem that the flow of conversation is hardly governed by rules at all in long conversation covering numerous topics.

A great deal must be made about what most people regard as appropriate topics and topic shifts in conversations such as Jefferson's (1972) observation of a group of child playing a game called Marco Polo and the studies by Polanyi (1989) by analyzed conversational storytelling and found the differences in interesting ways form conversational discourse in general because the ordinary rules of turn-taking in a conversation of telling a story seem to be temporarily suspended.

Therefore, the best way of characterizing these variations of negotiating topics of conversation is to classify layers of conversations (Clark 1996): "(1) layer 1 is the primary layer of conversational activity-a actual people saying actual things; (2) layer 2 is built on top of layer 1 and represents a different domain or world." Thus, conversational participants shift layers during the course of conversations, creating various problems related to coherence. Each layer has to be coherent, and yet the layers must effectively connect to each other as well. (p.225)

D. Hatch & Long's Conversational Structures

Based on theoretical orientations, not only conversational maxims (Grice 1967, 1971) but also the implicit rules of turn taking (Sacks 1974) and topic shift among participants (Schank, 1977) must be realized through the developmental process of the conversation-conversational structures.

Charles. Fillmore (1981) has stated that "the language of face-to-face conversation is the basic and primary use of language, all others being best described in terms of their derivation from that base …and this appears to be a reasonable staring point." (p.152)

By comparing conversational with other types of discourse, it will be evident as follows,

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF FOUR FORMS OF DISCOURSE

forms				
attribute	debate	ceremony	meeting	Conversation
Number of people	Two or more	varies	varies	varies
topic	fixed	fixed	Potentially fixed	varies
Turn order	fixed	fixed	varies	varies
Turn length	fixed	varies	varies	varies

It can be seen that conversations are the least formal of these types of oral discourse. The number of participant, the topic, the length of a given speaker's contribution, and many other factors are left undecided or decided on the spot. The relaxation of formal rules is one of the prime enjoyments of a good, rich conversation. Thus, by comparing other types of discourse, the structure of conversations become a little bit complex.

Hence, that leads to the five types of conventions that are related to conversations as (1) opening conversations; (2) closing conversations; (3) taking turns, negotiating topics and (4) identifying participants and nonparticipants. From an observer's standpoint, these appear as rules that provide structure to conversational encounters. From a conversational participant's standpoint, these appear as tasks to be addressed during conversational encounters.

Studies of the features of opening conversation by researchers interested in language behavior, language acquisition and social interaction showed that in the vast number of cases, only one person speaks at a time but with the exceptional times by two or more people, which is simultaneous turn instead of simultaneous talking. It is uncommon for listeners to say things like *un-hmm* and nod their heads while listening to a speaker; these are not attempting to speak but only identify that the listener is following the speaker's train of thought. True points of overlap are most common at turn exchanges when one speaker's turn is ending and another's is beginning (Jeff & Feldstein 1970; Sack, Schagloff & Jefferson 1974). Since neither turn order nor turn length is decided ahead of time, the occurrence of individual variation in the number of turns a given speaker will take and the length of each turn is not surprising. Jeff and Feldstein (1970) reported that the length of a particular speaker's turn was a stable individual characteristic. In contrast, the pauses between vocalizations during a speaker's turn tended to match the pauses of other participants in the conversation. The net effect was to produce a conversation with a certain "rhythm".

Theoretically, the number of possibilities for opening conversation is infinite, in practice we do so in a limited number of ways (Schegloff 1972). Most commonly, we address another person, requesting information, offer information or use some form of stereotyped expression or topic. These serve to get the listener's attention and often lead to stock replies. This quickly establishes the alternation of turns that is central to conversation: A asks a question, B replies, followed by a sequence of the form *ABABAB*.

Conversations are also at work when we close conversations. Schegloff and Sacks (1973) suggest that one way to end a conversation is to present a pre-closing statement like *we-ll*, *so-o-o*, or *okay*, which signals a readiness to end the conversation. Then listener then may accept the statement with an utterance such as *yeah* or *okay*. Alternatively, the listener might bring up another topic and the conversation would continue. (Clark 1994)

Albert and Kessler (1978) list several ways in which we end conversations, including summarizing the content of the conversation, justifying ending contact at this time, expressing pleasure about each other, making reference to the ongoing relationship and planning for future contact and also wishing each other well. They propose that these closing

moves from a sequence, with items occurring in the order indicated earlier. Their evidence supports such a sequence as the summary statements at the beginning of the ending sequence and well-wishes at the end. The use of reciprocal closing sequence is that

(1) listeners tend to respond to summarize with agreement; (2) to positive statements with similar statements and (3) to well-wishes with good-bye; by presenting one of these closing statements and having one's conversational partner reciprocate, the conversationalists are implicitly negotiating an end to the conversation. (p.541-553)

Specifically, to make a response about the developmental process of conversational structure in the introduction mentioned above, Hatch & Long (1980) classified four different developmental processes in conversation according to the sequence from opening conversation to closing conversation as follows,

(1) Attention getting: If you wish linguistic production to be functional and to accomplish its intended purpose, you must have the attention of the hearer by both verbal and nonverbal needing to be carefully assimilated by learners.

(2) Topic nomination: Once speakers have secured the hearer's attention, their task becomes one of topic nomination. There are few explicit rules for accomplishing topic nomination in a language. Usually, a person will simply embark on an issue by making a statement or a question that leads to a particular topic. As Grice (1971) noted that the best way to enable the speaker to nominate and maintain a topic of conversation is to confirm certain conversational "maxims" as the quantity maxim, the quality maxims, the relevance and the manner.

(3) Topic development: Once a topic is nominated, participants in a conversation then embark on topic development, using conventions of turn-taking to accomplish various functions of language. Turn-taking is another of these culturally oriented set of rules that require finely tuned perception in order to communicate effectively. Aside from turn-taking itself, topic development or maintenance of a conversation involves clarification, shifting, avoidance and interruption.

(4) Topic termination is an art that even native speakers of a language have difficulty in mastering at times because people commonly experience situations where a conversation has ensured for some time and neither participant seems to know how to terminate it. (Brown 2002, p.236-237)

Thus, the above four developmental process of conversational interaction formulate the dynamic cylinder in the process of the conversational interaction to maintain the complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants.

III. CONCLUSION

Overviewing the theoretical orientations, several factors affect the complexity of structures of the conversational situation among participants. Although Grice's (1975) conversational maxims determines the possibility of cooperative principles in conversational interaction, the unpredictability of the turn-taking (Sacks 1974) and the uncertainty of the topic shifts in negotiating topics (Schank 1994, 1996) make the conversational process complex. Only can we realize the possibility and unpredictability in spontaneous speech of conversational interaction, the awareness of the complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants can be enhanced in conversational situation.

IV. LIMITATIONS

The survey of the complexity structures of the conversational interaction among participants only triggers the logical hypotheses based on the theoretical orientations. Though it is justified to open up the insight on the complexity of structures of the conversational interaction among participants, what about the process of the role analysis, what about the process of turn-taking analysis, what about the process of conversational maxims analysis and the topic-shifts in actual conversations based on the transcription.

Hence, the ongoing exploration will make a research on the analysis of several factors affecting the complexity of structures of conversational interactions as attached in appendix according to the standards and parameters to further discover the essentiality of the complexity of structures of the conversational interaction. In the present paper, because of the limitation of space and time, it deals only four factors theoretically influencing the complexity of structures of conversational interaction among participants. If interest, much work will be done.

APPENDIX A   DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF REAL-LIFE FEATURES OF THE ACTUAL ENGLISH CONVERSATION

Instructions:

The following real-life conversation is quoted from Doing Pragmatics (Peter, Grundy, 1995 & Edmond, Arnold, P112-114 cited in Gu, Yueguo, 1998:263-266)

Situation:

The conversation took place in a travel agency in England. A is a man, F is a female assistant, MG is a male manager. The following natural conversation is about M-a man, who is going to Edinburgh by plane, talking with a female assistant and male manager at travel agency.

Notes:

(1) (.), (1.5), etc., indicating the length of the pause;

(2) // indicating the beginning of the overlapping utterances;

(3) * indicating the end of the overlapping utterances;

(4) (( )) indicating something inaudible

Transcriptions:

M: *Can you help me I have to go to Edinburgh (.) somebody told me it was a cheaper to go by plane than by train (.) is that right*

F: *(1.5) well we are not British Rail agents so I don't know the difference*

M: *oh I see*

F: *I can tell you what it is to go to Edinburgh*

M: *Yes (1.0) by plane*

F: *by plane*

M: *yeh (1.7) thanks very much*

F: *(13.0) well there's a shuttle service (0.4) um (.) sixty pounds one way (2.5) er (2.3) when do you want to go*

M: *I want to go at the weekend*

F: *(0.3) what weekend*

M: *next weekend (3.5) how does that work you just turn up for the shuttle service?*

F: *(0.8) that might be cheaper then (1.8) that's fifty*

M: *fifty*

F: *that's a saver (0.7) bruit it's a stand by*

M: *a st// andby**

F: *//you ha*ve to book it in advance but um (.)*

M: *are you guaranteed a seat*

F: *(8.0) I don't think you are*

M: *so you buy a ticket bef//ore but**

F: *//Ron* with the shuttle saver*

MG: *(0.8) yeh'*

F: *um (.) are they guaranteed seats*

MG: *(3.5) er*

F: *his is a new one that Marie's just added in here (1.7) oh hang// on see**

MG: *//British Airways**

F: *see see stop press ((   ))*

MG: *(0.3) British Airways*

F: *Yeah*

MG: *er yeah the flight's a standby guarantee (.) yeah you you turn up and you you've got to er (1.0) if they can't get on one flight they'll put you on the next any of the next two*

M: *(0.2) and h//and**

F: *// ((   ))**

M: *how often do they go*

MG: *every two hours*

M: *every two hours (1.6) so you could wait four hours*

F: *(1.0) yeh*

M: *um hum (2.0) and that's fifty pounds one way*

F: *yes*

M: *(0.8) and have you got a timetable for*

F: *not to give out no (0.7) I can tell you the times but I don't*

M: *ye-es could you tell me hoe often they go Saturdays and coming back on Sundays*

F: *(13.0) all right (0.3) Saturdays you're going out*

M: *yeh*

F: *(1.0) yeh*

M: *yeh*

F: *seven-forty nine-forty eleven-forty thirteen-forty*

M: *(0.6) seven-forty eleven-forty*

F: *(0.5) seven-forty*

M: *nine-forty*

F: *every two hours*

M: *every two hours on on on forty minutes*

F: *till (.) nineteen-forty*

M: *yes (1.3) good*

F: *and coming back they er (3.4) er (0.4) you're coming back Sunday aren't you*

M: *Sunday please*

F: *(2.8) nine-forty eleven-forty*

M: *ah ah (.) so it's forty either way and it starts at seven-forty on Saturday from London and nine-forty from*

Edinburgh on Sunday(.) until what time on Sunday night

    F: same time nineteen-forty

    M: nineteen-forty (.) now what happens if you turn up for the nineteen-forty flight and they get you on any of the next two does that mean Monday (1.5) or do they guarantee to do something about it on Sunday night

    F: (2.0) I don't know (.)Ron what happens if he wants the last flight (3.7) will they do it like that or don't they allow that

    MG: (1.0) what's that

    F: what happens if he wants the last fl//ight*

    M: //if I* want to come back on the //last flight on the Sunday night*

    F: // ((   )) they don't put* on an extra plane do they

    MG: (1.4) well theoretically if it's full they're supposed to put a back-up plane on

    M: um hum

    MG: in theory (2.1) whether or not it works in particular I don't know

    M: (3.0) now if I buy the ticket form you then it costs I pay you a hundred pounds// (.) n*

    MG: //yes*

    M: then I go there and (0.6) n I'm in their hands

    MG: that's right sir yes

    M: do you know what the rail return (.) weekend return to Edinburgh is by any chance

    F: we're not British Rail// agents*

    M: // you're* not a//gents I see*

    MG: //but I'll give you a rough idea

    M: ah ha thank you very much

    MG: (12.0) sixty-eight pounds sixty

    M: sixty-eight sixty (0.6) good thank you very much (.)I//thin*

    MG: //that's* from London sir

    M: that's from London (.) either way I've got to get myself (.)

    MG: yeh

    M: to the right//place*

    MG: //yes*

    M: yeh I'll think about it

    MG: yeh

    M: thanks very much that's very helpful (.) bye-bye

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Huaizhou Mao, born in 1966-, Gansu Province of Tianshui City, Instructor, Double M.A Degrees, in Med and Pedagogy, is now teaching in Foreign Language Department of Changji University in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region in China. He is committed to the cause of education in teaching for 26 years, and his research field is the theories of English teaching and curriculum. His main study is concentrated on the Second language acquisition, curriculum development, and empirical researches, especially in the statistics of the Statistic Package of Social Science (SPSS). He published one academic book in 2011, one course book, and nearly 18 articles in the journal of colleges and universities at home and abroad, hosted and took part in four research topics. He is also devoted and is devoting himself in the construction of curriculum such as the methodology of English teaching and the test of English language, and advanced English writing.

Rong Luo, born in 1977-, Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region of Changji City, Instructor, M.A Degree, and the director of fundamental English major, in foreign language and applied linguistics, is now teaching in Foreign Language Department of Changji University in Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region in China. She is committed to the cause of education in teaching for 12 years, and her research field is functional linguistics. Her main study is concentrated on the interpersonal relationships, and applied linguistics. She published 6 articles in the journal of colleges and universities at home and abroad, hosted and took part in three research topics. She is also devoted and is devoting himself in the general linguistics and listening instructions, and comprehensive English.

The Role of Negative Evidence in the Acquisition of Sociocultural Aspects of First Language

Farzaneh Dehghan
Shiraz University, Iran
Email: s-fdehghan@rose.shirazu.ac.ir

Abstract—Children learn their native language in a relatively rapid time and are able to communicate from very early using language. But is the acquisition of their native culture and native language dependent on each other (LeVine & Norman, 2001; Riesman, 1993)? The present study aims to investigate the extent to which parents provide their children with direct and indirect negative feedback while they are acquiring sociocultural aspects of their language. A group of parents (N=75) from three social backgrounds were interviewed. The results showed that parents used direct negative feedback more than indirect negative evidence while correcting a culturally inappropriate utterance (calling parents by their first names). Also it was found that parents from middle class socioeconomic status used more direct negative evidence than parents from a working class background who showed no significant difference regarding the use of different types of negative feedback. These results show the importance of negative feedback in the acquisition of sociocultural and pragmatic aspects of the native language.

Index Terms—first language acquisition, culture, negative evidence, culture acquisition

I. INTRODUCTION

Language acquisition is one of the great achievements in human cognitive development. All normal children in normal environments learn to talk. This fact can reveal innate capacities of the human species that make language acquisition possible, but, at the same time, it may reflect the social and cultural environment that provides children with the necessary input. Accordingly, the study of language acquisition and development could be studied from two different and largely separate approaches. The internal approach (Chomsky, 1985; cited in Lust, 2006) focuses on the mental mechanisms that make language acquisition possible. The external approach (Bronfenbrenner, 1988; cited in Hoff, 2006), on the other hand, emphasizes the role of the social context in which children live. The social contexts are "a nested set of systems surrounding the child ... includ[ing] culture, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity" (Hoff, 2006, p. 56). These systems shape the social contexts which are the sources of the child's interaction with the world and "these interactions are the primary engines of development" (Hoff, 2006, p. 56).

Within the external paradigm, sociocultural theory or social-interactionist theory is the most outstanding. This theory is an approach to language acquisition which emphasizes the environment and the context in which the language is being learned (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). It focuses on the pragmatics of language rather than grammar. The prominent theorist associated with interactionist theory is Lev Vygotsky (1978). Interactionists focus on Vygotsky's (1978) model of collaborative learning. In this approach, the novice speaker and the experienced speaker –in the case of language acquisition a child and a parent or caretaker– interact in a negotiated arrangement where feedback is always possible (Shaffer, Wood, & Willoughby, 2002). Interactionists believe that linguistic knowledge is the internalization of behaviors which are learned in social interactions. Children exposed to samples of language in its social use learn that language can be used to regulate social interactions. Gradually, they internalize the external function of language (regulating social interactions) to regulate their own cognitive activity (the internal function of language) (Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

Sociocultural theory argues that human mental functioning is fundamentally a *mediated* process that is organized by cultural artifacts, activities, and concepts (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007). Within this framework, humans are perceived to utilize existing cultural artifacts and create new ones that allow them to regulate their biological and behavioural activity. Lantolf and Thorne (2007, p. 197) define the theoretical foundations of this theory as follows:

Practically speaking, developmental processes take place through participation in cultural, linguistic, and historically formed settings such as family life and peer group interaction, and in institutional contexts like schooling, organized sports activities, and work places, to name only a few. SCT argues that while human neurobiology is a necessary condition for higher order thinking, the most important forms of human cognitive activity develop through interaction within these social and material environments.

The basic application of this approach is the importance it places on home and cultural environment in early childhood language acquisition. Language, according to this theory, develops in negotiation with the environment a child is facing. The nature of the social interactions that provide children with speech and the qualities of the speech developed, are shaped by larger social and cultural variables. In other words, input plays an important role in language

acquisition and development according to this theory. This means that children need to experience what really occurs (or does not occur) in a language. This is referred to as positive or negative evidence or feedback (Lust, 2006). Some scholars (Chomsky, 1980; Ritchie & Bhatia, 1998; Lust, 2006) have rejected the direct role of positive and negative evidence in first language acquisition. However, as Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, p. 28) quote from Gleason and Perlmann:

Unlike the acquisition of syntax, semantics, and even some sociolinguistic rules, when it comes to speaking politely adults do not leave it to the child to construct the rules on his or her own. Here, they take an active, even energetic part in directly instructing their children in the use of the various politeness devices. (Gleason & Perlmann, 1985, p. 102)

This means that contrary to other aspects of linguistic knowledge, children need to be instructed directly regarding the sociocultural aspects of language. In this way both positive and negative evidence seem to be important in developing the socialization process.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. The Acquisition of Culture

The child's acquisition of culture, or enculturation, has been the subject of much research. Children acquire the local culture of the community in which they live alongside their language. Two broad approaches have been adopted regarding culture acquisition (LeVine & Norman, 2001). One group assert that culture acquisition occurs early in infancy (LeVine et al, 1994; cited in LeVine &Norman, 2001). The other group (Riesman, 1993; Shweder, 1991; cited in LeVine & Norman, 2001) reject infant enculturation and believe that culture acquisition occurs after language acquisition. But as LeVine and Norman (2001) state, there is evidence which supports the first idea of infant enculturation:

Our hypothesis is that parents of a particular culture tend to promote infant behaviours they see as consistent with their culture's model of virtue, and further, that they are successful enough on average that their children manifest selected behaviours at a "precociously" early age ... (p. 84)

One of these behaviours could be language. The social interactionist view is an approach to language acquisition based on culture and environment. Thus, language is not universal in scope. In fact, the theory holds that language is never universal, but context- and time-bound (LeVine & Norman, 2001). On the one hand, this means that language seems to be always local, but also practical, since it develops exactly in the environment where it is most needed and most likely to be understood. On the other hand, the basic comprehension remains only at the level of the initial environment. Transition of this understanding to other environments becomes a problem (Wertsch, 1985). This means that specific cultural and social contexts shape the way language is developed. In other words, social interactionist view holds that parent-child interactions shape the child's linguistic competence through what is called zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Daniel, 2005).

Vygotsky defined the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as the distance between children's "actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving" and their higher level of "potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky 1978, cited in Daniel, 2005). This view could also be applied to all aspects of language. Hence, vocabulary, for example, is bound by context or by the culture within which speech is necessary and understandable. Interactionists such as Bruner (1983) suggest that the language behaviour of adults when talking to children (known as child-directed speech or CDS) is especially adapted to support the acquisition process. This support is often described as scaffolding for the child's language learning. Interactionists argue that children are born with a powerful brain that matures slowly and predisposes them to acquire new understandings to get motivated to share with others (Tomasello, 1995). Local culture is one of these commonalities that parents and children try to share from very early (Tomasello, 2000).

B. Culture and Language Acquisition

The most controversial idea about language and culture is related to what is called language determinism, language relativism or Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (Brown, 2007). The strong form of this hypothesis (language determinism) holds that language determines culture or world view. Though this strong idea was rejected by scholars in the field especially cognitive psychologists and grammar universalists (e.g., Brown and Lenneberg, 1954; Guiora, 1981, cited in Brown, 2007; Pinker, 1994, 2007), a new (weak) version of this idea is now commonly referred to as language socialization theory.

Language socialization is the process in which children are socialized both through language and to use language within a community (Ochs and Schieffelin 1984; Schieffelin and Ochs 1986, Kulik and Shieffelin, 2004) on culturally relevant communicative practices and activities. As Fletcher and MacWhinney (1996, p. 4) assert, "although cultures appear to differ markedly in the extent to which they support language learning through grammatical specification, children all begin to master the core aspects of linguistic structure in the third year." Ochs and Schieffelin (1996) believe that direct engagement in socially meaningful and appropriate activities make children pick up language. Therefore, if a grammatical form is a part of a socially valued activity and if children are encouraged to learn that form, it will inevitably be learned.

Language socialization view holds that the acquisition of linguistic forms is adjusted to certain cultural realities that influence how, when and why young children use and understand linguistic forms (Ochs and Schieffelin, 1996). Thus mere exposure is not a sufficient condition for language learning. A language socialization model rejects reducing the sociocultural context as mere "input" to be quantified and correlated with children's grammatical patterns. Rather, as Ochs and Schieffelin (1996, p. 73) believe it is the fact that linguistic forms show "culturally organized situations of use" and that children learn these forms through interaction with their caregivers and parents and not simply because these forms are more frequent in children's input.

C. Input and the Acquisition of the Sociocultural Aspects of Language

In the last few decades, research has demonstrated that the quantity and quality of the language input addressed to a child has an influence on the acquisition of language as a system (Kapur, 1994; Thomas, 2002). As was mentioned earlier, input could be positive (what actually occurs) and negative (what does not occur) in a child's environment.

Studies on language socialization show that the communicative abilities of children develop through their parents' direct attention and awareness. Demuth (1986) shows the importance of reminding customs used by parents to teach appropriate verbal behaviour to their children. These practices play an important role in the social development of Basotho children. Ochs (1986) reports how the Samoan caregivers use prosodic strategies to teach children ways to interpret affect-bound utterances. Clancy (1986) shows how Japanese mothers utilize questions and declarative prompts simultaneously to socialize their children's development in indirectness. Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo (1986) portray how Kawara'ae parents use repeating practices to teach children what to say and when to say it.

Based on our discussion earlier, it was found that direct negative and positive evidence is necessary in teaching sociocultural aspects of language contrary to other aspects like syntax or semantics where research has suggested no direct role for positive or negative input (Lust, 2006). However, there are not many studies regarding the role of different types of evidence in the acquisition of sociocultural aspects of language. On this basis, the present study aimed to investigate the extent to which parents provided their children with negative evidence (direct or indirect) while encountering an inappropriate social or cultural norm. In other words, it tried to investigate the role of input incorporating positive or negative feedback in the acquisition of cultural aspects of language. Also another aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which the socio-economic status of parents influenced the type of input provided to their children.

III. THE STUDY

A. Population Sampling

In order to collect data a group of parents (N= 117) who had children aged between 18-36 months old were interviewed. A social norm in Iranian culture (addressing parents or caregivers by their first name) was selected to be investigated. From the above pool of parents spoken to initially, 75 parents who had noticed this issue in the language development of their children were selected for the purpose of this study based on their social class. This group were divided into three social groups based on parents' literacy level and their monthly income (1= higher-middle, N=25, 2= lower-middle, N=25 and 3=working class, N=25).

B. Instrumentation, Result and Data Elicitation

In the next phase the selected group (N=75) were interviewed by the researcher. They were asked about their reaction to this culturally inappropriate phenomenon and whether they corrected the child's utterance directly or just ignored it altogether (indirect negative feedback). As children in an Iranian context never hear such a form in their home and social environments, the type of feedback provided by their parents and caregivers will be negative (either direct or indirect).

C. Data Analysis and Discussion

As there were frequencies of people in three social classes and two types of feedback (direct negative and indirect negative), Chi-square data analysis procedure was run to see whether the differences obtained between the frequencies were statistically significant or not. Table 1 summarizes the results obtained for the three social classes and the total group:

TABLE 1:
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR SOCIAL CLASSES AND TYPES OF EVIDENCE

Social class	direct	indirect	X^2	sig
1	21	4	11.56*	.001
2	23	2	17.64*	.000
3	15	10	1.00	.31
total	59	16	.016*	.05

1= higher-middle, 2= lower-middle, 3=working class

As Table 1 reveals, the total significance reported by the computer is less than .05 ($p<.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the differences in the evidence type between the three social classes is not accidental. In other words, social class had a significant effect on the use of different types of feedback (direct and indirect) by parents.

The comparison between direct and indirect negative categories also indicates that parents from the first two social classes mostly used direct negative feedback when they encounter a socially inappropriate form. This is especially the case with the second group (lower-middle class) as Table 1 indicates. The only exception is related to the third group (working class). As Table 1 shows, the X^2 value is not significant for this group. In other words, parents from this social class did not use direct negative feedback significantly more than they used indirect negative feedback as was the case with the other two groups. Nearly all parents (regardless of the type of feedback they had used) asserted that children used this culturally inappropriate form less and less until it had been eliminated totally.

These findings confirm Gleason and Perlmann's (1985) idea that cultural and pragmatic aspects of language need direct instruction on the part of parents contrary to other aspects of language acquisition. In this way, direct negative evidence is also an important technique parents utilize in order to teach inappropriate strategies and communication norms dependent on their native culture.

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The results of this study confirmed the fact that direct negative evidence does play a role in the acquisition of sociocultural and pragmatic aspects of language. Parents provide their children (even as young as 24 months) with direct negative evidence when they encounter culturally and pragmatically inappropriate utterances. Indirect negative evidence also plays an important role as children do not hear such utterances in their environment. As the findings of this study revealed, the socio-economic status of the parents also has an effect on the type of evidence they provide for their children. Direct negative feedback is more common in middle class family groups while working class parents did not use either of the two types of feedback significantly.

As there are different social, cultural and pragmatic aspects of every particular language in the world, other research could be conducted to investigate the type of evidence provided to children while learning sociocultural and politeness strategies of the native culture. The role of other variables like socio-economic status, bilingualism, language prestige, code switching could also be investigated.

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Farzaneh Dehghan is a Ph.D candidate in TEFL at Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran. Her research interests include reading and writing, literacy, testing, learning strategies and teacher education. She has publications on learning strategies and teacher education.

Different Aspects of Exploiting Corpora in Language Learning

Tayebeh Mosavi Miangah

English Language Department, Payame Noor University, Iran
Email: mosavit@pnu.ac.ir; mosavit@hotmail.com

Abstract—**Corpus-based studies have provided an accurate description of language, and its new potentials for language structure and use have many applications in language learning. This paper tries to define corpora and their different types and discuss the contribution of concordancers to language learning and teaching providing some examples. Then we see how a number of areas of language study have benefited from exploiting corpora. These areas of language that have been examined with the help of language corpora include, but are not limited to: language description, lexicography, morphology, syntax, semantics, cultural studies, computer-assisted language learning, English for specific purposes, and translation.**

Index Terms—**concordancers, corpora, corpus linguistics, language learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

We live in a world where information is becoming more freely accessible than ever before, however, this information needs to be processed and translated into knowledge. In order to live, work, and learn, traditional methods of information gathering and storing will no longer be sufficient in the coming centuries. So, developing knowledge construction in teaching and learning as well as providing learners with more autonomous or learner-centered opportunities for learning seems to be of great help for the learners. And this can be achieved by means of exploiting modern technology which is regarded as a very effective element in the learning environment in present and the future.

Corpus-based linguistics has provided an accurate description of language, and its new potentials for language structure and use have many applications in linguistics and language teaching.

In recent years, corpus linguistics has come together with language teaching by recognizing the importance of language corpora as a basis for acquiring facts about the language to be learned and sharing a larger, "chunkier" view of language (Johns, 1991 and McEnery and Wilson, 1997). According to McEnery & Wilson corpus linguistics is a methodology which can be described as a study of natural language on examples of 'real life' language use via a *corpus* (McEnery & Wilson, 2001), a body of text that is representative of a particular variety of language.

The accessibility of language corpora provides language learners and teachers with great opportunities in learning a language as well as language analysis with the help of various computer programs in order to reveal many aspects of language use quickly and accurately without any need to manually collect and analyze data. Corpora also provide a wealth of actual rather than made-up examples from different contexts of language use for both teachers and learners. Fortunately, many corpora can be reached freely or at low-cost price (See the appendix.). Working with corpora in language learning has many promising consequences in language descriptions and providing pedagogical materials. Although there have been articles on how teachers with minimal computer resources can make use of corpora (c.f. Johns, 1991a, 1991b; Stevens, 1995; Tribble, 1997a, 2000), few teachers are clear about their nature or their relevance to language teaching. This paper tries to define corpora and their types, discuss their contribution to language learning and teaching providing some examples.

II. DIFFERENT TYPES OF CORPORA

A corpus is a "collection of linguistic data, either written texts or a transcription of recorded speech, which can be used as a starting-point of linguistic description or as a means of verifying hypotheses about a language" (Crystal, 1991, p. 86)

In recent years one can access to a large number of corpora in many different languages via World Wide Web. The Internet is a cumulative source for language data which can be readily available for everyone, everywhere, and for every purpose in a huge size. Of course, the size cannot be considered a determining factor as Fillmore suggest: "I don't think there can be any corpora, however large, that contain information about all the areas of English lexicon and grammar that I want to explore. . . [but] every corpus I have had the chance to examine, however small, has taught me facts I couldn't imagine finding out any other way" (Fillmore, 1992, p. 35).

Dealing with size corpora can be divided into *reference* and *monitor* corpora. Reference corpora have a fixed size; that is, they are not expandable (e.g., the British National Corpus), whereas monitor corpora are expandable; that is, texts are continuously being added (e.g., the Bank of English). Corpora can also be divided depending their shapes as

the corpora which contain *whole texts* and those which contain *samples* of a specified length. The latter allows a greater variety of texts to be included in a corpus of a given size.

In terms of content, corpora can be either *general*, that is, attempt to reflect a specific language or variety in all its contexts of use (e.g., the American National Corpus), or *specialized*, that is, aim to focus on specific contexts and users (e.g., Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English), and they can contain *written* or *spoken* language. Corpora can also represent the different varieties of a single language. For example, the International Corpus of English (ICE) contains one-million-word corpora representative of different varieties of English (British, Indian, Singaporean, etc.). As implied in the previous section, corpora may contain language produced by *native* or *non-native speakers* (usually learners). Finally, corpora can be *monolingual* (i.e., contain samples of only one language), or *multilingual*. Multilingual corpora are of two types: they can contain the *same text-types* in different languages, or they can contain the *same texts translated* into different languages, in which case they are also known as *parallel corpora* (Hunston, 2002; Kennedy, 1998; McEnery & Wilson, 2001; Meyer, 2002). Some corpora are enriched with linguistic information such as part-of-speech annotation, parsing and prosodic transcription. In these cases it is far easier and more specific to retrieve data than in the case of unannotated corpora.

III. CONCORDANCES

A *concordancer* is a software for observing a corpus which shows a list of occurrences of a particular word, part of a word or combination of words, in its contexts. The search word is referred to as key word. The most common way of displaying a concordance is by a series of lines with the keyword in context (KWIC-format) in which each word is centered in a fixed-length field (e.g., 80 characters).

According to the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*, a "concordance" is:

"An alphabetical list of the words in a book or a set of books which also says where each word can be found and often how it is used"

Language teachers can make use of concordancers to help their students understand word associations. A concordance demonstrates authentic patterns of a language more explicitly and accurately in terms of language samples in their usual context. In fact, the learners can get a much better idea of the use of the word looking into the context than they would achieve by merely looking it up in the dictionary. A concordancers are particularly helpful when used in conjunction with a thesaurus. One cannot find information about unknown words and their authentic usage in the context of the language, but with the help of a concordancer s/he can

Tim Johns was one of the first language teachers to make use of concordancers in the languages classroom. Back in the early 1980s he was making use of the concordancing packages available at the University of Birmingham, and he wrote a micro-concordance program that ran on one of the first popular microcomputers, the Sinclair ZX81 - and it worked: see Higgins & Johns (1984:88-93). Johns later developed the concept of Data Driven Learning (DDL) and wrote one of the first commercially available classroom concordancers, which was published by Oxford University Press: MicroConcord (Lamy, Klarskov Mortensen, and Davies, 2005). The advantage of the DDL approach is that, in a classroom situation, it enables the teacher to play a less active role whilst at the same time exposes the student to authentic texts like those found in a monolingual corpus. What distinguishes the DDL approach is the attempt to cut out the middleman as much as possible and give direct access to the data so that the learner can take part in building his or her own profiles of meanings and uses. The assumption that underlies this approach is that effective language learning is itself a form of linguistic research, and that the concordance printout offers a unique resource for the stimulation of inductive learning strategies -- in particular, the strategies of perceiving similarities and differences and of hypothesis formation and testing. (Johns, 1991b, p. 30)

Examples of Using Concordances in Learning and Teaching

Examples from the corpus provide the learners with the kinds of sentences that they will encounter when using the language in real life situations. By searching for key words in context, the learners can extract the rules of grammar or usage and lexical features and based on their observation of patterns in authentic language they can question some of the rules. In the case of vocabulary they can be critical of dictionary entries. They can also compare texts produced by native and non-native speakers of a language in terms of appropriate position of certain lexical items in the context by means of a concordancer. A concordance with some deleted keywords can be exposed to the learners and they are asked to fill the gaps based on their lexical and grammatical knowledge. This is useful for learners to assess whether or not they have fully grasped a certain item of vocabulary or structure. Furthermore, the learners can use a concordance to work with multi-meaning and multi-usage words in that they are given some concordances of a single word and try to group them according to their usage.

Teachers also can benefit from the concordances in many ways. Using the examples taken from a variety of corpora, a teacher can make appropriate exercises which can be used in the classroom. These exercised can be in the form of cloze tests, typical collocations, a point of grammar, or proper vocabulary usage. Teachers also make use of concordancers to criticize the contents of textbooks in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Many traditional grammar books, textbooks and dictionaries contain only invented examples, and reflect their authors' insights. McEnery & Wilson list four separate studies of ESL textbooks that have shown that teaching materials not based on authentic data can be positively misleading to students (McEnery & Wilson 1996). Concordances can also be used as test material

providing assessment items. With the help of a concordancer the teachers can also develop strategies for inferring the meaning of unknown lexis in the text.

Some teachers tend to use concordances *inductively*. They find the concordances as examples of a language structure already taught. Some others tend to use concordances *deductively* in that they present the concordances as data for the learners to analyze.

IV. THE ROLE OF CORPORA IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Corpus use contributes to language teaching in a number of ways (Aston, 2000; Leech, 1997; Nesselhauf, 2004). The insights derived from native-speaker corpora contribute to a more accurate language description, which then feeds into the compilation of pedagogical grammars and dictionaries (Hunston & Francis, 1998, 1999; Kennedy, 1992; Meyer, 1991; Owen, 1993). In the following sections we see how a number of areas of language study have benefited from exploiting corpora.

A. Language Description

The first important contribution of corpus-based research to language teaching seems to be the accurate descriptions of a given language. The use of L1 corpora in linguistic research has provided the most convincing evidence of discrepancies between actual use and traditional, introspection-based views on language (Sinclair, 1997, pp. 32-34).

Corpus-based research has revealed the inadequacy of many of the rules that still dominate ELT materials. For example, in a study of a random sample of 710 *if*-conditionals from the written section of the BNC, the conditional sentences were examined against the information about form, time orientation and attitude to likelihood given within the currently favored framework of five types (zero, first, second, third and mixed). The rules presented in fifteen recent intermediate-to-advanced course books, taken collectively, accounted for only 44% of the sentences (Gabrielatos, 2003b).

B. Lexicography

Corpus linguistics can have a considerable contribution to the field of lexicography through extracting and studying empirical data from corpora. This includes improving, updating and classifying words or expressions as well as gathering additional information such as typical collocations, sub-categorizations, requirements, or definitions.

The importance and benefits of corpus studies in dictionary compiling can be observed in the considerable number of dictionary publishers investing in corpus technology and it is easy to find many corpus-based monolingual as well as bilingual dictionaries.

Now, availability of different corpora has eased the task of lexicographers to a high degree in that they can access to all the examples of the usage of a word or phrase out of corpora in a few seconds. Consequently, compiling and revising dictionaries would be more precise and faster.

In order to show the benefits of corpus studies in lexicography we mention the work cited by Atkins and Levin (1995). They studied verbs in the semantic class of *shake* and quoted definitions from three dictionaries. Two of the entries which Atkins and Levin discuss are *quake* and *quiver*. Both the Longman and COBUILD dictionaries list these verbs as being intransitive, while the Oxford dictionary lists *quake* as being intransitive, but lists *quiver* as being transitive. Looking at the occurrences of these verbs in a corpus of 50,000,000 words, Atkins and Levin were able to discover examples of both *quiver* and *quake* in transitive constructions. E.g. *It quaked her bowels* and *quivering its wings*. In other words, the dictionaries had got it wrong - both verbs could be transitive as well as intransitive. This small example demonstrates how a sufficiently large and representative corpus can either supplement or refute the lexicographer's intuitions and provide information which will in future result in more accurate dictionary entries (McEnery and Wilson, 1996).

It is in dictionary building that the concept of an open-ended monitor corpus has its greatest role since it enables lexicographers to keep on top of new words entering the language, or existing words changing their meanings, or the balance of their use according to genre, formality, and so on. The ability to call up word combinations rather than individual words, and the existence of mutual information tools which establish relationships between co-occurring words mean that we can treat phrases and collocations more systematically than was previously possible (McEnery and Wilson, 1996).

C. Morphology

In the realm of morphology we can also see the effect of corpus-based works. Although it may seem that corpus studies cannot have any great advantage in word structure which is the core concept of morphology, researchers in morphology can exploit corpora through studying the frequencies of different morphological variations (such as got/gotten) and the productivity of different morphemes.

In a study carried out by the author it has shown that some translation problems in the morphological level can be easily resolved with the help of statistical data gained from a corpus. The main concern of the study is automatic morphological analysis for machine translation from English into Persian. Using a stem dictionary, a previously compiled table and an untagged monolingual corpus of Persian language, the algorithm can select the most plausible

and appropriate Persian equivalent for English words with suffixes and/or prefix. The algorithm has been tested for a set of non-simple English words (word-forms) and the results were encouraging in respect to their Persian translation (Mosavi Miangah. T. 2007b).

In another experiment Opdahl used the LOB and Brown corpora to differentiate between adverbs with and without –ly suffix (like low/lowly) and their frequencies in term of usage in American and British English (Opdahl, 1991).

D. Syntax

In fact, syntax (syntactic studies) can be considered the most interesting and challenging branch of language research which makes the highest use of corpora. The majority of studies in this discipline use the quantitative data analyses to provide information about relative frequencies of certain syntactic structures. The proper position of certain adverbs can be recognized using a corpus. The adverb *therefore*, for instance, may be at the beginning of a sentence or at the middle or probably after a comma, that is, at the beginning of a subordinate clause. The learners do a search in concordancer based on the word *therefore*, and then make conclusions out of the search results for the most probable and natural position of *therefore*.

Bernhard Kettemann (1996) looked at *if*-clauses, Reported Speech, the contrast between Present Perfect and Past Tense and some examples of possible contrasts between *since* and *for* using the corpus.

Some researchers tried to study the relative clauses in English using the quantitative information provided by the LOB and Kolhapur corpora (Schmied, J. 1993), and some others used corpora to analyze noun phrase structure for correct determination of head nouns as well as modifying nouns or adjectives of a noun phrase for indexing to improve retrieval performance (Mosavi Miangah, T. 2007a). In fact, the large volume of works in corpus studies in the field of grammar (especially syntax) indicates the effectiveness of corpus-based methods in teaching and learning grammatical structures.

The study of prepositions using corpora is perhaps the most interesting one. The use of preposition in different languages may vary a lot. Consider, for instance, the use of *at/in* as a preposition of place in English in collocation with different nouns following them.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCIES RELATED TO TWO PREPOSITIONS OF PLACE PRECEDING NOUNS *UNIVERSITY, HOTEL* AND *OFFICE*

preposition	noun	frequency
at / in	university	1113 / 330
at / in	hotel	344 / 368
at / in	office	233 / 698

The information demonstrated in Table 1. has been gained from the British National Corpus (BNC) and shows that some nouns tend to come with certain prepositions rather than with some other ones. So, we see how corpora can meet the needs of grammar teaching in certain fields.

Corpora also has a considerable role in finding word's collocations especially in selecting the most appropriate adjective out of several synonymous adjectives for certain nouns. In Table 2 consider which of the following five adjectives collocate with the nouns in the left column.

The data shown in Table 2 which is again extracted from the BNC helps the learners to predict the appropriate adjective for each of the given nouns, though we know that some of these adjectives may replace some other ones depending on formal and informal situations.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCIES RELATED TO FIVE SYNONYMOUS ADJECTIVES FOR DIFFERENT NOUNS

	great	grand	large	big	high
asset	34	0	0	6	1
brother	2	0	0	131	0
bang	1	0	3	365	0
difficulty	260	0	0	2	0
degree	40	0	82	0	478
effect	82	1	15	10	0
event	31	4	2	49	0
extent	141	0	342	0	0
fun	238	1	0	6	o
house	95	11	109	250	20
idea	98	4	0	30	0
impact	24	0	6	32	17
majority	389	0	116	5	0
opera	5	67	0	3	0
picture	11	1	24	43	0
pleasure	187	0	0	0	0
population	2	0	54	3	31
Problem	66	0	10	125	0
Quantity	25	0	97	0	2
Question	7	1	9	72	0
money	0	0	0	99	1
price	15	0	8	9	182
quality	12	0	1	0	864
Scale	7	102	500	8	1
Success	370	0	1	40	27
Tour	1	54	1	8	0
measure	20	0	136	1	3

Another application of such a table is categorizing the nouns collocating with each of the adjectives. The learners may be asked: Is there any relationship between the type of noun associated with each of these adjectives? Actually they can find a possible answer to this question in terms of abstractness and concreteness of the nouns collocating with each adjective. However, it should be said that some collocations of the mentioned adjectives with nouns are not the only strict solutions, that is, an absolute yes or no case, but they can order in degrees of strong and weak collocations.

E. Semantics

The concept of collocation to which we referred in the previous part is referred to here again, but this time in terms of semantic association of collocates with each other.

Semantic association (Hoey, 2003) or semantic prosody (Louw, 1993) is a concept that has served to deepen our knowledge of the relationship between a word and its collocates. Through computer-based corpus analysis, first Sinclair (1991), and then in more detail, Louw (1993), discovered that collocates themselves can have a semantic patterning that is not random. Just as the word *blonde* collocates typically with the word *hair*, certain words can collocate with groups of either distinctly positive or negative words (Stubbs, 1995) or with semantic sets of meaning.

The notion of semantic prosody was taken up and expanded by Stubbs (1995) who suggested that as well as collocating with purely positive or negative semantic groupings of words, words can also collocate with semantic sets: Semantic prosodies may be of a very general kind: such as the shared semantic feature "unpleasant". Alternatively, one may be able to predict that a node will most likely co-occur with collocates from a restricted lexical set: for example, from the semantic field of "care" (Stubbs, 1995, p. 249).

Mike Nelson studied the two words *global* and *international* which frequently used with the names of companies in the business environment. Based of his reports despite the similarities, there were clear differences. *Global* collocated more with "business activities" than *international*, and *international* more with "companies and institutions" than *global*. Both these words were in contrast to local. The words collocating with local included a large number of non-business-related words and this can be seen most clearly in the "companies/institutions" category. All three words, *global, international* and *local* shared this semantic prosody with "companies/institutions", but the institutions collocating with local were noticeably more often of a distinctly non-business nature (Nelson, 2005).

Mindt considers two important roles of the corpus in semantics: providing objective criteria for assigning meaning to linguistic items, and establishing more firmly the notions of fuzzy categories and gradience (Mindt, D. 1991).

Another application of corpora in semantics seems to be in dealing with false friends. False friends or unfaithful friends are two words in different languages that appear to be the same but have very different meanings. The word *machine* can be considered as a false friend in English and Persian. Although Persian has borrowed this word from English, its range of usage in Persian is very different from that of English. So, we can use the corpus to sensitise learners to the range of semantic differences between the English and Persian false friend *machine*. The word *data* can also be regarded as a false friend in English and Persian. In Persian it may be translated as singular (dade) or as plural

(dadeha), based on their grammatical differences in a sentence in which they occur. So the corpus can be used to work out what the difference is between the singular and plural uses of the Persian word.

F. Cultural Studies

It is only recently that the role of corpora in cultural studied has been revealed. Analyzing corpora in order to find the cultural elements which reflect habits of people of the culture specific to those corpora can be of great help. If the word *steak*, for instance, is compared in the two corpora of English and Persian in terms of frequency it will reveal that the usage of this kind of food in English corpus is much higher than in Persian one. In the same way, the frequency of occurrence of *coffee* comparing to *tea* in English corpus is very high. While this case is reversed in Persian corpus. That is, Persian-speaker people tend to drink tea rather than coffee in most occasions, hence the higher frequency of the word *tea* in Persian corpus comparing to *coffee*. The results gained from the two corpora indicate each culture's interest in each of these drinks.

Leach and Fallon compared the two corpora of American and British English in terms of frequency to check up on the senses in which words were being used. Difference between the frequencies of some concepts in the two corpora revealed findings which were suggestive not only from the linguistic point of view but also from the cultural point of view. Travel words, for instance, were more frequent in American English than in British English and this is naturally due to the larger size of the United States (Leech, G. and Fallon, R. 1992).

G. Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL)

For more than a decade, corpus and concordance have been regularly described as one of the most promising ideas in computer-assisted language learning (Leech & Candlin, 1986; Johns, 1986; Johns & King, 1991; Hanson-Smith, 1993).

Recent work at Lancaster University has looked at the role of corpus-based computer software for teaching undergraduates the rudiments of grammatical analysis (McEnery and Wilson 1993). This software - Cytor - reads in an annotated corpus (either part-of-speech tagged or parsed) one sentence at a time, hides the annotation and asks the student to annotate the sentence him- or herself. Students can call up help in the form of the list of tag mnemonics, with examples or in the form of a frequency lexicon entry for a word giving the possible parts of speech with their frequencies. Students can also call up a concordance of similar examples. Students are given four chances to get an annotation right. The program keeps a record of the number of guesses made on each item and how many were correctly annotated by the student (McEnery and Wilson, 1996).

H. English for Specific Purposes

McEnery and Wilson identify ESP as a particular domain-specific area of language teaching and learning, where "corpora can be used to provide many kinds of domain-specific material for language learning, including quantitative accounts of vocabulary and usage which address the specific needs of students in a particular domain more directly than those taken from more general language corpora" (McEnery and Wilson 2001, p. 121). In professional domains, various corpora are being built. Most of them are of finite size, with the exception of so-called *monitor* corpora – open-ended collections of texts, to which new texts are being constantly added until the corpora "will get too large for any practicable handling, and will be effectively discarded" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 25).

According to Dlaska ESP teaching need not be "dire and difficult pedagogical ground", forcing language teachers to surrender their expertise in favor of teaching unfamiliar subjects, but on the contrary, it needs to "address, and eventually bridge, the discrepancy between general language ability and specialized language ability … since the two areas are not in opposition but complement each other" (Dlaska, 1999, p. 403).

Olga Mudraya tries to show how the integration of the lexical approach with a corpus-based methodology in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP), especially Engineering English, can improve the way ESP is taught. Her particular point has been to demonstrate how a technical student can benefit from the data-driven lexical approach. In her paper, Mudraya has argued for the integration of the lexical approach with a data-driven corpus-based methodology in ESP teaching, as she believes that the use of language corpora in the classroom can improve students' knowledge of the language and their ability to use it effectively. This leads her to the conclusion that corpora can also improve the way ESP teaching is approached. It can inform teaching and learning, producing students who know what it means to use a corpus, who know how to extract material from it, and who, consequently, can learn a great deal about language via a corpus (Mudraya, O. 2005).

In another study Curado Fuentes outlines a way of dealing with vocabulary in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction in the light of insights provided by empirical observation. Focusing mainly on collocation in the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and, more precisely, within English for Information Science and Technology, He showed how the results of the contrastive study of lexical items in small specific corpora can become the basis for teaching / learning ESP at the tertiary level. In the process of his study, an account was given of the functions of academic and technical lexis, aspects of keywords and word frequency were defined, and the value of corpus-derived collocation information was demonstrated for the specific textual environment. (Curado Fuentes, A. 2001).

The Guangzhou Petroleum English Corpus containing about 411,000 words of petrochemical domain is an example of domain-specific corpora which provide the learners with many kinds of materials including quantitative information about the vocabulary as well as usage in a particular domain.

The largest current professional corpus is to be the Corpus of Professional English (http://www.perc21.org/cpe_project/index.html). It is being developed in collaboration between the Professional English Research Consortium (PERC), Japan, and Lancaster University, UK. When finished, it will consist of a 100-million-word database of English used by professionals in science, engineering, technology and other fields.

I. Translation

In recent years many researchers and trainers in the field of translation studies have tried to integrate the analysis of corpora into translator education. There have been so many attempts to trace links between corpus linguistics and translation practice.

Today Translators (professional as well as student translators) are able to investigate and manipulate the information contained in corpora using corpus analysis tools in different ways. All machine readable corpora can help the translator to count the occurrence frequency of the search (query) word or phrase in the corpus, then clicking on the word in the display screen, all concordance lines in which the search word or phrase appear will be shown. In addition, most corpus analysis packages comprise a "concordancer", which enables the translator to find all the occurrences of a search word, or search phrase, with the possibility of sorting the displaying data in the screen together with a span of co-text to the left and right. Also the part of speech of the search word can be specified first, and then the search is done, and so many other possibilities.

There are many ways in which the translators are able to exploit the corpora in order to improve the quality of their translations. We mention here only two ways. The first one goes with the collocations. Referring to a monolingual target corpus for finding information about collocates, especially adjectives that collocate with nouns has been proved to be very useful. For example, when looking for translation equivalents of the adjective *hameh ja:nebeh* in the noun phrase *hamlehe hameh ja:nebeh*, Persian-English dictionaries suggest, for example, "multilateral" as the equivalent for *hemeh ja:nrbeh*. Hence, translating the phrase *hamlehe hameh ja:nebeh* as "multilateral attack", "multilateral strike" or "multilateral rush". However, of the 304 lines generated by BNC for the search word "multilateral", none of the above nouns appear immediately to the right of the search word, while there are 11 occurrences of the adjective "massive" in front of the noun "attack" and 1 occurrence of the adjective "massive" in front of the noun "strike" with no phrase as "massive rush", "multilateral attack", "multilateral strike" or "multilateral rush".

The second way in which the corpora can help the translators is verifying or rejecting decisions taken based on other tools. Corpora can be used in finding the most suitable equivalent of certain terms in target language for which other translation tools, mainly dictionaries, suggest unusual or unsuitable translations. That is, if we are not sure about the suggested translation(s) of a certain word in the dictionaries, or the given translation(s) are not desirable, referring to corpora can be of great help in verifying or rejecting the suggested translation(s). If we consider the words *dusti* and *ref:ghat* in Persian-English dictionaries we find the word "fellowship" as the first equivalent for them. However, when we refer to the *British National Corpus* (BNC), we can hardly find "fellowship" with these meanings based on the analysis of surrounding words, i.e. the context to which the word "fellowship" belongs. Instead the majority of the word occurrence mean "membership" not "friendship". So, based on information gained from a naturally occurred corpus, a translator (especially student-translator) can decide on which of the target alternative translations of a certain word in his or her native language to use in order to produce a more natural and sound target text (Mosavi Miangah, T. (2006).

In an experiment the co-occurrences of the multiple-meaning words in a monolingual corpus of the target language, namely Persian, were considered. By calculating the frequencies of these words in the corpus, the most probable sense for these multiple-meaning words can be selected. The method has been tested for a selected set of English texts containing multiple-meaning words with respect to Persian language and the results are encouraging (Mosavi Miangah, and Delavar Khalafi, 2005).

Some other experiments have also reported the uses of bilingual corpora and monolingual corpora (Zanettin 1998, 2001; Bowker 1998, 2000; Pearson 1998; Gavioli and Zanettin 2000) as sources to compile term banks, and as aids during the translation task.

Other examples of areas that have been examined with the help of language corpora are the use of lexical chunks (De Cock et al., 1998), collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005), complement clauses (Biber & Reppen, 1998), the progressive and questions (Virtanen, 1997, 1998), overstatement (Lorenz, 1998), connectors (Altenberg & Tapper, 1998), speech-like elements in writing (Granger & Rayson, 1998), and epistemic modality (McEnery & Kifle, 2002).

V. Conclusion

Corpora are frequently used in many academic and applied linguistic fields such as knowing facts about language; language for specific purposes (e.g. use newspaper corpora, corpora of scientific texts); preparing vocabulary lists based on high-frequency lexical items; preparing cloze tests; answering ad hoc learner questions ('What's the difference between *few* and *a few*?'); etc. Both teachers and learners can benefit from exploiting the corpora in teaching and learning tasks.

Using corpora in different areas of language study does not mean that the traditional methods of language learning are no longer applicable or appropriate in the present language learning environment. Instead, it can enrich and enhance the existing teaching approaches, that is, a welcome addition to them.

APPENDIX . FREE/AFFORDABLE CORPORA AND CORPUS TOOLS

1- British National Corpus Sampler (1 million words or written and 1 million words of spoken English): http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/getting/sampler.html. Also, free, but restricted, access to the full BNC: http://sara.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/lookup.html

2- Collins Wordbanks Online English corpus (concordance and collocation samplers): http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx

3- The Complete Lexical Tutor: http://132.208.224.131

4- Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE): http://www.hti.umich.edu/m/micase

5- Variation in English Words and Phrases (Mark Davies, Brigham Young University). Interface to the full British National Corpus (100 million words): http://view.byu.edu/

6- Web Concordancer (works with a variety of corpora): http://www.edict.com.hk/concordance/

7- WebCorp: The Web As Corpus (University of Liverpool): http://www.webcorp.org.uk/

8- WordNet: A Lexical Database for the English Language (Princeton University): http://www.cogsci.princeton.edu/~wn

9- WordSmith Tools: http://www1.oup.co.uk/elt/catalogue/Multimedia/WordSmithTools3.0

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Tayebeh Mosavi Miangah, an academic staff in Payame Noor University of Yazd, is an assistant professor of "Applied and Mathematical Linguistics". She was previously the academic staff of Shahrekord University. Her research interests are as follows:

Computational Linguistics: Machine Translation; Corpus-based Approaches in Language Studies; Word Sense Disambiguation; Part of Speech Tagging; Automatic Morphological Analysis.

Dr. Mosavi Miangah has recently published scientific papers in national as well as international journals like "Translation Studies", "Literary and Linguistic Computing", Journal of Quantitative Linguistics", "International Journal of Translation", "Meta" and in a number of international conferences throughout the world. Among her recent endeavors are Compiling and working on monolingual and parallel bilingual corpora in language analysis.

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