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Multi-competence at the Discourse Level: A Comparison of Persuasive Essays by Chinese College and High School EFL Students

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***Abstract*—In order to explore instances of "multi-competence" (Cook, 2003) at the discourse level, a study was conducted in which two groups of student participants from a college and a high school in China, respectively, were asked to write persuasive essays in both English (L2) and Chinese (L1). The study found that the college participants exhibited greater multi-competence at the discourse level than did their high school counterparts as they were far more likely to organize both their L2 and L1 essays deductively than were the high school participants, who used more inductive strategies for L1 writing while using deductive strategies in somewhat greater frequency in their L2 writing. The study suggests that the college students' greater proficiency in L2, which resulted from having received more L2 instruction and L2 writing practice, provides them a wider array of organizational choices in their L2 and L1 essays than those available to the high school students whose L2 proficiency was naturally lower. The study supports Kecskes' and Papp's (2003) assumption that, as L2 language proficiency increases, the multi-competence of L2 users at the conceptual level becomes stronger and more salient. The study also suggests that the relationship between L1 and L2 is more nuanced than the unidirectional assumption (L1 influences L2 only) still informing much ESL and EFL teaching and scholarship.**

***Index Terms*—multi-competence, rhetoric, Chinese, EFL**

I. Introduction

Vivian Cook (1991) first defines the concept of "multi-competence" in second language learning as 'the compound state of a mind with two grammars'. However, multi-competence is now usually said to be 'the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind' (Cook, 2007). "Multi-competence thus presents a view of second language acquisition (SLA) based on the second language (L2) user as a whole person rather than on the monolingual native speaker" ("Multi-competence," 2010). In fact, multi-competence is perhaps closest to approaches that treat language as a continuously changing system (De Bot et al, 2005; Herdina & Jessner, 2002). Since Cook's introduction of the concept of multi-competence, an increasing number of SLA scholars have explored the issue of how the first language (L1) users' knowledge of a second language (L2) actually influences their use of the L1 language. Most SLA studies on multi-competence have been focusing on L2 effects on L1 in the areas of phonology, vocabulary, syntax, and pragmatics (Pavlenko, 2000). There is, however, a scarcity of research in multi-competence regarding L2 influence on L1 at the discourse level (i.e., defined in this context as the pattern of rhetorical organization and metadiscourse of a piece of writing). Indeed, much contemporary ESL and EFL scholarship still views the relationship between L1 and L2 as unidirectional (L1 influences L2 only). Further, much scholarship in the field still treats language and writing systems as discrete entities.

Drawing insights from Cook's (2002, 2003, 2007) "multi-competence" theory, Kecskes' and Papp's (2000) "common underlying conceptual base" theory, and scholarships on contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1996; Kaplan, 1966) and Chinese rhetoric (Becker, 1995; Matalene, 1985; Mohan and Lo , 1985; You, 2005), the present study seeks to explore any instances of multi-competence regarding L2 influence on L1 persuasive essays at the discourse level through comparing and contrasting some rhetorical organizational features found in English (L2) and Chinese (L1) persuasive essays written by Chinese EFL college and high school students. We will first overview the theoretical foundations guiding the present study. Next, we will introduce our research questions, methods, findings, and discussion. Finally, we will attempt to draw conclusions and discuss some implications from the study.

II. Theoretical Frameworks

Cook's "Multi-competence" Model

Previously, as Zareva (2010) suggests, the notion of multi-competence provides a rather different way of viewing bilingual speakers and writers. While some SLA researchers have focused on treating deviation from standard L2 writing as a result of "interference" from L1 (Coppetiers, 1987; Weinrich, 1953), scholars such as Cook (2007) defines the concept of multi-competence as the knowledge of two or more languages in one mind.

Cook (2002, 2003) classifies the relationship between first and second languages in the mind of a bilingual user into three models: the Separation model, the Interconnection model, and the Integration model. See Figure 1 below for a visual representation of these models.

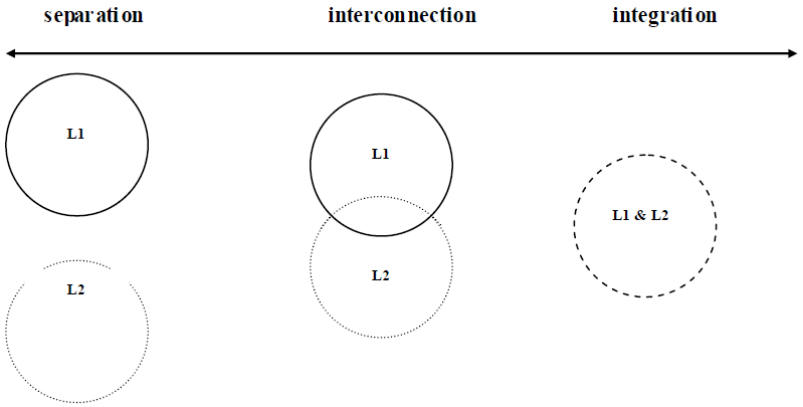

Figure 1. The integration continuum of possible relationships in multi-competence (Cook, 2003). Reproduced with Author's Permission

The separation model, which forms much of the early SLA teaching methodologies, attempts to avoid any reference to the first language and discourages its use in the L2 classroom in an attempt to help students build up a new language system with no links to the L1. This model sees no point to discussing the effects of the L2 on the L1, as they are assumed not to exist (Cook, 2003). This rather traditional model often still informs ESL (English as a Second Language) pedagogy.

The integration model, on the other hand, employs an idea that the two languages form a single system. Thus, L2 users are able to choose which language to use in a given context just as a monolingual speaker or user can choose which style or register to adopt in a particular situation.

The third model, the interconnection model, acknowledges that there are many different degrees and types of interconnections between L1 and L2 in an L2 user's mind. Cook (2003) states that the interconnections are displayed in two different directions. First, the development and use of the L2 is affected by the already-existing L1 as Odlin (1989) demonstrates. Thus, there is, in terms of language transfer, an inhibition or facilitation effect of the first language on the second in the process of second language acquisition (Isurin, 2000). Second, it seems that "studies of 'transfer' or 'influence'" have assumed an interconnection model by focusing on the L2 element in multi-competence taking advantage of the first language. Because of the existence of these two interconnections, Cook (2003) suggests that there may be legitimate L2 effects on L1 in an SLA context.

The present study is informed by this interconnection model (Cook, 2003), which posits a continually changing relationship between the L1 and all subsequently acquired language systems, which are themselves in a state of development. This model has provided one of the theoretical bases for the present study to interpret and explain the research data in the discussion section of the study.

Kecskes' and Papp's "Common Underlying Conceptual Base" Theory

While some SLA scholars examine L2 effects on L1 in an ESL context, Kecskes and Papp study the effects of L2 on L1 in an environment where the main source of foreign language (FL) is classroom instruction, and the target language culture is not directly present. They argue that both bilingual development and intensive foreign language learning may lead to the emergence of a Common Underlying Conceptual Base (CUCB) that is responsible for the operation of two language channels. They define the CUCB as the basis and originator of all bilingual or multilingual linguistic actions, a 'container' that includes everything but the language system itself (Kecskes & Papp, 2003). They contend that, "[it] is in the CUCB that the socio-cultural heritage and previous knowledge of the learner are confronted with the new information entering the CUCB through both language channels, and the real world knowledge mixes with academic knowledge and develops into something that is frequently referred to as 'socio-cultural background knowledge'" (Kecskes & Papp, 2000 p. 104).

However, elsewhere they insist that the development of a Common Underlying Conceptual Base may be dependent on L2 users' L2 proficiency, which has to reach a certain hypothetical threshold (Kecskes & Papp, 2003). In order for a Dual Language System (DLS) to develop, the conceptual structure needs to change from an L1-Conceptual Base into a Common Underlying Conceptual Base. The more proficient the L2 user becomes in the L2 and the more firmly the CUCB is established in the mind, the greater the likelihood that positive transfer may occur. Positive transfer, of course, is the transfer of any kind of movement or influence of concepts, knowledge, skills or linguistic elements (structure,

forms), in either direction, between the L1 and the subsequent language. Kecskes and Papp (2000) maintain that this positive transfer is neither structural nor lexical but pragmatic. Thus, the L2-L1 effect in a foreign language environment is conceptual rather than purely linguistic, and it affects the use of L1 as a whole (Kecskes & Papp, 2003). This being said, Kecskes and Papp seem to suggest that L2 effects on L1 in an environment such as English as a foreign language may well operate at the rhetorical or discourse level as long as a user's L2 proficiency has reached a certain hypothetical threshold.

The present study not only draws insight from but also lends some support to this CUCB model as the data here indicate that both the length of exposure to and depth of acquisition of L2 contribute to the development of the CUCB, something we will discuss later in this article. Indeed, we suggest that the results of the present study lend support to the existence of a CCUB and that Kecske's and Papp's model was essential to our research.

Perspectives on Contrastive Rhetoric and Chinese Rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric is an area of research in second language acquisition that concerns itself with problems in composition encountered by second language writers (Connor, 1996). By referring L2 writers to the use of rhetorical strategies of the first language, contrastive rhetoric maintains that language and writing are cultural phenomena, that different cultures have different rhetorical tendencies, and that the linguistic patterns and rhetorical conventions of the first language often transfer to writing in ESL and thus cause interference (Connor, 1996). Since the inception of contrastive rhetoric, many researchers have joined the ongoing discussion regarding comparisons between the organizational patterns of Chinese rhetoric and English rhetoric. So far, three distinct perspectives on the organizational patterns of Chinese rhetoric have emerged.

The first perspective views Chinese writing as essentially indirect. Kaplan (1966) describes Chinese ESL students' paragraph development as "turning and turning in a widening gyre. The circles or gyres turn around the subject and show it from a variety of tangential views, but the subject is never looked at directly" (p. 10). Matalene (1985) supports Kaplan's hypothesis and shows in sample essays written by her Chinese EFL students that the claims (in persuasive writing) are often delayed. Their research, however, has been criticized for their methodological flaws such as being overgeneralization based on a small research sample (Benda, 2006; Connor, 2002).

The second perspective claims that Chinese writing is as direct as the typical Western writing style. Mohan and Lo (1985) argue that both classical and modern Chinese styles taught at schools today favor a direct rather than an indirect expressive mode. They compare ESL writing instruction in Hong Kong and British Columbia, and conclude that the "inappropriate" (meaning different from English organizational structure) organizational structure in ESL texts may be nothing more than a result of developmental factors. Teachers in Hong Kong tend to emphasize sentence correctness and pay less attention to organization in writing; thus, competence in rhetorical organization develops later for these students. Zhang (1997) also rejects the view that Chinese writing organization is indirect as his subjects wrote with more "traditional" Western rhetorical features. Additionally, Kirkpatrick (1997) argues that contemporary Chinese textbooks on composition no longer teach students to use the "eight-legged" essay nor "qi-cheng- zhuan –he" text structure, which involves an indirect approach to the topic and an unexpected shifting of topics. Instead, he explains that the textbooks teach students to take a direct approach to the opening and closing of a text, clear arrangement of idea, and the linear structure of both deductive and inductive reasoning. He claims that the "English writing of such students will be similarly influenced by Western rather than by traditional Chinese styles" (Kirkpatrick, 1997, p. 255). Similarly, You (2005) also argues that Mainland Chinese students have long been taught to write Chinese composition in "Anglo-American" rhetorical style instead of the "eight legged" essay style, so they are more influenced by western writing style.

While Kirkpatrick and You emphasize that modern Chinese students are, indeed, taught to use a deductive approach in writing, they seem to underestimate the impact of Chinese cultural values and literary tradition on Chinese EFL students writing, which in many cases can lead to students' preferring an indirect approach (Fei & Han, 2007; Liu, 1996; Liu, 2009). As Liu (2008) points out that "[t]o some extent he [Kirkpatrick] ignores the fact that internal construct of Chinese rhetoric may retain solidity whereas its external patterns are changing over times" (p.4). Wu (2009) also states, "his [You's] optimistic narrative overlooks the debate between two powerful oppositional nativists who adhered to Chinese literacy tradition" (p.149). According to Malcolm and Pan (1989), this Chinese literary tradition which advocates indirect writing as superior to a more straightforward way of expression has greatly influenced how Chinese students approach their persuasive essays. For example, Fei's and Han's (2007) research indicates that many writing instructors and students nowadays still hold the famous Chinese proverb, *Hua long dian jing* (paint the dragon and then draw the eyes), which teaches that important things always come last in people's writing. Gu (2003) argues that *Hanxu* ("be suggestive or reserved"), another much appreciated Chinese literary tradition (Liu, 1996), still exerts an impact on Chinese writing. As Fung (1976), the renowned historian of Chinese philosophy, puts it, "Suggestiveness, no articulateness, is the ideal of all Chinese art, whether it be poetry, painting, or anything else" (p. 12). Thus, suggestiveness (*hanxu*) is an essential part of Chinese subtle rhetoric and has been considered by Chinese people as the height of culture and the mark of good breeding (Snively, 1999). The influence of this Chinese subtle rhetoric of *hanxu* on contemporary Chinese writing instruction and Chinese students' writing is profound. For example, it makes many writing instructors emphasize the elegant and indirect approach in Chinese essay writing by teaching their students to

place their theses statements in multiple places in their essay to achieve some rhetorical effects such as *hanxu* (Fei & Han, 2007; Liu, 2009).

The third perspective states that Chinese writing can be regarded as a combination of directness and indirectness. Wang (1992) argues that the ESL data used by some scholars might not accurately reflect the rhetorical patterns and conventions of the source language. Thus, he studies Chinese texts from 20 Chinese journal articles and English texts from 20 English journal articles as the data corpus for his analysis. He finds that the methods for paragraph structure were similar in Chinese and English writing. There are, however, differences in how the arguments are made. English writing tends to use a deductive method while the Chinese writing displays deductive, inductive and a combination of the two in the writing organization (Wang, 1992). He attributes this phenomenon to "the interaction between Chinese rhetorical tradition on the one hand and modern English influence on the other" (Wang, 1992, p. 133). Also, Becker's study (1995) of ESL Chinese students' English essays reveals that Chinese students' English writing can be described as a complex cluster of rhetorical organizations: Some students introduce the topic at the beginning of the essays, while others, instead of discussing the thesis directly, present examples first and deal with the thesis in the conclusion. Zhang (2011) also concludes in her literature review on Chinese and English contrastive research that there is no agreement on the studies of Chinese-English rhetoric patterns, but the overall message is that there are differences; after all, Chinese rhetoric is diverse as it includes the traditional rhetoric heritage and the influence of western rhetoric. Additionally, Yang and Cahill (2008) studied 100 expository essays by 50 American university students in English and 50 Chinese university students in Chinese. They find "that Chinese students, like their U.S. counterparts, also used directness in text and paragraph, but generally U.S. students tend to be significantly more direct than Chinese students" (Yang & Cahill, 2008 p.113), which implies that Chinese students incorporate both direct and indirect approaches in their Chinese essays.

While all the three perspectives have contributed to the ongoing discussion on Chinese Rhetoric for ESL purposes, we, take the stance of the third perspective: Chinese rhetoric uses a combination of deductive and inductive organization in essay writing. Additionally, we also argue for the assumption that Chinese rhetoric shows a preference for an inductive approach because of the influence of Chinese cultural values and literary tradition (Fung, 1976; Gu, 2003; Liu, 1996; Snively, 1999), which means that people may see more inductive approach in Chinese students' L1 (Chinese) writing.

In short, our support to the assumption that Chinese writers may show a preference for an inductive/ indirect approach in their Chinese writing due to the influence of Chinese cultural values and literary tradition serves as a premise for us to interpret and explain the research data on the Chinese college and high EFL students' L2 and L1 persuasive essays from the perspectives of multi-competence and the likely existence of a Common Underlying Conceptual Base at the discourse level.

III. Research Questions

In order to explore any instances of multi-competence regarding L2 effects on L1 persuasive writing at the discourse level, we asked the following research questions:

(1) Do Chinese EFL high school students use the similar or different rhetorical organization patterns in their persuasive essays in Chinese (L1) and English (L2)?

(2) Do Chinese EFL college students use the similar or different rhetorical organization patterns in their persuasive essays in Chinese (L1) and English (L2)?

(3) What kind of metadiscourse features do the Chinese college and high school EFL students display in their English (L2) persuasive essays?

(4) What kind of metadiscourse features do the Chinese college and high school EFL students display in their Chinese (L1) persuasive essays?

IV. Research Method

Participants

During June 2006, two groups of Chinese EFL student participants were recruited. The first group was composed of 50 students at a northwest International Languages Studies University, China, majoring in English and in the second semester of their junior year. The second group was composed of 50 students from a northwest High School, China, and at the end of the tenth grade (six year in primary school and three years at junior high, and one year in high school). When the study was conducted, the students at the university had been studying English as a foreign language for about nine years, including six years in high school (where English learning is characterized as focusing on basic grammar, sentence structure, and simple paragraph reading and writing) and three years in the university (where English was their major, and English learning was very intensive, focusing on listening, speaking, reading and writing in both paragraph and essay). On the other hand, the students at the High School only had an average of four years of formal English learning experiences. In addition, most of the participants from the university had passed the National Band IV English Test for English majors (a requirement for the bachelor's degree in English major, which is different from National Band IV College English Test for non-English major in that the test is much more demanding in reading and writing

skills) and had received two years' systematic English writing instruction and practice, in which they learned one semester's English paragraph writing and one semester's English essay writing during the sophomore and one year's professional writing during their the college junior year. All participants, both at the college and high school level, were asked to compose one persuasive essay in Chinese and one in English. Both the Chinese and English essays were written to the same prompt. Additional information regarding the prompts will be found in the appendices to this paper.

Data collection

The writing tasks were administered by the student participants' English teachers during their class time. In an attempt to reduce the possibility of the participants' translating their Chinese essays into English for the writing tasks, we required the English teachers to have the participants write the English persuasive essay first. After an interval of one week, the participants were asked to write a Chinese persuasive essay. Please see the essay prompts in Appendix A.

Data analysis

According to Huckin (2004), the units of analysis or text features to be identified for analysis must be those that emerge logically from the research question. So the text features analyzed in the present study are:

- the placement of the thesis statement in both persuasive essays in L2 and L1,
- the metadiscourse features (e.g., transition words or phrases) displayed in both persuasive essays in L2 and L1, and,
- the general organization patterns (e.g. inductive or deductive) of both persuasive essays in L2 and L1.

In order to avoid misrepresentation in the data collection of the present study and to increase the reliability of coding or analysis process, as MacNealey (1999) recommends, we used one second coder for analyzing the English persuasive essay data. This co-coder is a native English speaker, and he had two years' ESL teaching experience, and holds BA degrees in English and Psychology. Thus, the co-coder was not only familiar with English academic writing but also understood the ESL/EFL student s' writing well. We also used one second coder for analyzing the Chinese persuasive essay data. The Chinese co-coder is a native Chinese speaker, who has a doctoral degree in architecture. She received her MA in architecture in China. Therefore, the Chinese co-coder was proficient in her Chinese academic writing.

With both co-coders, we separately sorted 50% of the data into three predetermined coding categories as listed above, and then we and the co-coders met to discuss the results of coding. During this process, the respective sorting/coding was compared for inter-rater reliability.

Findings

To answer the first two research questions, we compared the rhetorical organization patterns of both groups of students' L2 (English) essays with those of their L1 (Chinese) essays. Rhetorical organization (e.g., deductive or inductive) is defined as where these students placed their thesis statements. The results of the comparison are shown in Table 1 and Table 2. Please note the "keys" below Table 1 for operational definitions of each category and key term.

TABLE 1
HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS N=50 (CHINESE) N=50 (ENGLISH)

Organization	L2 (English) Essay	L1 (Chinese) Essay
Deductive	3 4	13
Inductive	14	23
None of the above	2	14

Keys

- A thesis statement is the basic stand one takes, the opinion one expresses, the point one makes about one's limited subject; it is one's controlling idea, tying together and giving direction to all other separate elements in ones' paper (Skwire, 1979).
- Deductive- Thesis presented at beginning of essay, followed by supporting details and conclusion.
- Inductive-Examples and details presented first, thesis placed in final paragraph.
- None of the above – including essays presenting implied thesis statement, which means that examples and details supporting one side of argument are presented, but no explicit thesis neither at the beginning nor in the end; also including essays that were off-task writing.

Table 1 shows some major differences as to how the high school students organized their L2 and L1 persuasive essays, respectively. Fully 68% of the students organized their L2 (English) essay deductively while only 26% used the same organization in their L1 (Chinese) essays. However, 46% of the students organized the L1 (Chinese) essays inductively, and 28% of them showed no clear deductive or inductive organization, but only gave some hints such as related examples and evidence about the topic to let the reader infer the thesis of the essay for himself or herself.

TABLE 2
COLLEGE STUDENTS N=50 (CHINESE) N=50 (ENGLISH)

Organization	L2 (English) Essay	L1 (Chinese) Essay
Deductive	40	46
Inductive	10	4
None of the above	--	--

Table 2 indicates major similarities between how the college students organized their L2 and L1 persuasive essays, respectively. About 90% of the students organized their L2 (English) essay deductively while, similarly, about 92% of

these students also used the deductive organization for their L1 essays. However, compared with their L1 essays, the college students used more inductive organization in the L2 essays.

To answer research questions three and four, we compared and contrasted the metadiscourse features that displayed in the L2 (English) and L1 (Chinese) persuasive essays written by the Chinese EFL college students and of those written by the Chinese EFL high school students. Krause and O'Brien (1999) define metadiscourse as the use of the linguistic markers comprising words and phrases that do not add propositional material but help readers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to such material such as connectives like *however* or *in other words*. Hyland (2003) further explains that those linguistic markers are also called "signposts" to help readers navigate through the writer's arguments and serve to explicitly organize the text and comment on it by using sequencing points (first, next, last), connecting ideas (however, therefore), and showing what the writer is doing (to summarize, for example) and so forth. The results of the comparison are shown in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
N= 50 (ENGLISH) N= 50 (CHINESE)
CS= COLLEGE STUDENTS HSS= HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Transitions / Signposts	Location in essay draft	L2 CS (English)	L1 CS (Chinese)	L2 HSS (English)	L1 HSS (Chinese)
First , first of all (首先)	Initial position of 2nd paragraph	26	19	4	3
Second, next, furthermore, however (其次) (然而)	Initial position of 3rd paragraph	26	19	4	3
Third, additionally, moreover, (第三) (再者)	Initial position of 4th paragraph	26	19	4	3
Finally, after all, in fact (最后) (事实上)	Initial position of penultimate paragraph	26	19	4	3
To sum up, in a word, on the whole, so, (总之) (所以)	Initial position of final paragraph	28	38	28	29

Table 3 indicates that, in order to signal the movement of ideas and to show the logical connection between the paragraphs, 52% of the college students used the transitions/signposts at the initial position of each paragraph in their L2 essays, and 38% of them also used these words in their L1 essays. In contrast, only 8% of the high school students exhibited these metadiscourse features in their L2 essays, and 6% of them displayed these features in their L1 essays.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings for the first and second research questions (see Table 1 and Table 2) reveal that the L1 (Chinese) persuasive essays of the high school EFL students are more inductive and not much influenced by their L2 (English) persuasive essays which are more deductive at the discourse level while L1 persuasive essays of the college participants share the same deductive approach as their L2 essays. That is to say that multi-competence regarding L2 influence on L1 persuasive essays at the discourse level for the college participants seem stronger than that of the high school participants. This finding supports the assumption that L2 language proficiency is one of the factors shaping the L2-L1 relation after the hypothetical threshold is reached (Kecskes & Papp, 2003) and that, as language proficiency increases, the effects of multi-competence at the conceptual level becomes stronger and more salient (as cited in Zareva, 2010).

Although "hypothetical threshold" is a somewhat undefined term, based on the finding here, we suggest that this framework might be largely dependent on proficiency and factors such as language and intellectual development. Clearly, college English learning for English majors in China is far more intensive than that provided in high school, and the college participants in the present study had received five additional years of English (and other) instruction, especially two years' systematic English writing instruction and practice. Length of study in L2 seems important, but depth and breadth of L2 learning (vocabulary, grammar, syntax, rhetoric, and literature) such as the college English study for the English majors in present study might be what led to any sort of significant L2 impact on L1 in the present study. Su (2001), for example, also finds that advanced Chinese learners of English use the same writing strategies in both languages, and their Chinese linguistic processes are influenced by English, although this is not true of lower-level learners in her study.

In fact, English rhetorical influence on Chinese rhetoric through the channel of higher (and formal) education has been studied by Chinese sociolinguists from the perspective of the relevance of cultural identity to language learning. Based on her case study of English majors that explores the relationship between cultural identity and language learning, Gao (2007) describes the impact of English learning on her subject, Aiwen, "who was fond of reading Chinese literature and writing Chinese prose before entering college" as follows,

After several years of strict training in the "linear" style of English essay writing, she was shocked to find her own prosaic Chinese writing style changed toward the linear direction: "My god, how could that be written by myself?!" … "I feel a bit sorry…. I enjoyed the leisurely loose and roundabout style. Now I am afraid I can never find that look of mine anymore… the style of a free man of letters." (Gao, 2007, p. 102)

Although Gao interprets this English rhetorical impact on Chinese rhetoric as a change in her college subject's cultural identity in terms of communication style from the perspective of sociolinguistics, we suggest that this phenomenon be also understood as evidence that the higher English proficiency of the college student leads to her unconscious use of English organization in her Chinese writing. Thus, both the present study and the research of Gao seem to support Kecskes' and Papp's (2000) assumption about L2 effects on L1 in an environment such as learning English as a foreign language may well operate at the rhetorical or discourse level as long as L2 users' L2 proficiency has reached a certain hypothetical threshold.

In addition, Hirose (2003), studying the relationship between Japanese students' first language and second language writing in terms of rhetorical organization, compares L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) organizational patterns in the argumentative writing of Japanese EFL college student-writers. Hirose's research also reveals that a majority of Japanese college students use deductive type organizational patterns in both L1 and L2, in spite of the popular assumption that "one feature commonly identified by research as a characteristic of Japanese writing is 'induction'" (Kubota, 1998 p. 478). Hirose maintains that L1 argumentative writing experience may not be a necessary condition for L2 organizational ability to develop because the Japanese college students in her study do not receive formal argumentative writing training in their L1. She concludes that L2 writing instruction and experience may be transferable to L1 writing. In other words, Hirose seems to be suggesting that L2 (English) writing influence on L1 writing (Japanese) at the discourse level is possible. So, both our findings in present study and Hirose's research provide a good degree of concordance to Cook's (2002, 2003, 2007) assumption that there may be legitimate L2 effects on L1 in an SLA context, named as multi-competence, but we also suggest that we identify this displayed L2 effect of rhetorical patterns on L1 as the instance of multi-competence at discourse level for L2 users.

Another instance of multi-competence at the discourse level for the two groups of participants due to the different L2 proficiency revealed by the present study seems to be the differences in the use of metadiscourse features between the Chinese college and high school EFL students (see Table 3). The higher incidence of transitions in the L2 and L1 writing of college EFL students may indicate here again that this phenomenon might be an L2 influence on L1. For high school students, on the other hand, the low incidence of these metadiscourse features in L2 essays seems to suggest that using transitions to signal the logical connection between the paragraphs in their L2 essays be something that creates great difficulty for them because of their lower L2 proficiency in writing compared with the college students. So there is no apparent L2 effect on L1 regarding the metadiscourse features in their persuasive essays. On the contrary, they use L1 essay strategies in their L2 essay to indicate the connections between the paragraphs. For example, the new paragraph may start as a comparison, a contrast, an addition, or an explanation to the previous paragraph. The readers, thus, are left to assume the transition or assess the relationship between the ideas in the paragraphs themselves. To illustrate this, please see one of the high school EFL participants' original L2 essays in Appendix B.

This finding that the high school EFL students use L1 metadiscourse strategies in L2 essay (due to their low L2 proficiency) seems to echo Hinds' (1987) "writer-responsible" and "reader-responsible" perspective. Hinds suggests that English is writer-responsible writing because it is the writer's task to provide appropriate transition statements when moving from one idea to the next and to regularly place signals in the text, so the reader can see how the writer intends the text to hold together (as cited in Hyland, 2003). However, Hinds believes that Japanese and Chinese are reader –responsible writing because it is the reader's responsibility for effective communication, which means that the reader is expected to infer meaning from the texts he/she is reading; as a result, the transitional statements or words in the writing may be absent. Thus, the reader has to figure out for himself or herself on how one part of an essay is related to the whole essay. As Chien (2007) further elaborates, "explicit signals are not necessary; the writer shows respect for the reader's intelligence to make inferences" (p.138).

VI. Conclusion and Implications

There are, of course, some limitations to the present study that warrant caution in making generalizations concerning the results. For one thing, the prompt itself may have provided clues that the writer was to compose an argumentative essay, and, thus, a deductive strategy would more likely be chosen. For another, no information was provided with the subjects, concerning what audience they might write to, which might have some impact on the organizational patterns of the English (L2) and Chinese (L1) essays. Future research might address these concerns.

The present study, however, does seem to provide some evidence for the existence of multi-competence regarding L2 influences on L1 at the discourse level (referring to rhetorical organization and metadiscourse features). The study also supports Kecskes' and Papp's (2003) assumption that, as L2 language proficiency increases, multi-competence of L2 users at the conceptual level become stronger and more salient. As Choong (2006) states, multi-competent language users can do things that no monolingual person can, and that the knowledge of the L2 not only influences L2 users' knowledge of the L1, but also enhances other perceptions and abilities as well. In present study, this knowledge of L2 and the practice of using L2 rhetorical approach seem to enhance the Chinese college L2 users' abilities in L1 writing. In other words, the multi-competence of the college participants at the discourse level seems to provide them a greater variety of rhetorical choices or features from which they can choose, such as the fact that the college participants can use direct approach smoothly in both their L2 and L1 essays and that college participants appear more flexible and willing to use transitions to indicate the movement of the ideas between the paragraphs in both their L2 and L1 essays.

We can draw some implications for EFL teaching from the present study. Since the multilingual students inevitably bring their cultural values, discourse, and rhetoric to L2 writing classroom, writing teachers, who can draw insights from the theory and practice of multi-competence of L2 users or of the multilingual students, should be encouraged to treat the these L2 or multilingual users as "resourceful writers" (Liu & You, 2008 p. 155). Just as Canagarajah (2002) maintains, linguistic and cultural characteristics that multilingual students display should be valued as their "resources" to enrich the academic discourse community and as representation of their unique voices and identities. Pavlenko (2003) goes somewhat further than this assertion. For her, the idea of multi-competence suggests a need for critical reflection with the ESL and EFL communities. Too often, the teaching of L2 English becomes a rather rigid ideology or, at least, one half of a rather false L1 / L2 dichotomy. Li and Girvan (2004) suggest as well that, by allowing the notion of multi-competence to inform EFL and ESL teaching, students are exposed to a more authentic view of the fluidity of language and culture. By recognizing and, indeed, embracing multi-competence, teachers can help L2 or multilingual writers better understand L2 writing conventions while promoting their L1 writing development and, most important, allowing them to draw the most appropriate rhetorical "tools" from all that they possess. The multilingual writer with the developed multi-competence in "multi-rhetorics" has resources beyond those available to even some of the more talented monolingual writers, and it is these resources that teachers of ESL/EFL writing should nurture and develop in their writing classrooms.

APPENDIX A PROMPTS FOR PERSUASIVE ESSAYS IN ENGLISH

Instructions: Among the two essay prompts given below, please chose ONE of them to write an argumentative essay of about 400 words. Be sure you will establish a clear thesis statement for your essay. You will have 50 minutes to write your essay. Please write as LEGIBLY as possible.

1. Some people think that family is the most important influence on young adults. Other people think that friends are the most important influence on young adults. Which do you think is the most important influence?

2. Some university students want to live in a room alone. Others prefer having roommates. Which do you like better---living alone or living with roommates?

Prompts for Persuasive Essays in Chinese (Translations of the English version)

作文题目

1. 一些人认为生长在兄弟姐妹多的家庭比独生子女家庭对孩子成长更有利；另外一些人持相反意见。

以此为题，请用汉语写一篇 500 字左右的文章，阐述你对此问题的看法。

2. 一些大学生 愿意 住在 集体 宿舍；另外一些 大学生 则 喜欢 独自居住。你 最喜欢 哪 种居住 方式？

以此为题，请用汉语写一篇 500 字左右的文章，阐述你对此问题的看法.

APPENDIX B ADVANTAGES OF LIVING TOGETHER

I think that living with roommates is better than living alone. You may not agree with me. Maybe you think it's not convenient to live with roommates. For example, they may know your secrets. You may think it's relaxed to live alone. But I insist on my opinion.

We will grow up one day. We must step into society work hard and face sorts of challenges. We have to do teamwork. So we must learn how to communicate with others from now on. To live with roommates is a good way to execrise this skill.

We live in the world, we need friends. When you feel sad, your roommates can console you. You can be good friends. Room is also a small family. You and your roommates are family members. When you think like this way, you don't miss your real family.

When you regard your room as your family, you car run it with flowers and beautiful things, you may appreciate them. You make the room full of happiness and pleasure. Room is a strong bridge of friendship between you and your roommates.

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Is English Our Lingua Franca or the Native Speaker's Property? The Native Speaker Orientation among Middle School Students in Japan

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***Abstract*—This paper reports the first empirical study to date that sought to examine the native speaker orientation among middle school EFL students in Japan. To this end, this preliminary study measured their language attitudes in this respect addressing age-stratified and gender variations. The data was elicited from an attitude survey with 318 eighth and ninth graders at a public middle school. The findings suggest that the students gave significantly more positive evaluations to native than to nonnative varieties of English. Second, they opted for learning English for its currency and utility in the English as a native language setting, rather than for its transnational function as a lingua franca. Lastly, the finding indicated a possible developmental trajectory of their native speaker orientation.**

***Index Terms*—language learning, language attitudes, native speaker, Japan, English as a lingua franca**

I. Introduction

While the transnational function of English as a lingua franca is well documented in the literature (e.g., Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, 2007; Kachru, Kachru, & Nelson, 2006; Pennycook, 2007), the notion of English as the language of the native speaker in its parochial sense is purported to persist in Japanese society (i.e., as the language of the British and North Americans in particular) (see Matsuda, 2002). As such, native speakership constitutes the nexus of marketing and publicity strategies in the popular private *eikaiwa gakkô* (i.e., English conversation teaching schools) industry (see Joe, 2010; Seargeant, 2005). Their commercial ads abound with rhetoric such as, *native speaker no eigo* ('native speakers' English'), *hom'mono no eigo* ('authentic English'), and *native speaker no kôshi* ('native-speaker instructors'). Native speakership thereby indexes the claim of the aesthetic that both the existing and potential clientele should aspire to. This reproduces the myth of the authenticity of the native speaker (Seargeant, 2005), which is out-dated in view of the purported language globalization underway (see Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh, 2006).

Indeed, the concept of native speaker has been a contested one in its own right (Kravchenko, 2010; see also Doerr, 2009). The elusive complexity of native speaker status, both in terms of judgments of language and identity, is noted in the literature (e.g., Davies, 2003). In terms of judgments of language, there is empirical evidence, for instance, that native and nonnative speaker of a language fail to recognize each other if the nonnative speaker is very proficient in that language (Davies, 2003, pp. 199-200). People cannot necessarily tell the native speaker with a high level of accuracy by the mere characteristics of the language that he or she speaks. Native speaker status begs the question of identity also. Davies (2003) makes the following comment on the identity of the native speaker:

To be a native speaker means not being a non-native speaker. Even if I cannot define a native speaker I can define a non-native speaker negatively as someone who is not regarded by him/herself or by native speakers as a native speaker. (p. 213)

In a similar vein, Kravchenko (2010) argues "a native speaker's 'performance' is something by which he may be identified by other native speakers as 'one of us', in contrast to 'them' as 'not us'" (p. 680).

Matsuda (2003) reported a qualitative case study of the beliefs about the ownership of English among Japanese high school students. She demonstrated that the participants held a view that English is the property of the native speaker of the language and that they merely stand on the margin of the global English arena. In fact, students' idea about Anglophones was mostly limited to those from the UK and US (p. 488). In other words, for these Japanese students, English speakers meant those who (are purported to) possess native speaker status. Thus, in contrast to the current scholarly theorizing of global English, the Japanese students in her study did not identify themselves as members of the global community.

From the pedagogical point of view, a negative implication of holding the native speaker orientation is noted in the literature. Japanese learners strive to "perfect" their English to be like that of the native speaker, nurturing negative perceptions about nonnative varieties and speakers of English (Honna, 1995; Honna & Takeshita, 2000). As Honna

(1995) points out:

Japanese students of English not only cannot accept their limited proficiency as natural and inevitable, but also look down on nonnative varieties of English used by Asian and African speakers [and] hesitate to interact with English speakers 'until', as they are often heard to say, 'they develop complete proficiency in the language'. (p. 58)

The purported native speaker ideal holds parallels with pedagogical practices as observed in Japan. While the contemporary English language teaching (ELT) scene has witnessed deliberate attempts to incorporate world Englishes (see e.g., Sakai, 2005), the role model in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts generally remains an exonormative native speaker one (Kirkpatrick, 2007). By the same token, North American and British English have been the preferred varieties in Japan (Loveday, 1996; Morrow, 2004). This preference remains current in the Japanese ELT industry. In this respect, Matsuda (2002) explored the representation of English users and uses in Japanese government-authorized textbooks of English. She discovered that these textbooks tended to emphasize native uses and users of English, such as North American, British, and Australian. Goddard (2001) investigated how teachers in Japan approach ELT with what level of awareness of the regional variation of English. His survey demonstrated that even among skilled and knowledgeable teachers, there was a paucity of attention to regional variation of the language, and hence, an absence of a systematic approach to address the learner's awareness of varieties of English (Goddard, 2001, p. 22). These findings point to the potential gap between the current scholarly reconfiguration of the role model of English (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2001), and the folk perceptions and ELT practices as observed in Japan.

The literature suggests that the exonormative model of English not only devalues local nonnative teachers and undermines their self-confidence, but also projects the goal of learning the language as to be unattainable in the eyes of the great majority of students (Kirkpatrick, 2007). In face of this deficiency of the exonormative model, a pedagogical reformation has been proposed with a view to effective international and cross-cultural communication, as opposed to the acquisition of the native speaker's norm (e.g., Jenkins, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Mauranen, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2003). In this connection, to what extent language learners perceive the ownership of global English to rest with themselves as nonnative speakers merits empirical verification. This applies, in particular, to the periphery such as Japan where people purportedly perceive the English language *not* as their own property (Matsuda, 2003). If in one small corner of the globe, people do not have a sense of ownership of English as a lingua franca due to a belief in the myth of the native speaker, then this will hold important ramifications for theory and practice.

Upon this justification, the present study sought to measure language learner attitudes in this respect drawing upon the framework of language attitudes (e.g., Baker 1992; Gardner, 1985; Garrett, 2010; Garrett, Coupland, & Williams, 2003; Ryan & Giles, 1982). There are several language attitude studies in Japan that reported a preference for native varieties of English among tertiary students (Chiba, Matsuura, & Yamamoto, 1995; Matsuura, Chiba, & Yamamoto, 1994) and high school students (Fraser, 2006; Matsuda, 2003; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). Studies that specifically addressed the native speaker ideal within the context of language attitude are those by Matsuda (2003) and Saito and Hatoss (2011). To reiterate, Matsuda (2003) demonstrated a strong belief among high school students that English was the property of its native speakers. In their survey-based psychometric study, Saito and Hatoss (2011) reported that the native speakership orientation persists strongly among high school students in Japan.

Meanwhile, there has been no study to date in respect of the native speaker ideal among middle school students. Researching this particular population is critical, as the vast majority of Japanese students embark on EFL at middle school[1], and therefore the findings of such a study will have great significance for EFL pedagogy. In particular, there is a paucity of research on Japanese language attitudes that addresses the different segments of a population in question such as age and gender (Starks & Paltridge, 1996). Since attitudinal differences within a population could be a reflection of attitude change or demographic difference thereof, they might serve useful purposes—policy and planning, curricular, or pedagogical—when targeted separately. Therefore, in order to enhance its explanatory and application potentiality, the study addressed the possible age-stratified and gender-specific variations in attitudes also.

II. Research Questions

The aim of the present study was three-fold. First, it sought to examine whether Japanese middle school students show a native speaker orientation in their attitudes towards different varieties of English. The second aim was to see whether they show any different disposition towards learning English according to the prospect of interacting with native speakers of English in the future. Third, it sought to ascertain whether there were any age-stratified and gender differences in their dispositions that indicate a native speaker orientation. Thus, the following three research questions were elaborated:

1. Do Japanese middle school students' attitudes differ towards native and nonnative varieties of English?
2. Do they display any difference in motivational disposition according to whether they associate learning the language with a setting where English is the primary language?
3. Do their language attitudes show any age-stratified and gender-specific variations?

III. Theoretical Underpinnings

A. *Language Attitudes*

According to Baker, a survey of perceptions of a language and language learning—language attitudes—provides insights into the current community thoughts and beliefs, and preferences and desires pertaining to second and foreign language learning (Baker, 1992, p. 9). Since any given language learning context embraces its own local sociocultural particularities, an investigation of folk perceptions of sociolinguistic variations and the significance for them of learning the target language (see Niedzielski & Preston, 2000) provides essential pedagogical information. The point here lies not in the objective truth but rather in the learners' subjective reality, because it is their perceptions that will influence their choices and behaviors in language learning (Riley, 1997, p. 127). Thus, language attitudes in this study were seen as an amalgam of learners' attitudinal disposition towards different varieties of English and learning English.

The major implication of attitudes for language learning and teaching is the predictive power of these attitudes with respect to any number of dependent behaviors. Attitudes can predict behavior insofar as they are strongly activated and/or when one clearly perceives a link between one's attitude and behavior (Ajzen, 1996; see also Greenwald & Banaji 1995, p. 7). Although there is considerable evidence that attitudes do not always predict behavior, this lack of accord itself is of interest in terms of language learning and use which involves a long-term commitment compared to, for example, buying a car (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 9). People may, for instance, strategically conceal their accent to which they are otherwise strongly loyal, knowing this enhances their chances of getting a job, thus helping them achieve their career goals.

B. Attitude to Language

While no language or language variety is superior or inferior in its own right (e.g., Edwards, 1979), each is subject to attitudes which represent "a person's evaluation of [a] psychological object" (Ajzen & Fishbein 1980, p. 26). Psychologically, one's attitude emerges as one responds to an object evaluatively. This attitude formation process operates in the context of one's personal experiences, social interactions, and indirect information about the object (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert 2005, p. 201). Indeed, past scholarship suggests that attitudes to language varieties are inherently informed by knowledge of the social connotations that these varieties possess for those people familiar with them (see Edwards, 1982). A great deal of attitude research has been conducted with recorded speech samples of languages or language varieties by eliciting evaluations given to them by research participants as judges; the judgments are then considered to represent stereotyped reactions to these varieties (see also Garrett, 2010, p. 32). The speech samples act as identifiers for the judge, allowing his or her expression of social stereotypes. Thus, in fact, despite the guise that it is the speech sample which the judge evaluates, it is not the speech per se which is evaluated, but rather the speaker (Edwards, 1982, p. 22). Indeed, since attitude research in general conceives of the speech sample as a cue evoking a stereotype of the speech community to which the speaker belongs, other identifiers such as written descriptions of the speech community might elicit quite the same social connotations. In sum, measured language attitudes inherently reflect some social connotations attached to the speakers of the language varieties in question.

C. Attitude to Language Learning

Attitude as a theoretical construct is closely associated with motivational dispositions in language learning (Baker, 1992). The classic distinction between integrative and instrumental attitudes emerged from the speculation that language learners' attitudes to the target language and culture, as well as to the goals to be achieved or the practical value and advantages conferred by a proficiency in the language, would have a significant impact on attitudes to second language learning and thus its outcomes (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Integrative attitude is "reflecting a willingness or a desire to be like representative members of the 'other' language community, and to become associated, at least vicariously, with that other community" (Gardner & Lambert 1972, p. 14), while instrumental attitude is "characterised by a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language" (Gardner & Lambert 1972, p. 14). These concepts are now refined and incorporated in the theories of second/foreign language learning (henceforth, L2) motivation research (see e.g., Dörnyei, 2005, Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; 2011).

It is hence important to emphasize that L2 motivation as a theoretical construct is a complex and multidimensional one. Needless to say, researching this construct in its entirety demands a deliberate methodological planning. Meanwhile, this study focuses on native speaker orientation and its magnitude among (a group of) Japanese middle school students; it will not address L2 motivation in its broad conceptual and methodological spectrum. The main concern here is how native speaker orientation will be revealed in students' attitudes to English language learning. Specifically, the study sought to explore a possible variability in attitudes towards English language learning according to two simulated frames: the native speaker setting where English is the primary language and participants are likely to use English for interaction with native speakers, and the lingua franca setting in which participants are likely to use English for communication with nonnative speakers of English. As reported subsequently, the possible context-dependent difference in the dispositions in this respect was sought by repeating the same measurement items in these two frames.

IV. The Study

A. Participants

The survey took place at a public middle school located in the suburban area of a coastal city in central Japan.

Permission for data collection at the school was granted by the principal, and 338 students consented to participate (Table 1). At this school, while the post graduation pathways of the students mostly converged on public and private high schools, the programs of these high schools that they sought to enroll in were varying, ranging from academic university-bound to technical ones (e.g., agricultural, industrial, and commercial). In the high school admission test in Japan, which is high-stakes (see Saito, 2006), English is normally given equal weight as the other subjects (i.e., mathematics, sciences, social studies, and Japanese language arts). Demographic information such as age, gender, linguistic background, and cross-linguistic contact, was sought as part of the survey. All of the students were Japanese. No multilingual background was reported. The duration of their English language learning as a school subject by the time the survey took place was one and a half years for the eighth graders, and two and a half years for the ninth graders. Twenty students who did not complete the grade and gender questions were eliminated from the subsequent analysis.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS ACCORDING TO GRADE AND GENDER

	Grade 8	Grade 9	Total	Missing value
Male	80	71	151	
Female	88	79	167	
Total	168	150	318	20[a]

[a]Twenty students did not complete the grade and gender questions.

B. Materials

The questionnaire was first drawn up in English and translated into Japanese by the author. The questionnaire was translated back into English by two Japanese undergraduates at an Australian university. This back-translation was then cross-checked and reconciled with the original questionnaire by the author. In addition to demographic information, the survey also sought to elicit participants' awareness about the notion of "Anglophone countries". Participants were asked in which country (or region) they think people primarily speak English. This item was included in order to see whether participants associate the notion of Anglophone countries with a setting in which English is the primary language and participants would use English mainly with native speakers of the language.

The questionnaire included two instruments: Instruments 1 and 2 (see the Appendix). Instrument 1 (Items 1–6) contained 5-point semantic-differential items to ascertain students' attitudes toward six different varieties of English: UK, US, India, Singapore, Japanese, and China varieties. The former two native varieties were the dominant role models for Japanese learners (Loveday, 1996; Morrow, 2004). The other four were selected from Asian regions in line with Kachru's three-circle categories (1985). The India and Singapore varieties were selected as institutionalized Outer Circle varieties in the World Englishes literature (e.g., Kachru, 1982). Japanese and China varieties were selected as performance varieties (e.g., Kachru, 1982) representing the Expanding Circle. The instrument contained six bi-polar adjectives to measure attitudes toward each variety of English.

Instrument 2 (Items 7a-8h) was designed to see in which frame—the native speaker or the lingua franca setting—the participants' attitudes to the goals of learning English display more magnitude. The instrument included eight items to measure the integrative and instrumental elements of attitudes to the goals of learning a second language as envisioned in the social psychological perspective of L2 motivation (Gardner, 1985). To reiterate, this is not to say that the study intended to probe the immense complexity of L2 motivation per se (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; 2011). Rather, the study focussed on these attitudinal elements with a view to a preliminary insight into the native speaker ideal among Japanese middle school EFL learners. Thus, the study sought to elicit participants' dispositions along this line. That is, in terms of two frames by repeating each question with the frame being either native speaker or lingua franca setting. This design was intended to measure participants' dispositions with respect to these two different frames.

While the items on the questionnaire were separate ones, collapsing them into one composite score was pursued in order to facilitate the comparison and reporting of the results. The study post hoc checked the appropriateness of collapsing them into one composite score for attitudinal and motivational dispositions, respectively. The appropriateness of this procedure was supported as in the subsequent measurement reporting. The items were thus found to indicate either positive or negative dispositions toward the varieties of English and English language learning in the two different frames. The composite scores were then used for attitudinal inferences in terms of native speaker orientations.

C. Procedure

The final version of the questionnaire was personally delivered to the school by the author. The questionnaire was administered during the teaching hours of the school. The teaching staff members who had agreed to take charge of the administration of the survey distributed the questionnaires among participants. Participation was consent-based, anonymous, and withdrawable at any point during the administration. The completed questionnaires were collected by the teaching staff and passed on to the author. The questionnaires were then computer-coded, and the data were analyzed on SPSS 17.0. In order to minimize the probability of committing a Type I error, the study set the alpha level at .01. The data were subjected to tests of normality and skewness. While the distributions for a large number of items were positively or negatively skewed, this did not rule out the use of t-tests for the inferential statistical analysis, as t-tests are considered a fairly robust procedure (Sheskin, 2007, p. 453).

V. Results

A. Anglophone Countries

Whilst some students named two or more countries as being Anglophone, the vast majority of them (n = 309) provided as their sole or first answer either the US (n = 269), the UK (n = 38), or Australia (n = 2) where English is the primary language. This result accords with Matsuda's (2003) finding (see Introduction), evincing that the participants of this study strongly associated the notion of Anglophone countries with a setting where English is used primarily for communication among its native speakers.

B. Attitudes to the Varieties of English

In order to facilitate a comparison of attitudinal differences with regards to the six language varieties in question, the study collapsed the six items to constitute a composite attitude scale. Prior to this operation, the study examined the appropriateness of collapsing the six separate items on Instrument 1 into one composite score for attitudinal disposition to the target language. This was done by interpreting an index of reliability. Internal consistency of the items for each variety of English was examined by using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were very high, ranging from .918 to .960 (Table 2). This result supported the collapsing of the separate items into one composite score for attitudinal disposition to the target language. Hence, the items were aggregated to form a composite language attitude scale with negative and positive disposition towards the variety of English in question being the interpretative continuum for the scale. The scale as a whole was labeled Attitudinal Disposition (hence, AD). The attitudes measured for each variety of English were labeled ADUK (attitudinal disposition toward UK English), ADSP (Singapore English), ADUS (US English), ADJP (Japanese English), ADIN (India English), and ADCH (China English).

TABLE 2
ALPHA VALUES AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ATTITUDINAL DISPOSITIONS

	α	*N*	*M*	*SD*
ADUS	.936	318	19.7	6.36
ADJP	.952	318	16.9	6.39
ADUK	.918	318	16.3	5.70
ADSP	.938	318	14.1	5.05
ADCH	.952	318	13.8	5.58
ADIN	.960	318	13.3	5.54

Note. ADUK = Attitude to UK English; ADSP = Attitude to Singapore English; ADJP = Attitude to Japanese English; ADUK = Attitude to UK English; ADIN = Attitude to India English; ADCH = Attitude to China English.

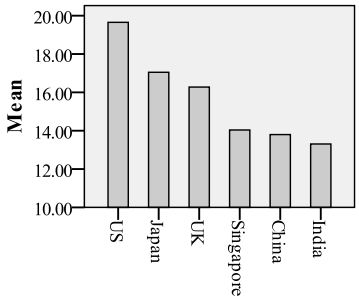

Figure 1Means for attitudinal dispositions

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the attitudinal dispositions toward each variety of English. Paired-samples t-tests were conducted to see the possible differences between these dispositions (cf. Figure 1). The result showed that there was a significant difference between ADUS (M = 19.7, SD = 6.36, N = 318) and ADJP (M = 16.9, SD = 6.39, N = 318), t(317) = 6.53, p=.000., and ADUK (M = 16.3, SD = 5.70, N = 318) and ADSP (M = 14.1, SD = 5.05, N = 318) t(317) = 9.48, p=.000. It is notable that there was not a significant difference in scores for ADJP (M = 16.9, SD = 6.39, N = 318) and ADUK (M = 16.3, SD = 5.70, N = 318), t(317) = -1.25, p=.213.

C. Attitudes to English Language Learning

The study examined the appropriateness of collapsing the eight separate items on Instrument 2 into one composite score for motivational disposition in the two—native and lingua franca—frames. This was done by interpreting an index of reliability. Internal consistency of the items for each frame was examined by using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were very high, .935 for MDNS and .941 for MDLF. This result supported the collapsing of the separate items into one composite score for motivational disposition in both frames. Hence, the items were aggregated to form a composite scale with negative or positive disposition towards English language learning being the interpretative continuum for the scale. The scale was labelled Motivational Disposition (hence, MD). The motivational dispositions in each frame were labelled MDNS (MD in the native speaker frame) and MDLF (MD in the lingua franca frame), respectively (Table 3). Following on from this, the scores for MDNS and MDLF were compared by conducting a paired-samples t-test. There was a significant difference in terms of scores for MDNS (M = 26.9, SD = 8.70, N = 318) and MDLF (M = 23.1, SD =

8.54, N = 318), t (317) = 10.0, p=.000.

TABLE 3
ALPHA VALUES AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MOTIVATIONAL DISPOSITIONS

	α	*N*	*M*	*SD*
MDNS	.935	318	26.9	8.70
MDLF	.941	318	23.1	8.54

Note. MDNS = motivational disposition in the native speaker frame; MDLF = motivational disposition in the lingua franca frame.

D. The Age and Gender Variation

Table 4 compares the means of AD for the two grade (in lieu of age) groups. An independent-samples t-test detected a significant difference in terms of ADUK between the two groups. In addition, there was no significant difference with regard to ADJP between them. It is notable that the effect size[2] (i.e., Cohen's *d*) of this age difference for ADUK was more than double the value of these for ADUS and ADSP. In parallel, Table 5 compares the means of MD for the two grade groups. An independent-samples t-test detected a significant difference in terms of MDNS between the two groups with the effect size being more than triple the amount of that for MDLF.

TABLE 4
CONTRAST OF EIGHTH AND NINTH GRADERS' ATTITUDINAL DISPOSITIONS

	Grade 8		Grade 9					99% CI		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	Cohen's *d*
ADUS	19.0	6.20	20.4	6.47	316	-2.08	.038	-3.32	0.36	-0.22
ADJP	17.1	6.07	16.5	6.73	316	0.83	.410	-1.27	2.45	0.09
ADUK	15.1	5.47	17.7	5.66	316	-4.14	.000	-4.21	-0.97	-0.47
ADSP	13.6	5.22	14.6	4.82	316	-1.74	.082	-2.45	0.48	-0.20
ADCH	13.7	5.60	13.9	5.60	316	-0.27	.791	-1.79	1.46	-0.04
ADIN	12.9	5.43	13.8	5.64	316	-1.34	.181	-2.82	0.60	-0.16

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit. ADUK = Attitude to UK English; ADSP = Attitude to Singapore English; ADJP = Attitude to Japanese English; ADUK = Attitude to UK English; ADIN = Attitude to India English; ADCH = Attitude to China English.

TABLE 5
CONTRAST OF EIGHTH AND NINTH GRADERS' MOTIVATIONAL DISPOSITIONS

	Grade 8		Grade 9					99% CI		Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	
MDNS	25.7	8.58	28.3	8.66	316	-2.69	.008	-5.11	-0.09	-0.30
MDLF	22.7	8.49	23.4	8.63	316	-0.74	.461	-3.20	1.78	-0.08

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; MDNS = motivational disposition in the native speaker frame; MDLF = motivational disposition in the lingua franca frame.

Table 6 compares the means of AD for the two gender groups. There was a significant difference in terms of ADUK and ADUS between the two groups. That is, the means of ADUK and ADUS for females were significantly larger than those of the male students. Although the score of ADSP for female students was also significantly greater than that of the male, an interpretation of the effect sizes suggests that the magnitude of this gender difference is larger for ADUK and ADUS than for ADSP. Meanwhile, Table 7 compares the means of MD for the two gender groups. An independent-samples t-test showed that there is a significant difference in terms of MDNS between male and female students. The mean of MDNS for females was significantly greater than that of the male students.

TABLE 6
CONTRAST OF MALE AND FEMALE ATTITUDINAL DISPOSITIONS

	Male		Female					99% CI		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	Cohen's *d*
ADUS	18.4	6.72	20.8	5.81	316	-3.40	.001	-4.21	-0.57	-0.38
ADJP	16.7	6.83	17.0	5.97	316	-0.31	.758	-2.08	1.64	-0.05
ADUK	15.1	6.06	17.4	5.21	295.1	-3.77	.000	-4.02	-0.74	-0.41
ADSP	13.3	5.47	14.8	4.54	292.7	-2.61	.009	-2.95	-0.03	-0.30
ADCH	13.3	5.82	14.4	5.33	316	-1.76	.079	-2.72	0.52	-0.20
ADIN	13.2	6.17	13.4	4.92	286.5	-0.39	.697	-1.88	1.39	-0.04

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit. ADUK = Attitude to UK English; ADSP = Attitude to Singapore English; ADJP = Attitude to Japanese English; ADUK = Attitude to UK English; ADIN = Attitude to India English; ADCH = Attitude to China English.

TABLE 7
CONTRAST OF MALE AND FEMALE MOTIVATIONAL DISPOSITIONS

	Male		Female					99% CI		Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	
MDNS	25.5	9.05	28.3	8.18	316	-2.88	.004	-5.28	-0.28	-0.32
MDLF	21.8	8.60	24.2	8.33	316	-2.56	.011	-4.90	0.03	-0.28

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; MDNS = motivational disposition in the native speaker frame; MDLF = motivational disposition in the lingua franca frame.

E. Limitations

A notable limitation of the study is that the measurement items asked the participants direct questions about language evaluation and preference drawing upon the overt elicitation of attitudes. This method might have elicited the attitudes that they are normally prepared to tell people about, coupled with the dominant stereotypical disposition of the community that the students inhabit towards the speakers of these language varieties in question (see Edwards, 1982). An indirect measure (i.e., matched- or verbal-guise technique which uses recorded speech samples of the varieties of English as vocal cues[3]) might have produced different findings such as their subconsciously held private views about language variation (cf. Kristiansen, 2009). This issue considered, the extent to which the scales have ascertained what the study claims to have measured draws attention to their internal validity. Meanwhile, although the demonstrated age-stratified variations in language attitudes may be hypothesized as representing an attitudinal change in progress, this can only be confirmed by real-time evidence (Eckert, 1997), which involves sampling the population for a prolonged period of time. This demands further empirical verification in this respect. Future studies should incorporate a longitudinal component in order to ascertain this element.

Given that the education system of Japan is highly centralized and the Course of Study policy documents penetrate both the public and private sectors of education (e.g., DeCoker, 2002), a certain degree of uniformity and standardization in pedagogy can be anticipated. To this extent, the results of this study may be generalizable to other middle school students in similar social, educational, and areal situations in Japan. The author extrapolates from the data, coupled with past studies of language attitudes and language ideology in Japan (e.g., Honna, 1995; Matsuda, 2003; Seargeant, 2009) as well as folk anecdotes concomitant with the author's own personal experiences, that a certain level of native speaker orientation may be anticipated for this segment of population also (i.e., middle school students). However, the author would note that an overgeneralization must be refrained. To raise a couple of possibilities among others, students' orientation may be subject to the particular pedagogical approach taken (or not taken) at each school with regard to the native speaker orientation. This study did not pursue such empirical information. These limits recognized, the findings are discussed in what follows.

VI. Discussion

As the attitudinal profile of the participants demonstrates, these middle school students have different attitudes toward different varieties of English. Specifically, they evaluate US English (M = 19.7; cf. the mid point being 18 out of 30) most positively among the six varieties. While they evaluate the other varieties of English negatively, they evaluate UK (M = 16.3) and Japanese (M = 16.9) English similarly. In contrast, as t-tests indicate, they hold clearly negative attitudes to the other nonnative varieties of English such as China and India English. Thus, the students in this study have discriminative attitudes toward different varieties of English as early as at middle school. This finding is congruous with the previous research in this respect that reported Japanese discriminative attitudes towards native and nonnative varieties in different segments of the population (e.g., Honna, 1995; Honna & Takeshita, 2000; Matsuda, 2002; 2003; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). The analysis has also revealed that they show a more positive disposition toward English language learning in the native speaker than in the lingua franca frame. This result suggests that Japanese middle school students opt for learning English for its utility in the native speaker setting, rather than for its transnational instrumentality in a lingua franca setting.

The examination of the age-stratified variation in their dispositions indicates that the students' attitudes to UK English as a native variety significantly change in the positive direction during the one-year time span in transition from Grade 8 to 9. In parallel, it is notable that Japanese English is evaluated positively *in relative terms* among the six varieties of English, as there was no significant difference between attitudes to UK and those to Japanese English. This is in stark contrast to the attitudes expressed by high school students in Japan. Saito and Hatoss (2011) examined language attitudes among high school students in Japan (i.e., Grades 11 and 12) with the same survey format of this paper. Their study revealed that the students had the most negative attitudes to Japanese English among the same six varieties of English, while showing the most positive attitudes to US and UK English. As opposed to the middle school students in this study, these high school students therefore clearly differentiated between these native English varieties and the Japanese variety. These age variations can be considered to be a preliminary indication of the developmental trajectory of a native speaker ideal among Japanese secondary school students. Meanwhile, the gender variation suggests that the females may be leading in the development of a native speaker orientation, with regard to the motivational orientations in particular.

VII. Conclusion

This study provides a preliminary insight into the native speaker orientation among middle school EFL students in Japan. The students in this study certainly distinguish native and non-native varieties of English as well as native and lingua franca settings. They value native English and envision use of English in the native speaker setting. Thus, their commitment to a native speaker ideal implies that they may envision the target speech community of English, contrary to the current scholarly theorizing of English as the language of a global transnational community. This suggests that the status of the "target speech community" as viewed by the language learner merits further empirical investigation.

Finally, this study raised but not resolved the issue of where the students' commitment to a native speaker ideal comes from. There are a range of sources through which this ideal may be conceived such as folk anecdotes, media discourses, overseas travelling, and so forth. In unison with the point made by Matsuda (2002) earlier, the author speculates that the major source of this native speaker ideal might be the current teaching material and pedagogical practices as aforementioned, although this causal link cannot be demonstrated without empirical evidence. Although without evidence in this respect, the paper does demonstrate that the native speaker orientation calls for an educational intervention at middle school when the vast majority of Japanese embark on EFL. The author would argue that the intervention ought not to be deferred to a later stage, say, at high school when students' discriminative attitudes to native and nonnative varieties of English become articulate (Saito & Hatoss, 2011). From this pedagogical perspective, the insight from the English as a lingua franca approach (e.g., Jenkins, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Mauranen, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2003) certainly contributes to a construction of pedagogy which encourages an adoption of English as a means of international communication among secondary students in Japan.

On the other hand, one would be better off not supposing the teaching that students receive only influences their perception and attitudes. In his elaborate account of the idea of the English language as manifest in Japanese society, Seargeant (2009) notes that it might be true that alterations to syllabus and teacher training would bring about profound effects with a view to raising awareness about the use and varieties of English as a lingua franca. But this would be the case if the students' attitudes are considered merely to be a direct reflection of the teaching that they receive (Seargeant, 2009, p. 94). Seargeant thus points to the need to view the pedagogical practices and student dispositions pertaining to the English language in the broader social sphere within which language learning takes place:

[D]ifferent cultures construct their own profiles and purposes for the English language, and … in certain contexts these profiles can in fact obstruct the easy adoption of the language as a form of international communication while still allowing it to fulfill other significant functions within society. (Seargeant, 2009, p. 89)

As students proceed with learning at school and grow older, they may become inducted and socialized into particular (pedagogical and) social practices relating to the English language as in Japanese society. This implies further research that features the trajectory of language attitudes of secondary students in Japan.

NOTES

1. While foreign languages are taught as a required subject at middle and high school in Japan (MEXT, 2003), most secondary schools teach English because of the foreign language requirement for degrees at many tertiary institutions and the consequent emphasis on English in high school and university entrance examinations (Gottlieb, 2005, p. 31). Compulsory foreign language activities are scheduled to be implemented at primary level (grades 5 and 6) in 2011 (MEXT, 2008).

2. Effect size enables a comparison of the results in different studies (see Dörnyei, 2007, p. 212 for more details).

3. That being said, matched- and verbal-guise studies also cannot avoid criticism in terms of internal and external validity. See Garrett (2010) and Knops and Hagen (1989) for a summary of such criticisms.

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APPENDIX: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Instrument 1:

1. What impression do you have of UK English? Please circle the number for each item that best positions your answer.

Uncool	1	2	3	4	5	Cool
Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	Important
Lacking prestige	1	2	3	4	5	Prestigious
Powerless	1	2	3	4	5	Powerful
Unpopular	1	2	3	4	5	Popular
Unfashionable	1	2	3	4	5	Fashionable

Note: The same measurement items were repeated for each of the other five (US, India, Singapore, Japanese, and China) varieties of English.

Instrument 2:

7. Do you agree or disagree with these statements? Please tick in one box for each item that best positions your answer.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Studying English is important if one wants to …	1	2	3	4	5
a. Understand cultures of *Anglophone countries (*an Anglophone country refers to one in which English is primarily spoken).	□	□	□	□	□
b. Understand cultures of **non-Anglophone countries (excluding Japan) (**a non-Anglophone country refers to one in which English is not spoken).	□	□	□	□	□
c. Visit/Make friends from Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
d. Visit/Make friends from non-Anglophone countries (excluding Japan).	□	□	□	□	□
e. Think and behave like Anglophone people do.	□	□	□	□	□
f. Think and behave like non-Anglophone people do (excluding Japan).	□	□	□	□	□
g. Learn the life style of Anglophone nations.	□	□	□	□	□
h. Learn the life style of non-Anglophone nations (excluding Japan).	□	□	□	□	□

8. Do you agree or disagree with these statements? Please tick in one box for each item that best positions your answer.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Studying English is important if one wants to …	1	2	3	4	5
a. Study in Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
b. Study in non-Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
c. Get a better job, higher salary, or promotions in Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
d. Get a better job, higher salary, or promotions in non-Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
e. Travel to Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
f. Travel to non-Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
g. Live in Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□
h. Live in non-Anglophone countries.	□	□	□	□	□

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The Competence of Greek High School Students at the End of Compulsory Education in Language Use

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***Abstract*—In this article I intend to focus on the discussion pertaining to communicative competence regarding reading competence and specific reading skills. In particular, this paper investigates whether and to what extent the progress on language use is differentiated in relation to factors as sex, place of residence, social position and use of a language other than Greek at home. The experiment presented here took place in the scholar seasons 2004/05 and 2005/06 and examined572 pupils of the 3rd class of Greek High school. These were divided into equal numbers of participants residing in i) a Greek city of more than 1000000 residents (Thessaloniki) ii) a Greek city of about 100000 residents (Ioannina) and iii) Greek villages of 1 to 5000 residents. Data was obtained by means of a test especially designed for the purposes of this work, namely to evaluate student reading skills. The results have shown that the progress in language use is related to student place of residence and social position but is not affected by factors like sex and use of a language other than Greek at home.**

***Index Terms*—language teaching, communicative competence, language use, sociolinguistic, compulsory education**

I. The Two Dimensions of Language

Language use has not always been the target of foreign language teaching. Until about four decades ago, the interest of language teaching focused on ancient languages and literature. The way languages like ancient Greek and Latin were treated was transferred to the teaching of modern languages and thereby to the teaching of Modern Greek. The burden fell on teaching grammar, so that knowledge of language meant knowledge of grammar.

Saussure was the first to propose in 1916 that language is a social institution, emphasizing thereby the social character of language and suggesting the dichotomy of language/speech (langue/parole) (Saussure, 1979). Saussure's dichotomy is related to Chomsky's distinction between language competence and language performance. Chomsky defined linguistic performance as the way that one uses his linguistic skills in daily communication situations (Babiniotis, 1977). Performance is defined as a set of skills, but it is also influenced by psychological and physiological factors (e.g. fatigue, drunkenness, boredom among others) mood, perceptions of the speakers for their interlocutors etc. (Pavlidou 1991).

Communicative competence appeared in languages teaching in the late 70's and has been affected by disciplines such as ethnography of communication, psychology, sociolinguistics, social anthropology, philosophy of language, etc.. This new trend has led to diversification of the way modern languages are taught. So, while previously language was identified as a system of words and grammar, the focus is now on the operation of this system and its use by the speaker. This means that knowledge coexists with language use.

The science dealing with linguistic communication and communicative competence is ethnography of communication. The scientist who established it was the American anthropologist Dell Hymes, who argued that any linguistic approach having an interest only to analyze the structure of language as a code, would neglect its social importance, variety and uses. So Hymes between the 60s and 70s strongly supported that it is necessary for language to be studied in relation to the laws that govern and support a communicative situation. He developed his theory during his research on American Indian communities, using the method of observation of linguistic events in their linguistic environment.

Hymes emphasizes the meaning of communicative competence, a broader concept under which Chomsky's linguistic competence is subsumed. Communicative competence is realized as a direct effect on linguistic environment. If one wants to communicate effectively, he needs to know how to connect the received or produced message with the social factors that determine the speech situation. Hymes has proposed an ethnographic framework which takes into account the various factors that are involved in speaking. The Ethnography of a communicative event is a description of all factors that are relevant in understanding how that particular communicative event achieves its objectives. Hymes used the word SPEAKING as an acronym for the various factors he deems to be relevant (Hymes, 1971). These are:

S: Setting and Scene

P: Participants
E: Ends
A: Acts
K: Key
I: Instrumentalities
N: Norms)
G: Genre

With the model of SPEAKING Hymes underlines, that communication is a complex activity and that even a special piece of speech is a "piece of specialized work." A speaker successful in communication needs to take into account the eight afore mentioned factors. When something goes wrong in the communicative act, which is often, speakers usually fail to meet some of these conditions. Since we acknowledge that there are "better" speakers and "poorer" speakers, we may also assume that individuals vary in their ability to manage and exploit the total array of the factors involved (Wardhangh 1992).

The importance of communicative skills is related with the functional character of language. This is most prominently expressed by Beser and Kreuder in the following: "We do not understand language as a standardized inventory of signs and rules, but language is our most important medium of communication between people. People communicate with each other in exchanging messages based on their internal world for the purpose of meeting needs and for the fulfilment of interests. Without communication, no interaction is possible (Beser and Kreuder, 1975, p. 15).[1]" Accordingly, two things are the most important points of language learning: firstly the skills that need to be developed, because they will allow the student to act effectively in cases of communication, and, secondly, classroom communication which will provide the student with appropriate learning opportunities.

Some years later Greek researchers have also maintained the double dimension of language. Tokatlidou (1986) specifically argued that communicative competence has a linguistic and extralinguistic dimension. Consequently we are not only interested in language acquisition in the terms of correct application of formal rules, which actually is the acquisition of a system, but rather in the selection of a type appropriate for each occasion, namely the application of the linguistic system for communication. Haralambopoulos and Hatzisavidis (1997) also support that language structure and use are interrelated and influence each other. Athanasiou (1998) explains that knowledge of a language entails among others the knowledge of the grammar, the syntax, the etymology, as well as production of a language. Using the language, on the other hand, is the ability to put these skills into use for communicative purposes in various circumstances. The basic principle of this new theoretical approach is that each teaching program must be focused on students. More specifically, the decisive criterion for the design of a language teaching program in every aspect (materials, technical, etc.) is the pupil, and especially his social and linguistic needs, his previous education and his cultural background (Tokatlidou 1986).

Today, the communicative approach is the main method of the foreign language teaching. Since 2000 the teaching process has been supported by the Common European Framework of Reference for the language, which is adopted by the Council of Europe[2]. This version was released in several languages (among them Greek[3]) and includes guidelines for language teaching. In focus is the use of language and therefore the approach treats language users and language learners primarily as 'social factors', who must carry out communicative tasks (which are not necessarily associated with language) in a given set of circumstances, in a particular environment and in a particular field.

II. The Research

A. Methodology

This paper is part of a wider research and investigates whether and to what extent the progress on language use is differentiated in relation to factors as sex, place of residence, social position and use of a language other than Greek at home. It took place in the scholar seasons 2004/05 and 2005/06 and examined pupils of the 3rd grade of Greek High school (this point signifies the end of the compulsory education in Greece). In order to meet this objective I took a sample of 572 Greek High school students. These students were divided into equal numbers of participants residing in a Greek city of more than 1000000 residents (Thessaloniki), a Greek city of about 100000 residents (Ioannina) and Greek villages of 1 to 5000 residents.

To the best of my knowledge a similar research, that focuses on the end of compulsory education (the third class of high school) and evaluates only the communicative skills of students through daily texts, had not been carried out for

[1] The German text is: "Wir verstehen *Sprache* nicht als genormtes Inventar von Zeichen und Verknüpfungsregeln, sondern Sprache ist für uns das wichtigste Mittel der Verständigung zwischen Menschen. Indem Menschen Nachrichten austauschen und *auf ihre äußere Welt zum Zwecke der Befriedigung von Bedürfnissen auf dem Erfüllen von Interessen* entwirken, kommunizieren sie miteinander. Ohne Kommunikation ist keine Interaktion denkbar'' (Beser and Kreuder, 1975, p.15).
[2] http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf
[3] ΣτΕ. *Κοινό Ευρωπαϊκό Πλαίσιο αναφοράς για τη γλώσσα: εκμάθηση, διδασκαλία, αξιολόγηση*. Επιμέλεια ελληνικής έκδοσης Ευσταθιάδης Σ.. και Α.Τσαγγαλίδης.

Greek in Greece by the time of conducting the current study[4]. Therefore I had to design a new assessment tool, a language test, under which the questions raised by this research could be addressed. This consists of six (6) texts from magazines and newspapers and includes twenty-five (25) questions (18 closed and 7 open-type questions). The criterion for the selection of the texts was the theory of the Domains of Language Behavior from the field of language sociology (Fishman, 1975). In the present investigation I chose to use six texts from six (6) different domains of daily speech from the daily life. These are the domains of news, science, art, public affairs and administration, economics and sports. It should be noted that texts from these domains appear in the students' school course books. The exercises in this language test have been based on the Tsopanoglou's typology (Tsopanoglou, 2000), which is used by the Greek Ministry of Education in the Greek foreign language tests (i.e. KPG: see http://www.ypepth.gr/kpg). The entire test and especially the criteria (i.e. the indicators) for student communicative competence were based on the communicative theory of Hymes and on the language teaching curriculum in Greek secondary (high school) education[5].

The variables relevant for this study are sex, place of residence, language use at home and social status of students. In what follows I will briefly describe how the different categories of social status were defined and used in this work. Social status was assumed to be comprised of two aspects: parents' occupation and level of education. Regarding the first aspect there were four categories and each was given a value as follows:

1. farmers and household
2. technical occupations (crafts) and small business owners.
3. state clerks and private sector employees
4. executives, doctors, lawyers, university teachers, judges.

As for the second aspect, level of education, there were three categories assigned values as follows:

1. primary school and junior high school
2. high school and technological schools
3. college and university

The values of both parents' occupation and level of education were added and the resulting rate represented participant social status on the whole. For example a student whose parents were state clerks with university degrees would be given a12 rating which belongs to the high level. According SPSS, 4-7 is social status of low level, 8-9 is social status of middle level and 10-14 is social status of high level.

The tests had to be completed by the pupils within two (2) school hours (two sessions of forty-five (45) minutes) each and were subsequently collected by the test administrator to ensure the validity of the research. The participants retained their anonymity. A quantitative analysis was conducted on the data by me with the statistical package SPSS 12.

B. Results

The results will be presented in four subsections each corresponding to one of the variables studied. The sections that follow is present whether and to what extent the progress on language use is differentiated in relation to factors as sex, place of residence, social position and use of a language other than Greek at home.

1. Total performance in language use

The following Table shows participant overall performance with respect to language use.

TABLE 1:
AVERAGE IN LANGUAGE USE

N	average	Standard deviation	20	40	60	80	Minimum value	Maximum value
312	17,35	3,53	14	16,2	19	20	8	26

A first observation considering the overall results in the language use, as presented in Table 1, is that the average performance of students is 17.35 (SD = 3.53). The minimum value was found to be 8 and the maximum 26. Regarding score distribution it is worth mentioning that a high percentage (around 40%) gave scores less or equal to the half of the maximum possible performance (32), which we believe constitutes unsatisfactory performance.

2. Performance in language use in relation to sex

The table below shows the average performance in language use in relation to the gender of the students.

TABLE 2.
AVERAGE IN LANGUAGE USE IN RELATION TO SEX

gender	N	average	Standard deviation	20	40	60	80	Min.-Max. value	Mann-Whitney U (p-value)
male	141	16,91	3,54	14	16	19	20	8-25	10549,50
female	170	17,70	3,49	15	17	19	20	8-26	(0,068)

These findings indicate that female students had a better performance than male students. An analysis with the Mann-Whitney U test showed that these differences were not significant, but approached significance (p = 0,068). Regarding

[4] The PISA survey is a broader comparative research between countries belonging to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). It focuses on the reading skills of students in the broadest sense and includes the capacity to cope with literary and theatrical texts, graphs, tables, etc.

[5] The exact translation in Greek is: "Ενιαίο πλαίσιο προγράμματος σπουδών για τη γλωσσική διδασκαλία στο Γυμνάσιο και στο Λύκειο"

the allocation of the students we can find a rate equal to 40% of the male students that shows performance equal to or less than the half of the highest possible performance (32). Conversely this percentage in the female students is somewhat lower. Additionally, the rate of the students from both groups (male and female), who scored more than 20 is 1 to 5 (20%) which is considered a low percentage. This demonstrates a lag in the language use for both groups.

3. Performance in language use in relation to place of residence

In what follows we will proceed to the results from the average performance of students in relation to area of residence (Tables 4 and 5). Table 4 shows the performance of students in each region separately, while Table 5 has two categories: 'urban' (students from Thessaloniki and Ioannina), and 'non-urban' (students from rural areas in the prefecture of Ioannina).

TABLE 3:
AVERAGE IN LANGUAGE USE IN RELATION TO PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Place of residence	N	Average	Standard deviation	20	40	60	80	Min.-Max. value	Kruskal-Wallis (p-value)
Thesaloniki	107	17,85	3,41	15	17	19	20	8-26	12,854 **(0,002)**
Ioannina	111	17,75	3,72	14.4	17	19	21	8-25	
Region of Ioannina (villages)	94	16,32	3,23	13	15	17	20	10-24	

TABLE 4:
AVERAGE IN LANGUAGE USE IN RELATION TO PLACE OF RESIDENCE (URBAN VS. RURAL

Place of residence	N	average	Standard deviation	20	40	60	80	Min.-Max. value	Mann-Whitney U (p-value)
urban	218	17,80	3,56	14,4	17	19	20	8-26	**7638,50**
Rural	94	16,32	3,23	13	15	17	20	10-24	**(<0,001)**

As we can see from the Tables above, the analysis based on the variable “Place of Residence” leads to important conclusions (p value in table 3 is 0,002 and in table 4 <0,001). In particular there is a highly significant main effect of this variable. Namely, we found that the students from the two cities were significantly more successful that the students from the rural areas. Additional comparisons on the above scores showed that the average of the students of Thessaloniki is approximately equal with the average of the students of Ioannina.

On the whole, the performance of students from rural areas is significantly lower compared with the performance of students from urban, which lends additional support to the findings that the variable of Place of Residence has a main effect on student performance. Based on these findings we can maintain that table 5 confirms the results of table 4 and, where the primacy of the urban environment is evident, that relevance is statistically significant (p <0,001).

4. Performance in language use in relation to social position

Table 5 illustrates the average in language use in relation to social position.

TABLE 5:
AVERAGE IN THE USE OF LANGUAGE IN RELATION TO SOCIAL POSITION

Social position	N	Average	Standard deviation	20	40	60	80	Min.-Max. value	Kruskal-Wallis (p-value)
Low	103	16,36	3,39	13	15	17	20	9-24	30,520 **(<0,001)**
middle	115	16,98	3,55	14	16	18	20	8-26	
High	94	18,89	3,14	17	19	20	21	8-25	

The above analysis yielded a significant main effect of the factor of Social Position on the Performance regarding language use. In particular the students from the higher social position achieved the best performance and the students from the other two groups followed with a big difference. Continuing with the distribution of the students, the data has suggested that the pupils of the middle and the lower social position seem to have several difficulties in language use since almost 40% of them (in students from the lower social position the rate is somewhat higher) have a performance equal to or less than the half of the highest possible performance (32). In addition, the portion from the low and the middle social groups who achieved more than 20 in the test was small (only 20%).

5. Performance in language use in relation to use of a language other than Greek at home

Let us examine now the last variable incorporated in this research. Table 6, that follows, shows the average performance in the use of Greek as this was affected by the use of another language at home.

TABLE 6:
AVERAGE IN LANGUAGE USE IN RELATION TO THE USE OF A LANGUAGE OTHER THAN GREEK AT HOME

Use of another language	N	average	Standard deviation	20	40	60	80	Min.-Max. value	Mann-Whitney U (p-value)
yes	39	16,64	2,9	14	16	18	19	8-22	4531,5
no	273	17,45	3,6	14	17	19	20	8-26	- 0,131

Observing the scores in Table 6 it must be noted that this factor does not seem to be significantly related to the performance of children concerning language use. Students, who reported that they are not using another language to

communicate at home, may have a higher performance, but this difference is not statistically significant, (p-value is 0,131). Concerning the allocation of the students a percentage close to 40% from both groups have scored less than or equal to the half of the maximum possible performance (32), which is not satisfactory.

III. Conclusions

Concluding this paper we will provide a summary of the findings. The results from the present study show that there is not a main effect of the variables *Sex* and *Use of a language other than Greek at home* on the student competence in language use. In contrast it was found that there are students who lag in performance because they live in rural areas or because they come from a lower social class. This means that language courses in Greek schools do not seem to be organized in a way that allows all groups of students to develop the same level of linguistic ability regarding reading competence. If these results are valid there are negative consequences for these students. If we take into account that the school's role is to help students in future social and professional choices, something which is decisive for their lives, our results suggest that there are not equal opportunities for all students in these areas.

Based on the above, we think that it is evident that the teaching of language courses in Greek schools needs to be altered. The first step is that the Greek Ministry of Education must realize that students come from different backgrounds and, therefore, they do not have the same needs. Should this happen, changes in teaching materials and in the monitoring of the teaching programs must follow. First of all, the materials for the language course should not be based exclusively on specific books, but teachers must have the possibility to choose authentic language materials addressing the needs of their students, on the condition that this material serves a specific educational goal. This is a necessary requirement for the students to become familiarized with the linguistic forms of everyday communication. Children who experience a social and family environment poor in stimuli need this even more. Additionally, authentic language materials have to be accompanied by communicative activities which will refer to real communication and not only to linguistic structures. Only when all the above are realized will students be able to use the language effectively. Language programs in Greece may in theory be communicative but the monitoring of their implementation is either defective or absent (Gotowos, 2003). In fact often there is not a correspondence between the program conditions and classroom activities. Consequently this could lead to a failure to meet the primary goals of teaching.

Concluding, since the language programs in Greece have taken into account these parameters in their original design, the correct implementation of them could be the answer to the problem.

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Using Internet Resources in Teaching English Subsystems: An Autonomous Approach

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***Abstract*—The paper presents the results of a *quasi-experimental study* related to the development of English subsystems, such us vocabulary and grammar through Internet resources in an autonomous learning environment. The study comprised two classes making up an experimental and control group, each of which received different type of instruction. The data were collected by means of a lexico-grammatical test, learners' logs, an observation and group and individual interviews and subjected to quantitative as well as qualitative analysis. The results show that the use of Internet resources and independent learning were not only welcomed by the experimental students but also contributed to their enhanced command of English vocabulary and the passive voice.**

***Index Terms*—teaching English subsystems, computer technology, Internet resources, autonomy**

I. Introduction

According to Benson (2001), almost all research in the field of autonomy is based on and has implications for the following three hypothesis: (1) the concept of autonomy is based on a natural tendency for learners to take control over their learning, (2) students who lack autonomy are able to develop it provided they are given appropriate conditions and preparation, and (3) autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning. Benson (2001) further claims that "for both practical and theoretical reasons, (…) there is a pressing need for empirical research on the relationship between the development of autonomy and the acquisition of language proficiency" (p. 189). For the researcher, the hypothesis that practices dedicated to fostering autonomy result in better language learning can be confirmed empirically at two levels. As regards the first level, research can demonstrate that a particular form of practice connected with autonomy produces gains in proficiency that are the same or greater than other forms of practice by measuring gains in terms of traditional quantitative indicators of proficiency. When it comes to the second level, research can attempt to show the ways in which proficiency develops due to the distinctive qualities of practices associated with promotion of autonomy by developing indicators of proficiency characteristic of autonomous learning and description of the ways in which the development of autonomy and proficiency interact. Following Benson (2001), we can conclude that the need for research that investigates the connection between the development of autonomy and the growth of language proficiency is justified from both a theoretical and a practical perspective. As for the theoretical point of view, research can assist us in testing and elaborating upon the theoretical hypothesis that autonomy in language learning is equivalent to better language learning. When it comes to the practical perspective, such research can attempt to validate forms of practice that are intended to foster autonomy in terms of language-learning gains.

II. The Relationship between the Development of Learner Autonomy and Language Achievement

One of the earliest research projects that aimed to demonstrate that autonomous learning was effective in terms of language proficiency was called *The Language Acquisition in an Autonomous Learning Environment* (LAALE) (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996). LAALE was a longitudinal study in which each phase of the project focused on different language skills and subsystems. However, what follows is a discussion of vocabulary learning as an example of the areas investigated. In the first two stages of the study, the researchers investigated the words introduced into the classroom and the development of the target language vocabulary among 21 Danish students of English taught in an autonomous way. The vocabulary development of the students was then compared with the vocabulary development of two parallel classes instructed in a more traditional manner. As far as the lessons are concerned, the students in the autonomous class studied new English words by bringing samples of the target language they came across in their everyday life into the classroom and then learned them through group work or displayed them on the walls so as other students were able to study it. In addition, new vocabulary was also presented to them by the teacher by means of songs, rhymes or fairy tales. When it comes to the conventional classes, the new words were introduced through coursebooks or by the teacher. The procedures of data collection employed two vocabulary tests administered to the participants of the study after 7.5 and 15 weeks of learning. The first test was an informal elicitation of all the words the students were able to evoke and the second test was a long-term passive retention of dozens of words with the focus on receptive skills and spelling. The results of the study indicated that the students (weak ones in particular) in the autonomous group were

able to better recall words presented in songs or rhymes than their traditional counterparts. It was also found that the autonomous group scored generally better on both tests, although the learners in the traditional groups were better in writing and spelling the words. Moreover, the students in the autonomous group worked on a greater number of words in comparison with the other two groups, and, also the vocabulary represented a different distribution of semantic fields (see Benson, 2001).

An interesting contribution to our understanding of the relationship between autonomy and language achievement was made by Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2008). In her research project, the researcher attempted to find out whether the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP) was an effective tool for the development of grammatical accuracy by investigating the correlation between the level of autonomy and the results of grammar tests obtained by her students. Twenty-nine third-year university students participated in the research project, a piloting stage of the *European Language Portfolio for students and language learners in institutions of higher education (ELP 16+)*. The data were collected by a questionnaire that consisted of two parts. The first part contained a questionnaire developed by Pawlak (2004) devoted to determining autonomous behaviors of the respondents and included statements such as 'I know what I need to work on as far as my English is concerned' or 'I mostly study English when a test is approaching'). When completing the second part of the survey, the respondents were requested to define their weak and strong points in learning English or describe their out-of-school contacts with the English language. What is more, the part of the *ELP 16+* related to the *Language Biography* was used so as to determine the strategies that aid students in learning grammar. The results of the study indicated that all the participants declared various autonomous behaviors being the direct outcome of working with the *Portfolio* and the reflection upon the idea of the project itself. In addition, the study revealed that the participants of the research project employed only a few techniques and strategies connected with studying English grammar. On a more optimistic note, however, the study showed that there was a connection between high levels of autonomy and good results achieved by the students on grammar tests.

Quite interesting are also the results of a study conducted by Dafei (2007) who investigated the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency. The subjects were 129 nineteen-year-old Chinese college students who had studied English for seven years. The data were collected by means of a standardized test, a questionnaire and an interview. The standardized test (Practical English Tests for Colleges Level B) was used to identify the participants' English language proficiency; the questionnaire and the interview were employed to investigate the participants' level of autonomy. The results of the study showed that the students' English proficiency was significantly related to their autonomy. Based on such outcomes, the researcher concluded that the more autonomous a learner became, the more likely she or he was to achieve high language proficiency. In addition, Dafei implied that teachers should, for example, develop learner autonomy by making students more responsible for learning strategies, promoting positive attitudes and encouraging them to reflect upon their learning. Moreover, the researcher recommended that in order to facilitate the process of learning a foreign language students should be informed of the importance of learner autonomy. Thus, for instance, students need to be allowed to make decisions about their learning schedule and design lessons and materials so as to present them in the classroom. Although the implications were mostly related to the Chinese educational context, it could be argued that the conclusions also seem to be relevant to other educational settings since students' responsibility for their own learning and the ability to control this learning are prerequisite for learner autonomy.

Yet another study conducted by Pawlak and Kruk (in press) presents the findings of a quasi-experimental study which was conducted with a view to determining the effect of a pedagogic intervention in the form of the application of Internet-based resources on the development of English pronunciation among 45 Polish senior high school learners. The targeted structure was the final -ed sound of the simple past tense of regular English verbs. Three groups, two experimental and one control group, participated in the research project, which spanned the period of two weeks. In addition, the learners in the experimental group 1 were provided with access to Internet resources and were thus allowed to exercise more freedom in learning English pronunciation. As for the students in the experimental group 2, they were taught in a traditional way. With regard to the students in the control group, they did not receive any pronunciation instruction. The data were collected by means of perception and production tests administered before (pretest) and after (immediate and delayed posttests) the treatment, and subjected to quantitative analysis. The results of the study indicated that the students who received innovative instruction outperformed their counterparts on both perception and production tests not only immediately after the intervention but also in the long run. At the same time, however, the researchers emphasized the fact that substantial and statistically significant improvement was also observed in the group that was taught in a conventional way, although the gains were smaller and the differences between the experimental group 2 and the control one failed to reach significance in some cases. Such findings provided a rationale for using computer technology as a tool for enhancing pronunciation instruction with the caveat that old ways of teaching pronunciation should not be abandoned altogether and that the best solution could be a combination of the traditional and innovative approaches.

As can be seen from this brief account of the research projects, there seems to be a relationship between the development of learner autonomy and language attainment. However, due to the design of the studies, caution has to be exercised about making definite pronouncements. This is because the first of the studies, although experimental in design, did not include comparable groups of learners, and the second research project employed a questionnaire to measure the growth of autonomy, a research instrument that might provide unreliable and superficial information

(McKay, 2006). It could be argued that in order to provide more reliable results research projects should be designed in such a way as to include at least two comparable groups in terms of the level of autonomy and language proficiency as well as to employ more data collection instruments.

III. Methodology

A. Research Questions

The aim of the study was to determine the effect of the use of Internet-based resources and independent work on the development of English subsystems, such us vocabulary and grammar. In more specific terms, the study sought to address the following research questions:

1. Did the use of Internet-based resources and independent work result in better vocabulary learning and studying of the passive voice?
2. Was the application of Internet-based resources and independent work more effective than the use of more traditional instructional techniques?
3. Were the effects of the pedagogic intervention durable?
4. What were the subjects' perceptions of the Internet lessons as a learning opportunity?

B. Participants

The subjects were 46 grade two Polish senior high school students attending two parallel classes of senior high school. The experimental group consisted of 28 learners and the control group comprised 18 students. Furthermore, the curricular policy of the school provided both the experimental and control students with two 45-minute English lessons per week and divided the experimental learners into two groups each of which consisted of 14 students for their English lessons in accordance with the alphabetical order.

The analysis of the data obtained by the background questionnaire revealed that the two classes were comparable in terms of the learners' overall proficiency level, as indicated by the fact that the grade point average which amounted to 2.47 in the experimental group and 2.38 in the control group. In general, the students in both groups could be best described as weak but it has to be kept in mind that they also comprised a few more successful students. In addition, the learners in both groups were comparable in terms of the duration of English instruction they had received in the past, the amount and type of out-of-school exposure, their self-assessment of the level of advancement in English and their attitudes to language learning. On average, the learners in the experimental group had been learning English for 5.48 years while the subjects in the control group for 5.27 years. What is more, the analysis of the data revealed that the experimental subjects most frequently pointed to vocabulary (82.14%) as the most favorite thing to learn whereas grammar was considered to be the most difficult for them to study (75%). As for the control students, they indicated learning vocabulary as the easiest to learn (66.7%) while grammar (72.2%) was the most difficult for them to study.

The majority of the experimental and control students reported limited contact with the English language outside school, since some referred to watching films as the most frequent form of out-of-school exposure to the target language. As regards access to the Internet and its use in connection with learning English, 26 (92.8%) students in the experimental group had Internet connection at home compared with only 12 (66.7%) students in the control group.

C. Research Design

The research project took the form of a *quasi-experimental study* involving two intact senior high school classes. The decision as to which class would be the experimental group and which class would be the control group was based on two technical requirements of the experiment. Since the experiment was conducted in the computer classroom equipped with 14 multimedia computers with access to the Internet, only a group of 14 students could work there at a time. This condition was met by the class of 28 students which was divided into two groups of 14 learners. Another requirement was related to the learners' logs, which had to be completed after each lesson electronically and sent to the teacher by e-mail. As indicated in section B above, in the class of 28 students almost all learners had access to the Internet at home in comparison with the other class, in which only about 65% of students could use the Internet in their houses.

It should also be noted that the adoption of a quasi-experimental design with its experimental and control groups designated in the manner described above was also feasible for a number of reasons. Firstly, the classes were comparable in many respects as expounded in detail in the section B above. Secondly, the researcher had been the regular English teacher in both classes since grade 1, he knew the learners well, and was familiar with the type of English instruction they had received. Thirdly, being the classes' English teacher, the researcher was in a position to make sure that the data-collection procedures in the two groups were identical. Furthermore, he was able to make sure that the innovative manner of instruction would cease in the experimental group between the posttests and that the instruction would remain the same in the control group in the six weeks separating the two measures.

As regards the research schedule, it spanned the period of 12 weeks. The pretest and the background questionnaire were administered in the first week and were followed by eleven 45-minute lessons in the experimental and control group. At the end of the treatment, the subjects in the experimental group were requested to take part in a group interview as well as in individual interviews. After the treatment, the immediate posttest was administered and the students were also asked to complete the evaluation sheet. After that, traditional instruction was resumed in the

treatment group. It has to be noted that careful attention was given not to teach the items that were covered during the treatment lessons between the posttests, which would have unduly affected the findings. Finally, the subjects completed the delayed posttest.

It has to be pointed out that neither of these two groups was informed that they were involved in an experiment so as to avoid the fallacies inherent in the *Hawthorne effect* (Brown, 2006). In addition, there were some ethical considerations related to providing the best instruction to the students as well as protecting their identity. In order to overcome those ethical problems, the students in the control group gained access to the Internet and similar instruction to the one used in the experimental group was implemented after the experiment was over. As for protecting the participants' identity, no real names were used in the paper when reporting the results, some research instruments such as questionnaires were completed by the subjects anonymously, and before the interviews all the participants were asked for permission to be recorded.

D. Instructional Treatment

At the start of the treatment, the students in the experimental group were informed that the next several lessons would be based on Internet resources. Moreover, they were notified of the teacher's website (http://anglik.neostrada.pl) which included all the necessary information, tools and activities in the form of hyperlinks. In addition, the learners were told that after each lesson they would be required to write a student's log in the form of an electronic text document at home. The instructional materials utilized by the students in the control group were taken from unit 12 of the coursebook and activity book *New Opportunities Pre-Intermediate* by Michael Harris et al. and were accompanied by materials taken from other sources.

The instructional treatment for both groups spanned 6 weeks and was divided into 11 lessons. The students in the experimental group were allowed to direct their own learning as they, for instance, could choose from a variety of tasks and decide how much time to spend on each. In a word, they were encouraged to try to "take control of their own learning" (Holec, 1981). Conversely, the treatment employed in the control group obliged the learners to do exactly what the teacher had planned and demanded from them and they had to follow his instructions and assessment.

The first four lessons in both groups were devoted to studying vocabulary. During the first lesson, the students in the experimental group could choose from a variety of websites with relevant weather vocabulary in order to learn new words or practice the ones they already knew. The activities presented on the websites varied and included such exercises as word search, multiple choice questions, scrambled letters, spelling or crosswords. The aim of the second lesson was to further practice the words related to the weather, however this time the students were asked to create their own activities by means of websites such as *Puzzlemaker* (http://puzzlemaker.discoveryeducation.com) or *QuizMaker JavaScript Wizard* (http://www.edict.biz/quizMaker/quiz.htm). Throughout the third class the experimental students were requested to use online dictionaries in order to find and learn new words related to winter sports and provide their definitions in English. At the beginning of the fourth lesson, the students were presented with a matching exercise and asked to solve it. The main purpose of the activity was to show the students an example of an exercise they were going to create on their own by using the *QuizMaker JavaScript Wizard*. The exercises produced by the subjects were then published on their teacher's website.

When it comes to the control group, the first and the second lessons were related to weather vocabulary and the learners were presented with new vocabulary and its Polish translation and requested to write everything down in their notebooks. In each lesson they were also asked to make sentences with the new words, write them down and then present the sentences to the whole class, which also allowed the teacher to correct the mistakes the students made. As in the case of the first two lessons related to weather vocabulary, the third and the fourth classes began with the presentation of various kinds of winter sports and their Polish translation. The learners were also requested to record the new language in their notebooks. Next, the students were presented with an exercise in which they read some encyclopedia extracts and were asked to match them with the appropriate type of winter sports. Both lessons finished with the completion of a writing activity which required them to write short definitions of the different kinds of winter sports presented during the lessons. After that, some of the students were asked to read their definitions out loud with the intention that the remaining students could provide the correct names of the sports.

The next seven lessons in both groups were devoted to grammar and dealt with the practice of the passive voice. The first two classes concerned the present simple passive, the second pair of classes was related to the past simple passive, and the last pair of lessons dealt with the present perfect passive. In addition, the eleventh class was devoted to the practice of all the passives. Hence at the beginning of the fifth, seventh and ninth lessons, the learners in the experimental group were asked to search the Internet and use web pages of their own choice in order to find information related to the topic of the lessons and fill in the tables prepared in advanced by the teacher. Thus, they were requested to provide such information as the use of the passive, sentence formation and examples of positive and negative sentences as well as questions. The Internet websites *English Grammar Online* (http://www.ego4u.com), *Szlifuj swój angielski* (http://www.ang.pl) and *Learning English Online* (http://www.englisch-hilfen.de/en) made up the material for the sixth, eighth and tenth lessons which were entirely devoted to grammar practice. The activities presented on the web pages were of the following types: writing sentences from the given words, rewriting sentences in the passive voice, introducing the correct passive forms of the verbs or completing the sentences in active or passive voice. In addition, the last of the grammar lessons was devoted to the creation of the students' own activities by means of the above-mentioned

web pages such as *QuizMaker JavaScript Wizard* with the purpose of providing the learners with the opportunity for further grammar practice in a more innovative manner as well as creating materials to be utilized by the subjects in the next classes or for self-study at home. The students' exercises were then published on the teacher's web page.

When it comes to the control group, the fifth, seventh and ninth classes commenced with the teacher's presentation of the use, sentence formation and relevant examples related to the present simple passive, the past simple passive and the present perfect passive and during each lesson the students were told to write everything down in their notebooks. The remaining parts of these lessons and the sixth, eighth as well as tenth classes were devoted to doing exercises which were similar to those used in the experimental group. The eleventh lesson was in its entirety devoted to the revision of the passives and a similar set of exercises was planned in advance by the teacher. As in the case of the lessons related to vocabulary, the grammar activities were checked by the teacher who always asked at random several students to read their answers or requested them to write the responses down on the board.

E. Data Collection Tools, Procedures, Scoring and Analysis

The research instruments which provided the data to be analyzed were identical in the experimental and control group and included *the background questionnaire, the lexico-grammatical test* as well as *the evaluation sheet*. In addition, *the learners' logs*, *the observation* and *the group* and *individual interviews* were used in the experimental group only in order to provide more data as the group was of particular interest to the researcher.

The data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively and, in some cases, a combination of both approaches was used. Thus, the numerical data which originated from the test and some parts of the background questionnaire as well as the evaluation sheets containing close-ended questions were subjected to quantitative analyses which were performed by the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS version 17). As for the data which emerged from the learners' logs and the interviews, they were subjected to qualitative analyses which were executed by means of the data analytical software *NVivo version 8*. In addition, the process of analysis of the qualitative data involved four stages described by Dörnyei (2007), which included: (1) the pre-coding stage, (2) the initial coding stage, (3) the second-level coding stage and (4) the final coding stage.

The background questionnaire consisted of 4 open-ended questions and 14 close-ended items. The purpose of this questionnaire was to obtain general information regarding the participants which encompassed the duration of English education and its type, the level of English advancement, the attitudes to English language learning, the amount of out-of-school exposure as well as their access to the Internet and its use with regard to English study. Moreover, the questionnaire was presented in Polish and filled out anonymously by the participants of the research project before the experiment.

The lexico-grammatical test comprised two tasks. The first task concerned vocabulary and required the students to write twenty words of their own choice, ten of which had to be related to weather and ten to winter sports. The second task was a typical grammar exercise and required the learners to provide the correct form of the given verbs in the correct passive form. The task contained 15 sentences, five in the present simple passive, five in the past simple passive and another five in the present perfect passive. Moreover, the grammatical task included from 6 to 7 irregular verbs. On each occasion the test was administered, it was possible to score a total of 35 points for it. More precisely, it was possible to score a maximum of 20 points (i.e. one point for each correct answer) for the first part and for the second one the maximum possible score equaled 15 points (i.e. one point for each correct answer, i.e. for the correct provision of both form of the verb *to be* and the *past participle*). It should be noted that three different versions of the lexico-grammatical test were created and administered on the pretest and the posttests since the deployment of the same instrument on the tests "would have inevitably increased the likelihood of the practice effect, a confounding variable that could have influenced the results and made their interpretation difficult" (Pawlak, 2006, p. 379). It should be emphasized that the three versions of the lexico-grammatical test were different in their content, although they were identical in format and contained comparable tasks and levels of difficulty.

The results of the test were each time subjected to quantitative analysis. It involved computing the mean score, the percentages of the mean score and the standard deviation. Furthermore, the statistical significance of the differences in the means of the experimental and the control group on the consecutive tests was evaluated by means of paired-samples *t*-tests and independent-samples *t*-tests. The former was used when the changes in the performance of one group on the tests were assessed whereas the latter was employed whenever the experimental and control groups were compared.

In order to make sure that the tests were scored consistently, a randomly chosen sample of the data originating from the tests was marked by a qualified English teacher using the scoring criteria described in this section. The results were then compared to those obtained by the researcher with the purpose of determining interrater reliabilities which proved to be quite high since the lowest value of Pearson Correlation Coefficient amounted to 0.992. In addition, the researcher reanalyzed a sample of randomly selected data derived from the tests so as to control for consistent scoring of the test over time. The intrarater reliabilities computed in this manner were also high since the lowest value of Pearson Correlation Coefficient equaled 0.995.

The purpose of the evaluation sheet was to obtain the subjects' opinions on the presented materials and lessons and so it was filled out anonymously by the participants of the study after the treatment. The evaluation sheet was similar for both groups and the only difference was related to the question which dealt with the instructional materials used

during the pedagogical intervention which requested the experimental and control subjects to express their opinions on vocabulary and grammar resources.

When it comes to the learners' logs, they were designed in such a way that they contained nine prompts in the form of statements or questions (e.g. 'What have you learned during the lesson?' or 'What would you do better next time?'). The subjects were also encouraged to self-assess their own learning and assign their own homework. The main purpose of the learners' log was to obtain information on the subjects' impressions and perceptions about language learning as "diaries can yield insights into the learning process that may be inaccessible from the researcher's perspective alone" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 48).

Yet another way of collecting data were semi-structured group and individual interviews. Since the group interview format is "based on the collective experience of group brainstorming, that is, participants thinking together, inspiring and challenging each other, and reacting to emerging issues and points." (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 144), it was conducted first. It was the belief of the researcher that the group interview would yield data to be further explored in the individual interview. Moreover, the semi-structured type of both interviews was also chosen deliberately since its open-ended format encourages the interviewees "to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). Each time the interviews were conducted, the researcher stimulated the students to delineate their learning experiences and perceptions of the lessons and activities. This was a form of introspection where the subjects were encouraged to examine their behaviors and thought processes as well as to provide a first person narrative of their experiences.

As mentioned above, the group interview preceded the individual interview and took place in the language classroom. The group interview was conducted during regular English classes and comprised two groups of learners, each of which included 12 and 13 interviewees, respectively, and each of which lasted approximately 20 minutes. As regards the individual interview, it was conducted after school lessons in a separate room of the school library and 10 randomly selected learners were chosen to participate in it. Each individual interview lasted approximately 10 minutes. In addition, the interviewees were informed that each interview concerned all the treatment lessons and permission to be recorded was obtained from the subjects.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. Lexico-grammatical Test

As mentioned above, the lexico-grammatical test comprised two tasks, each of which was intended to measure two different language areas before and after the treatment. The results of the test will be discussed for both groups and for each group separately. Throughout the discussion the following abbreviations will be used so as to indicate the three measures: PreT for the pretest, IPostT for the immediate posttest and DPostT for the delayed posttest.

As can be seen from Figure I, which graphically presents the mean changes for the experimental and control students on the successive vocabulary tasks, the experimental subjects scored slightly higher at the beginning of the experiment in comparison with the control learners, although the difference was small (0.35 points or 1.75%) and did not reach statistical significance ($t = 0.44$, $p = 0.66$). In addition, the experimental subjects outperformed the control ones by 4.49 points or 22.45% right after the experiment was over, a difference that reached statistical significance ($t = 3.39$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, the results of DPostT administered six weeks after IPostT revealed that the experimental learners again scored higher than their control counterparts and the difference in the mean score amounted to 4.83 points (24.15%), being highly statistically significant ($t = 3.53$, $p < 0.001$).

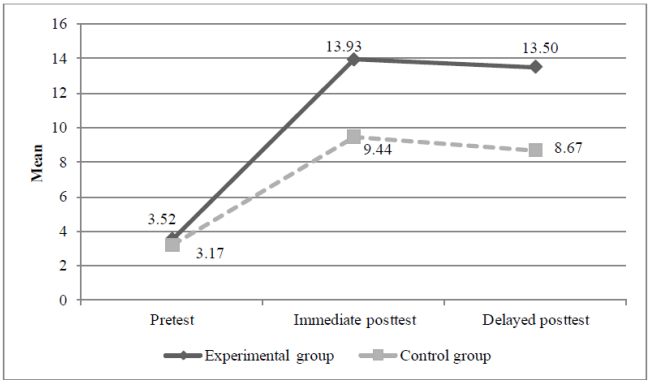

Figure I: The mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the vocabulary task

As can be seen from Figure I and Table I, a highly statistically significant gain of 10.41 or 52.05% from the pretest to immediate posttest could be observed in the experimental group. In spite of the slight decrease on the delayed posttest, the IPostT advantage remained high and the IPostT-DPostT difference in the mean score amounted to only 0.43 or 2.15%. Also, the pretest-delayed posttest difference in the mean score in the experimental group equaled 9.98 (49.9%) and reached statistical significance. When it comes to the control group, a similar pattern could be observed, the only exception being that the differences in the mean scores from PreT to IPostT and PreT to DPostT were less noticeable.

More precisely, the control students improved by 6.27 points (31.35%) from PreT to IPostT and 5.5 points (27.5%) from PreT to DPostT and, as was the case with the experimental group, the PreT-IPostT and PreT-DPostT differences proved to be statistically significant (see Table I).

TABLE I:
THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS, MEAN SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND LEVELS OF STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE ON THE VOCABULARY TASK FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

	Number of students	Mean	%	SD	Significance (two-tailed paired *t*-test)
Experimental group					
Pretest	25	3.52	17.6	2.51	
Immediate posttest	27	13.93	69.65	3.30	PreT → IPostT: $t = 13.12$, $p < .001$
Delayed posttest	28	13.50	67.5	4.42	IPostT → DPostT: $t = 0.10$, $p = .915$ PreT → DPostT: $t = 12.40$, $p < .001$
Control group					
Pretest	18	3.17	15.85	2.66	
Immediate posttest	18	9.44	47.2	5.56	PreT → IPostT: $t = 4.99$, $p < .001$
Delayed posttest	18	8.67	43.35	4.69	IPostT → DPostT: $t = 0.80$, $p = .433$ PreT → DPostT: $t = 5.39$, $p < .001$

Although the two groups apparently benefitted from the instruction they had received, the differences in the mean score of the test after the treatment constitute evidence that the online lessons might have contributed to better vocabulary learning not only immediately after the intervention but also in the long term. What is more, the results of the evaluation sheet demonstrated that the lessons and tasks devoted to learning vocabulary were regarded by the learners in the experimental group as the most interesting, which, in turn, could have aided acquisition of new words and motivated the students to learn them. It should be noted, however, that the extent of variation in the performance of the experimental learners on the vocabulary task as is visible in the high values of standard deviation kept increasing from PreT to DPostT. This shows that the whole group varied considerably on the test. By contrast, the SD levels in the control group increased from PreT to IPostT and decreased from IPostT to DPostT. What should also be stressed, however, is the fact that they were each time higher than those in the experimental group (see Table I).

Figure II graphically shows the mean changes for the experimental and control students on the grammar task. Similarly to the findings related to vocabulary, the experimental learners scored slightly higher on the pretest than the control students, although the difference in the mean score was small and amounted to 0.18 or 1.2%, which was not enough to reach statistical significance ($t = 0.75$, $p = 0.45$). The results of IPostT revealed that that the difference between the groups increased by 3.48 (23.2%) and reached statistical significance ($t = 2.80$, $p < 0.01$). However, the gap between the groups narrowed over time to 2.02 points (13.46%) on DPostT and this time the difference was not statistically significant ($t = 1.59$, $p = 0.11$).

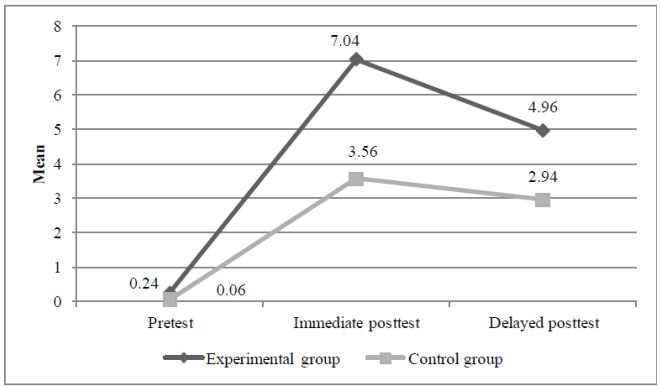

Figure II: The mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the grammar task

As can be seen from Figure II and Table II, the students in the experimental group improved considerably by 6.83 or 45.53% on the immediate posttest and the difference was highly statistically significant ($t = 8.28$, $p < 0.001$). Despite the fact that the PreT-IPostT advantage dropped by 2.08 or 13.86%, the ultimate increase of as much as 4.72 (31.46%) on the PreT-DPostT was observed and was still large enough to reach statistical significance ($t = 5.83$, $p < 0.001$). When it comes to the control subjects, they also improved from the pretest to the immediate posttest, although the gain was smaller than in the case of the experimental learners and amounted to 3.5 (23.33%), reaching statistical significance ($t = 4.08$, $p < 0.001$). In addition, the control learners scored fewer points on DPostT in comparison to IPostT. More precisely, the mean difference between the two tests was 0.62 (4.13%) and did not reach statistical significance ($t = 1.08$, $p = 0.29$). Moreover, the improvement from pretest to delayed posttest amounted to 2.43 or 16.2% and was considerable enough to be statistically significant ($t = 3.87$, $p < 0.001$).

TABLE II:
THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS, MEAN SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND LEVELS OF STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE ON THE GRAMMAR TASK FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

	Number of students	Mean	%	SD	Significance (two-tailed paired *t*-test)
Experimental group					
Pretest	25	.24	1.6	1.01	
Immediate posttest	27	7.04	46.93	4.31	PreT → IPostT: $t = 8.28$, $p < .001$
Delayed posttest	28	4.96	33.06	4.71	IPostT → DPostT: $t = 3.43$, $p = .002$ PreT → DPostT: $t = 5.83$, $p < .001$
Control group					
Pretest	18	.06	.4	.23	
Immediate posttest	18	3.56	23.73	3.69	PreT → IPostT: $t = 4.08$, $p < .001$
Delayed posttest	18	2.94	19.6	3.22	IPostT → DPostT: $t = 1.08$, $p = .29$ PreT → DPostT: $t = 3.87$, $p < .001$

As can be seen from the results of the grammar task, the experimental learners outperformed the subjects in the control group, which could be taken as evidence that the treatment did lead the experimental students to gain control over their learning of the passive voice. On the other hand, however, the results of the delayed posttest indicate that the pedagogic intervention did not have a permanent effect on the experimental learners' ability to generate results similar to the ones achieved on the immediate posttest. While there might be many reasons for such a state of affairs, two plausible explanations could lie in the fact that the experimental subjects could have simply lost interest in studying the passive and ultimately devoting it less time or no time at all when the traditional instruction was resumed. It also has to be added that similarly to the vocabulary task, the SD levels kept increasing from one measure to another in the experimental group, although, this time, they were much higher. Thus, also in this case the innovative treatment did little to alleviate individual disparities. With regard to the control group, the values of standard deviation increased from PreT to IPostT and decreased from IPostT to DPostT, however they were each time smaller than those in the experimental group (see Table II). In addition, the results show that the grammar task was quite demanding for the students since the mean score was never greater than 7.04 (46.9%). Nevertheless, the results of the test are comforting in view of the fact that the experimental students regarded learning grammar as the most difficult (see section II B above). Moreover, the analysis of the evaluation sheet showed, that the experimental subjects did not consider the online grammar tasks as very good in comparison with the control learners who regarded coursebook grammar activities to be more than satisfactory, and yet the experimental learners were able to perform better that their control counterparts.

B. The Results of the Learners' Logs and the Group and Individual Interviews

This section presents the results of the data which originated from the learners' logs, the observation and the interviews. The following abbreviations will be used to represent the different data collection tools: LL for the learners' logs, GI for the group interview and II for the individual interview.

The analysis of the data showed that the learners perceived the implementation of the Internet in their English classes to be beneficial since they frequently pointed to the richness of materials available on the Internet, a choice of interesting online activities or the unconventional way of practicing new knowledge that was not available to them in other classes. What is more, they often pointed to the fact that they could work in a relaxed, stress-free atmosphere. This is visible in the following comments:

- *We can do exercises that match our level (...) we have a choice (GI)*
- *Nowadays everything is based on computers and the Internet (...) it encourages us to study somehow (...) the coursebook is different not everyone wants to use it (II)*
- *I liked working at the computer today, because in this way you can combine business with pleasure and I don't work under pressure and I can learn much more (LL)*

In addition, the students liked the idea of looking for information on their own and use websites that presented it in the way that was understandable for them. Moreover, they liked the idea of learning from their own mistakes and self-check their answers by choosing appropriate options available on the web pages, which in turn might have resulted in better understanding and ultimately contributed to their language improvement. The analysis of the data also demonstrated that the subjects benefited from the opportunity to use their skills and imagination in order to generate their own activities and publish them on their teacher's website. Such tendencies can be seen from the following extracts:

- *I liked working on my own, because you can learn from your own mistakes (LL)*
- *I had the opportunity to repeat activities I had problems with as many times as I wanted to and thanks to that I learned better (...) sometimes I didn't know the correct form of some irregular verbs (...) I checked my answers and wrote it down in my notebook (...) (II)*
- *Working at the computer allowed me to use my knowledge to create my own activities on the Internet (LL)*

Although the subjects enjoyed the opportunity to work without constant supervision of the teacher, some of the exercises constituted a challenge for at least several learners. Thus, some students opted for more traditional way of

studying English and wanted the teacher to engage in the teaching process, especially when it comes to grammar. Other problems were related to some technical glitches the students encountered while using the Internet. This is evident in the following statements taken from the group interview and the log:

- *(…) I'd like the teacher to explain some grammar points just to be on the safe side (GI)*
- *Next time I can look for information on the Internet faster and better but I think it was because of some sort of technical problems connected with the access to the Internet which is sometimes very slow (LL)*

Given the fact that the sample consisted of rather weak learners, it is particularly comforting that almost all of them felt that they were making progress, specifically with regard to the passive voice. It should be pointed out that during the process of analyzing the data that originated from the learners' logs it was determined that most of the subjects noticed the improvement themselves. The same was observed during the group interview where the majority of learners claimed that they had progressed in English vocabulary and grammar. This is evidenced by the following comments gleaned from the learner's log:

- *Gradually I finally understood it went pretty well (LL)*
- *It doesn't matter that I did only three activities. I did them carefully and what's the most important I finally understood the passive (LL)*
- *Still not very well but I know now I understand more and more (LL)*

The analysis of the data revealed that some of the learners were aware of their weak points in learning English. While some students pointed to the fact that they had to study more in order to reduce a backlog, others referred to specific language problems such as the use of the past participle in the passive voice, sentence formation or spelling. The following excerpts exemplify some of the findings:

- *I could've done more exercises if I'd known exactly the past participle, because it took me most of the time to figured it out (LL).*
- *The most difficult thing for me was the spelling of some words, because I made mistakes in typing some of them (LL)*

Despite the fact that the vocabulary lessons required the students to use online reference tools, the researcher observed voluntary use of online dictionaries or online translators during lessons related to grammar. The subjects resorted to such tools in order to understand instructions connected with exercises and their content as well as they made use of websites providing past participle of irregular verbs. To illustrate:

- *I used the online translator and online dictionaries during grammar activities. (LL)*

From the outset of the treatment, the experimental students began to appreciate the fact of studying English in the computer classroom, working at their own pace during lessons or deciding on how much time to devote in doing exercises. It is quite an important finding, since the class consisted of rather weak students who were unmotivated and unwilling to take part in English lessons. As mentioned above, the subjects also liked the idea of learning from their own mistakes, which was quite unexpected, since, as observed before the experiment, the learners became quickly discouraged when confronted with more demanding exercises and always wanted their teacher to provide solutions and explanations. Thus, it could be argued that such findings are of vital importance for introducing modern technology during foreign language lessons since they show that despite the fact that the students might experience problems at some point, they are able to deal with them by being more committed and self-reliant. It can further be claimed that the intervention itself and the nature of such 'virtual lessons' to some extent modified the students' perceptions of the role of the teacher and learner and enabled them to learn independently of the teacher. This stands in contrast to the way the students typically work in other lessons in which they often wait to be told exactly what to do.

V. Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

The paper reported the findings of the research project which sought to determine the effect of the application of Internet resources on the development of English subsystems in an autonomous learning environment. Although it appears that both groups benefited from the instruction they received, the differences in the mean score of the vocabulary task, both immediately and in the long run, constitute evidence that independent work might have contributed to superior vocabulary learning. Similarly, the results of the grammar task demonstrated that the treatment might have been a considerable factor in letting the experimental students gain control over their learning of the passive voice. On the other hand, the results of the delayed posttest indicate that the gains in performance turned out to be less durable, also in comparison with the control students. It should be pointed out, however, that the innovative instruction aided the experimental students in learning grammar despite the fact that they considered this challenge as the most difficult. Finally, the intervention proved to be beneficial for the experimental group as a whole, although it did not contribute to diminishing individual variation, which attests to the difficulties involved in teaching mixed-ability classes. Such findings could be interpreted as indicating that it might be premature to abandon the old ways of teaching these language subsystems altogether and the best solution could be a combination of the traditional and innovative approaches. In other words, computer technology and Internet-based resources could be used to heighten the efficacy of traditional techniques related to teaching vocabulary and grammar rather than replace them.

It is the belief of the author that some of the main strengths of this investigation were connected with methodological triangulation and the use of quantitative and qualitative data. The accumulation of the research tools was motivated by

the need of providing a thorough description of language development among the subjects and report their opinions and perceptions of the lessons and the activities. Other strengths concern the involvement of two intact classes making up two groups of learners and the fact that the intervention took place during naturally occurring English lessons. Nonetheless, the study also suffered from some limitations that should be addressed in future empirical investigations of the role of Internet resources in teaching language subsystems in an autonomous setting. One weakness is related to the small sample of participants, which reduces the generalizability of the results. Another weakness might be related to the completion of the lexico-grammatical tests, especially those administrated immediately after the treatment and after six weeks, which required the students to complete a similar set of activities in a relatively short time separating the measures, thus, making the learners bored and increasing the likelihood of the occurrence of the practice effect.

It should also be pointed out that the experimental subjects participating in this study responded positively to the treatment they received and most of them were willing to learn independently from the teacher. However, there is no guarantee that other learners would have responded in comparable ways to similar instruction. Moreover, the lessons in the experimental group were conducted in the computer classroom that was always available for that purpose, which is rather unusual in many schools, at least for now, in view of the fact that computer laboratories are mostly used for teaching other school subjects, such as computer technology. Last but not least, the research project required some sort of modification of the traditional roles of the teacher and certain computer expertise. It could be argued that the success of the implementation of modern technology and creation of autonomous learning environment in schools also lies in teacher training, their computer literacy as well as the ability and willingness of teachers to incorporate in their own teaching practices and language classrooms at least some autonomy and show students how to be more independent in their learning endeavors.

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EFL Teaching and Reform in China's Tertiary Education

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***Abstract*—When talking about English, learners as well as teachers and linguists, will always couple it with EFL/ESL. Hereinafter, a tentative discussion will be given to the unsatisfactory status quo of EFL at China's universities and colleges, especially Shandong University where the author has been worked. In Addition, this paper will also gives a further detailed discussion on the reform of EFL teaching carried out by Shandong University, for the sake of better achieving expected teaching objectives and meeting the needs of the English learners of the author's home country.**

***Index Terms*—EFL, teaching & reform, China's tertiary education**

I. Introduction

In both the West and China, recorded foreign language activities can be traced back to several thousand years ago. Undoubtedly, the actual starting point of human beings' foreign language practice occurred long before people began to record them by written words. As long as people of a languages or a nation who are unlearned to other languages and need to communicate with people of other nations, other than getting assistance from translators or interpreters, language acquisition is the only means left for them to depend on. Before English obtained the mother tongue's status formally during Henry V's time (1387-1422), teaching of Latin and French had long been existed in Britain for at least one thousand years; similarly, in the long history of China's civilization, foreign language teaching in a large scale commenced about two thousand years ago when Buddhist works in Sanskrit were introduced into China's Han Dynasty (Ma, 2006).

China, in the past several decades, especially after the open-door policy was formally carried out about 30 years ago, through increasingly educational budget as well as higher facility investment, has established a full set of public English teaching system from elementary education to tertiary education. At the same time, various teaching theories and methodologies, including those on English as second/foreign language, are introduced to Chinese language teaching specialists, governmental policy makers and students of different levels.

Nevertheless, China's EFL Education at tertiary level is still being guided by some out-of-date guidelines, sometimes being entitled 'Three Old Centers', namely, teacher-centeredness, grammar-centeredness and test-centeredness/test-orientedness, which have been proved to be inefficient to achieve an ideal EFL result in China's College English Education (Hao, 2003).

So in this study, the author aims to make a tentative discussion on the problems existing in China's EFL teaching at university and college level, relevant teaching reforms that have been carried out in recent years and the author's own opinions on these reforms, under the guidance of new theories on EFL teaching and with the assistance of the author's experience of teaching lectures such as 'College English' and 'Translation Theory and Practice' at Shandong University, China.

II. Literature Review

The teacher-centered mode of EFL teaching that has been dominated China's schools at all levels, certainly including the tertiary level, for decades, mainly lays its theoretical basis on behaviorist linguistic theories. Behaviourism, as John Woollard says in his book *Psychology for the Classroom: Behaviourism*, is "one of the earliest established theories that had a direct and profound impact upon education, has a special place in the history of psychology. Its heyday was in the first half and middle of the twentieth century but became overshadowed by the influence of the cognitivist and social constructivist explanations of learning that continue to dominate the methods of experimentation and the principles of pedagogy to this day" (Woollard, 2010, p. 21). According to behaviourism, which was the dominant theory during the first half of the 20th century, human beings are conditioned to learn many forms of behaviour, including language, through the process of training, imitation and reinforcement. In such a process, one behaviour is a response that has been triggered off by a stimulus, and then through repeating this stimulus-and-response process, at last this behaviour is firmly formed. Accordingly, teacher-centered EFL teaching approach regards language learning as a process of habit formation, in which new knowledge, essentially a new behaviour, is reinforced and ultimately acquired through appropriate and continuous repetition, as well as controlled instruction. In behaviourists' eyes, the essence of the

mastery of a second language is to establish fixed stimulus-response chain for a given language feature through imitation and reinforcement. So quietly naturally, the traditional teacher-centered EFL teaching approach merely regards students as passive and docile participants in the whole process of learning.

The traditional teaching approach mentioned above also owes much to structuralist linguistics, especially the American Bloomfieldian School. According to this school's points of view, any human language is constructed into a hierarchical system in which all grammatical elements of different levels such as phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, are connected linearly but essentially combined hierarchically, by fixed grammatical rules. Influenced by American Structuralism, traditional EFL teaching approaches, especially the Grammar Translation Approach, also lay much emphasis on grammar drill in EFL class. In *Teaching Across Cultures: Considerations for Western EFL teachers in China,* the authors Degen Tang & Absalom Doug quotes McKnight's comment on Chinese methods of EFL teaching:

"While the currently fashionable Western 'communicative approaches' to English language teaching are known and used in some Chinese institutions, the dominant teaching strategy remains the "grammar translation approach"... Our Western methodology textbooks reject this as an outdated and discredited approach to language teaching and learning. It is perhaps surprising, therefore, that so many Chinese students of English have achieved such a good command of the language using this approach" (McKnight, 1994, pp. 46-7).

Actually, though many Chinese college students can get high score or even full mark in any kinds of English exams, most of them are unable to make simple conversations with other Chinese or foreigners in English, or describe basic daily affairs, since traditional EFL teaching approaches only produce dumb English learners. As a result, teacher-centered EFL teaching approaches cannot meet the needs of both students and society and the requirements of both Ministry of Education and universities.

According to an investigation made by Qimin Wang, out of the 293 informants he has investigated, "88% are unsatisfied with the College English teaching and 50% even lose interest in English after two-year study of College English. After two years' study, 22% informants still have difficulty in understanding teacher's instruction in English. 30% can not speak English, 58% are not able to speak with foreigners about daily affairs, 22% have difficulty in writing and only 25% can read some articles of medium difficulty level" (Wang, 2005, pp. 10-26).

In the following part of this thesis, the author intends to give a more detailed discussion on creative reforms on EFL education made by some universities in China, especially the reform of College English syllabus and courses to undergraduates of non-English majors carried out by Shandong University, where the author has studied and then worked for years.

III. A Case Study: College English Teaching and Reform at Shandong University

At China's universities and colleges, the College English course, i. e. the tertiary-level EFL course, is one of the most important compulsory courses. Getting a passing score in this course is one precondition for Chinese college students to obtain bachelor degree. On top of it, majority of China's tertiary educational institutes require college students to take part in the College English Band/Level 4 Examination sponsored by China's Ministry of Education. Students will also be deprived of the right to be granted degrees if they fail in this exam. Many employers also regard the certificate of a College English Band 4 or 6 a pivotal criterion to judge an applicant's competence.

But the reality can discourage even the most optimistic persons---the traditional EFL teaching model only produces a large number of 'high score but low competence' students who only are good at using dumb English---even though the governments of different levels and universities supply innumerable money, facilities and faculty to College English education. In the author's opinion, this unfavourable status quo can find its answer from the following four factors:

(1) The Influence of Traditional EFL Teaching Approaches

Heavily influenced by traditional EFL teaching approaches such as grammar translation approach and audiolingual approach, in China's college English class, unquestionably teacher is the dominant role both in class activities and plan of teaching content. Compared with teacher' role, students only act as supporting roles who have few chance to speak in the class, being imbued with amounts of knowledge passively. Besides bahaviourism's reinforcement of stimulus-response chain mentioned above, cognitive learning theory advocated by American scholars such as Chomsky, Ausubel and Neisser, argues that the main task of EFL learning is to grasp various rules that guide the formation and usage of words and sentences. Thus, much attention is paid to the drill of grammatical rules, which have no much value in daily communication.

(2) Factor of Examination and Employment

Since the certificate of College English Band 4 or 6 is required by universities and employers, most Chinese college students spend much time on the preparation of this exam. Objectively speaking, China's College English Examination encourages universities and students to pay more attention to EFL teaching and learning, thus to a certain degree guaranteeing the quality of college EFL teaching. On the other hand, this exam also hinders students from achieving a balanced development of different skills, namely, speaking, writing, reading, listening and translating, since it gives a priority to some of these skills.

(3) Factors of EFL teachers

It can not be denied that the factors related to a teacher, such as his or her personal charm, morality, knowledge, teaching attitude, exert heavy influence on the effect of EFL teaching and learning. Due to historical reasons, the majority of college EFL teachers are the 'product' of traditional EFL teaching approaches. So quite naturally, they are inclined to cling to these old teaching approaches. Even worse, many of them are not good at oral English since the whole country was short of facilities and qualified teachers decades ago. As a result, they are quite reluctant to adopt newer but more challenging methods.

(4) Student's Learning Attitude and Motivation

Over the past several decades, along with the boom of student-centered approaches, research on 'learning motivation' developed gradually. Students' 'learning motivation' can be further divided into two categories, namely, the interior motivation and exterior motivation, among which the first is more stable and lasts much longer. Unlike the interior motivation, the exterior motivation is much easier to be disturbed by various factors. Taking China's EFL learning atmosphere as an example, it is not so ideal for Chinese EFL learners since Chinese is a very different language to English.

With regard to the extent problems in China's EFL teaching, Shandong University, where the author has worked as a college English teacher for several years, makes a series of thorough reforms on EFL teaching, which can be summarized as follow:

(1) Graded Class of College English

Taking consideration of the diversified EFL competence of the freshmen students, Shandong University requires all freshmen to take a displacement exam at the very beginning of their enrolment. Then depending on this exam and the English score of College Entrance Examination, freshmen students will be grouped into English class of three levels. For instance, students with high scores of these two exams mentioned above will attend the higher-level class, in which lectures delivered will be more difficult and faster. In this way, more targeted teaching strategies that meet the needs of different levels can be carried out.

(2) Transferring from Lower-level Class to Higher Ones

To motivate the students' interest to college English learning, students who perform well in their later English study will have the chance to transfer to higher-level class.

(3) Setting up Unattached Listening & Speaking Course

In order to strengthen students' speaking and listening skills, Shandong University offers students of non-English disciplines independent listening & speaking course, which has always been attached to college English course mainly in a reading and writing manner before.

(4) Specialized English Elective Courses for Higher-grade students

After two-year study of college English courses, the third-year and forth-year students can still enrol English elective courses that formerly are only accessible to student of English discipline, such as American Literature, Lexicology, Semantics, Translation Theory and Practice, so that their English competence can be further deepened and enhanced.

(5) Unhooking Certificate of College English Exam with Degree Awarding

According to the old regulations of degree awarding, if students fail to get at least a passing grade in National College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) in their four-year bachelor's programme, they will be deprived of the right to get a bachelor degree, only certificate of graduation granted. As a result, college English teaching is doomed to be an exam-oriented education. For the sake of settling this problem, Shandong University abolishes this rule at last.

(6) A New Syllabus for Larger Vocabulary

As the old syllabus of college English regulated, the minimum vocabulary is just about 5,000 words. But we know that a person needs to master about 30,000 to 50,000 words if he or she wants to understand the articles in *Washington Post*, *Sydney Herald* or *Times*. With regard to this problem, the University sets up optional course to enhance reading and vocabulary in the third academic year, which aims to increase students' storage of English words to around 80,000 words.

IV. A Sample Lecture: *American Dream*

Compared with the traditional EFL teaching approaches such as grammar translation approach or audiolingual approach, a comprehensive application of the strong points of different approaches, including the direct method, audiolingualism, Audio-video approach etc., acts as a the most ideal way for facilitating the training of various language skills especially listening and speaking, having received high praise from both teachers and students. In the following section, the author of this article, based on his own teaching experience, will give a further discussion on Shandong University's EFL reform through a sample lecture, in which necessary adaptations or amendments having been made, so as to meet the rapid-changing world, guided mainly by this comprehensive and multivariate approach mentioned above.

1. Teaching Objectives

The basic or the lower objective of this 'comprehensive' teaching approach is to enable the learners of English to communicate with others fluently or at least efficiently, through reinforced training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, dialogue and conversation, and reading comprehension. For achieving this aim at last, this approach follows a fixed sequence in the mastery of the four basic language skills, that is, beginning with listening and

speaking, and then using these two skills as a foundation for grasping the left two basic skills, reading and writing. As a higher objective, this approach aims to help the students to obtain an almost equal ability that those native speakers own.

2. Main Teaching Principles

Inheriting much from the natural approach, direct method, audiolingualism etc., and drawing on useful theoretical arguments from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology, this integrated approach forms its own distinctive teaching characteristics, the most typical ones of them are shown as follow:

1) Giving a priority to the training of communicative ability;

2) Separation of language skills into four basic ones, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, with an obvious emphasis on the teaching and mastery of listening and speaking before that of reading and writing;

3) Discouraging the use of native language in the classroom;

4) Limited teaching of vocabulary at the beginning stages of learning;

5) Errors should try to be avoided and corrected;

6) Use of dialogues as the chief means to practice spoken English;

7) Emphasis on certain teaching techniques, such as imitation, repetition, memorization, positive reinforcement, and pattern drills;

8) Making full use of audiovisual facilities such as multi-media classroom, language laboratory;

9) Teaching of grammatical rules in a scientific and inductive way.

3. Typical Teaching Techniques & Class-time Activities

In a typical classroom course of this different-approach-combined teaching approach, dialogues between students as well as between lecturer and students, and pattern practice mainly on grammatical rules and useful expressions are the dominating on-class activities, which take a lion's the class time. In order to achieve a qualified communicative ability, this approach insists on the following teaching techniques to be used in classroom:

(1) Imitation: In this kind of training, students are required to imitate, not only what teacher has said but also the teacher's speaking speed, intonation etc., as accurately and quickly as possible, e. g.:

Teacher	Student(s)
Is this a koala? ↗ (pause) An Australian koala? ↗ →	Is this a koala? ↗ (pause)
	An Australian koala? ↗

(2) Repetition: In terms of manner, this drill is similar to imitation, but whose main aim is to master the new knowledge through repeated imitation.

T S_s

I have a female koala. → [I have a female koala.] $_n$

(3) Minimal Pairs for Phonetic Drill: In this drill, pairs of words that only differ in one phoneme are provided to students, they are asked to find the difference at first, and then to make a follow reading, at last to produce the appropriate sounds on themselves.

ship---sheep big---pig bit---beat

mug---mud lid---lead plum---plug

(4)Variation: This kind of drill includes substitution, conversion, and expansion; through this sequence, increasing scale of difficulty is imposed upon students' learning.

A. Substitution: It consists of mono-component and multi-component substitutions. In this drill, students are required to repeat the lines of a dialogue, then replacing the old information, by the cues offered, i. e. the new information, in their proper places. Its major purpose is to let students to practice finding suitable words and then filling proper slots of sentences.

(a) Mono-component Substitutions:

T: We will <u>go to cinema</u> tomorrow. The cue is fish.

S: We will <u>go fishing</u> tomorrow.

(b) Multi-component Substitutions:

T → S_1 → S_2

Most <u>Westerners$_1$</u> like drinking <u>coffee$_2$</u>.

S_1→ (Cue) Easterner; tea

S_2→Most <u>Easterners$_1$</u> like drinking <u>tea$_2$</u>.

B. Conversion:

(a) Pure Conversion: It mainly includes semantic changes such as the switch between active and passive voice, and structural changes such as the addition or deletion of some sentential components, or both.

·In our department, he is the youngest teacher. (Declarative Sentence)

→In our department, is he the youngest teacher? (Interrogative)

·In our department, he is the youngest teacher. (Affirmative)

→In our department, he is not the youngest teacher. (Negative)

·In our department, he is the youngest teacher. (Declarative)

→In our department, who is the youngest teacher? (Interrogative)

(b) Sentence Completion: After hearing an utterance that is complete except for one word, students are required to find a proper word for the slot and then repeat the utterance in its complete form.

T: A friend in need is a friend _____.

Ss: A friend in need is a friend indeed.

C. Expansion:

(a) Pure Expansion: This drill helps students to produce longer sentences gradually and achieve fluency reliably. Foe instance:

T: They go out to eat. Ss: They go out to eat.

T: At weekends. Ss: They go out to eat at weekends.

T: Often. Ss: They often go out to eat at weekends.

(b) Clause Combination: This drill gives chances to students to practice combining two simple sentences into a longer one, either a compound or a complex one.

T: I am free tomorrow. Come to see you.

Ss: I will come to see you again tomorrow if I am free.

(5) Question-and-Answer Drill: This drill asks students to respond teacher's questions swiftly. It is also possible for students to ask questions by some cues, offered by teachers.

T: Who is the first president of USA?

S_s: George Washington.

T: Sun Yat-sen

S_s: He is the first president of the former Republic of China.

(6) Description or Dialogue on the Pictorial Information Provided: To cite an example, according to the following picture, students are required to describe the position of the stuff in a classroom.

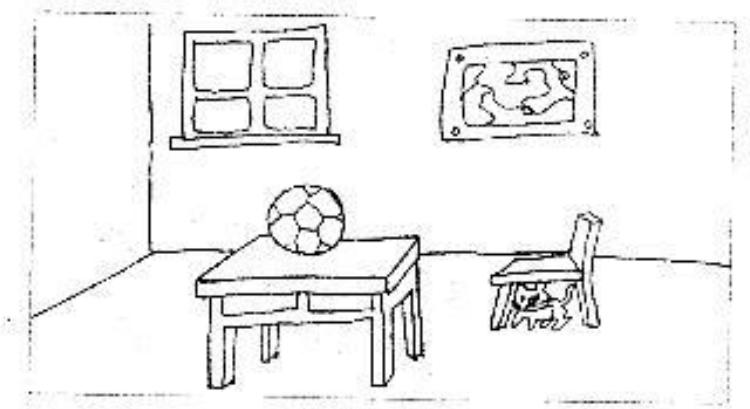

Figure-1

4. A Sample Lecture: *American Dream*

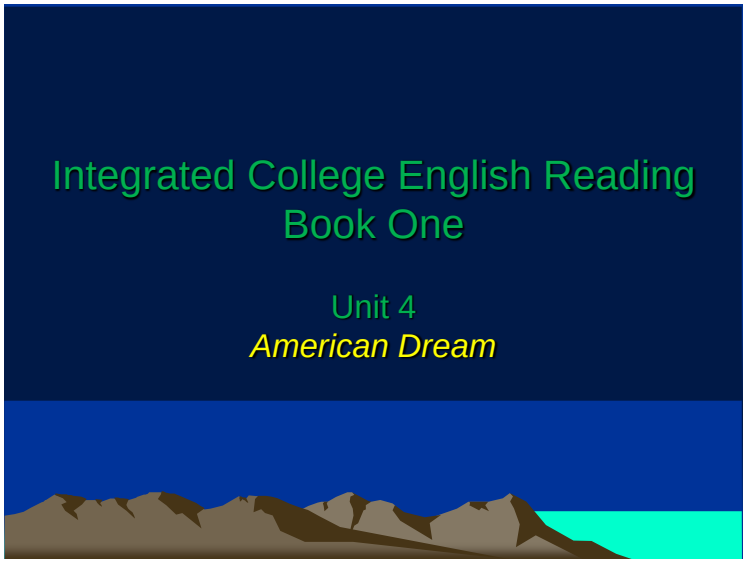

Figure-2

To help readers to get a more ostensive, tangible view on this 'Comprehensive Approach' language teaching, in this section of the paper, the author chooses a lesson of College English which he has taught as an example. Generally speaking, in a typical lesson of this approach, the whole teaching procedure can be divided into four main steps, successively: recognition, imitation & repetition, pattern drills, and follow-up activities. But here a detailed specifications as well as constructions of the lesson *American Dream* serves as a better way to highlight the main features of this approach.

Lecture: *American Dream*

(Two connected classes, each 50 minutes long, with a 10-min rest in between)

(1) Pre-class Tasks (homework of the previous class):

a.) What is an "American Dream"?

b.) How can a person succeed in a career?

c.) Hard work and great ambition, which is more important, or both?

(2) Warm-up Activities (up to 20 minutes):

At the beginning of the first class, a couple of students are asked to make a short presentation on the above topics listed. Each student's presentation should be no less than 5 minutes. After the presentations, teacher will give an overall summary and comment.

(3) New Words Learning & Text Explanation (up to 40 minutes):

One point needs to be particularly stressed is since the text is quite long, usually it is divided into two parts for two 2-hour lessons. When explaining the new words, expressions, and the main body of the text, teacher should only use the target language or try to avoid using the mother tongue. During the delivering, a reciprocal communication between lecturer and students is strongly encouraged.

(4) Pattern Drills (up to 20 minutes):

Depending on various useful teaching techniques used by different teaching approaches, the lecturer supervises the students' learning and mastering of the new expressions and useful grammatical structures learnt just now.

(5) Follow-up Activities (up to 20 minutes)

As a device to enhance the effect of learning and another chance for spoken English practice, some students are required to make a role play or even a cosplay, based on the text just learnt, in their own words instead of a rote memory.

(6) Homework:

Off the class, the relevant exercises attached to the unit are required to fulfill as the homework so that the next time it can be used as the material for on-class training and an assessment of the learners' achievement as well.

V. Conclusion

As a summary, the above-mentioned student-centered and communication-oriented EFL teaching reform carried by Shandong University does have achieve great success, which has been demonstrated by relevant statistics from different angles. Nevertheless, the author of this paper personally thinks that still some improvements should be made. At first, besides the augmentation of vocabulary, research on the frequency and usage of words is also of equally importance; secondly, for realizing a balanced development, the author hopes that Shandong University's college English final-term exam would adopt the score allocation model being used in IELTS and new TOFEL; last but not least, the mode of graded class should be further improved since it potentially discourages those students whose English are not good before entering into university.

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The Awareness of the English Word-formation Mechanisms is a Necessity to Make an Autonomous L2 Learner in EFL Context

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***Abstract*—The purpose of this paper is to emphasize the issue of word-formation mechanisms in the area of foreign language learning / teaching, and to provide a critical view on the selected English language coursebooks series named *Action Pack* from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ. Vocabulary, as compared, for instance, with language functions and other grammatical structures, is still assigned to parts of speech (noun, verb, adverb, adjective, etc.) by a method which goes back for two millennia (Matthews,1974). The new communicative trends disregard the role of word-formation mechanisms; they focus on syntax and/or vocabulary without analyzing the mechanisms involved in the creation of new lexical items. As is pointed out by Lessard-Clouston (1996), EFL materials are often organized along the lines of the four major skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, vocabulary, on the other hand, is seldom explicitly mentioned, although it is always present. In other words, learning of English word-formation mechanisms is seen as a by-product of other linguistic learning. No wonder, then, that vocabulary is less systematically taught and learnt than other aspects of the FL. Since words play an important role in expressing our feelings, and ideas to others during the act of communication, FL teachers should attribute importance to teaching word-formation in their classes. Textbooks play a pivotal role in the realm of language teaching and learning and they are looked upon as an indispensable vehicle for FL learning. The paper has two main objectives: first, the morphological system including word-formation mechanisms will be reviewed, second, to clarify and discuss the necessity for word-formation teaching to learners of EFL context.**

***Index Terms*—L2 learners, awareness, word-formation mechanisms, morphology, vocabulary learning EFL context, autonomy, coursebooks**

I. Introduction

Teaching the mechanisms of word-formation is an important area worthy of effort and investigation. Word formation mechanisms may be defined as a set of processes for the creation of new words on the basis of existing ones. Thus, apart from borrowing from other languages, the vocabulary stock of a language is formed by means of what is usually known as word-formation rules and, particularly, of word-formation mechanisms, such as coinage, derivation, compounding, clipping, blending, conversion, backformation, abbreviation, etc. (see Yule,G., 2006; Adams, 1973; Bauer, 1983). Aware of their importance, traditional approaches to language teaching tended to place morphological issues at the forefront. In recent times, however, with the arrival of the communicative trends, the learning and teaching of languages no longer focuses on the description of the language itself and, as a corollary, on morphological issues, but on language as a means of communication. Recently, methodologists and linguists (e.g. Folse, 2004; Zimmerman, 1997; Nation, 2001; Laufer, 1997) emphasize and recommend teaching vocabulary because of its importance in language teaching. For instance, Zimmerman (1997) states that, 'although the lexicon is arguably central to language acquisition and use, vocabulary construction and instruction has not been a priority in second language acquisition research and methodology' (p, 17). Nation (2001) also discusses the main points 'in designing the vocabulary component of a language course and focuses on the importance of learner autonomy in vocabulary learning', (pp. 394-406). Whereas, Folse (2004), relating to the same issue, states that, 'students appreciate good instruction in vocabulary, which includes teaching words and the mechanisms of how they are constructed that students need to know, giving many good examples of the words, and holding students accountable for the words through appropriate practice activities and systematic testing',(p.viii). Seeming to be obvious, the sequence of developments, especially in the last decade, indicates that vocabulary learning and teaching issues have gradually gained importance.

My earlier experience as an FL learner, and later, as a teacher, seems to suggest that vocabulary is perhaps the most important component of any language course. McCarthy (1990) begins his vocabulary book by stating ' it is the experience of most language teachers that the single biggest component of any language course is vocabulary' (p. iii).Vocabulary is needed for expressing meaning and in using the receptive (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing) skills. 'If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that

provides the vital organs and the flesh' (Harmer, 1991, p. 153). McCarthy (1990) argues that 'no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way' (p.iii). However, as compared, for instance, with grammatical structures or other language functions, word-formation often plays a secondary role. According to Lessard-Clouston, (1996), vocabulary continues to play a marginal role even in the more recent communicative approach. English word-formation is usually taken for-granted by teachers and planners, (Matthews, 1974). It is often assumed that vocabulary does not require explicit teaching since, it is claimed, and that learners will end up learning vocabulary indirectly while engaging in communicative activities. 'The truth is that vocabulary is lacking in the overall curriculum. … Furthermore, except for the few vocabulary textbooks that explicitly cover vocabulary, most ESL/EFL textbooks do not systematically deal with vocabulary,' (Matthews, 1974, pp. 162-163). No wonder, then, that vocabulary is less systematically taught and learnt than other aspects of the FL. In Jordan, EFL materials, vocabulary does not seem to enjoy much better treatment.

As a rule, previous studies in L2 morphology or word-formation, such as Derwing (1976), Derwing and Baker (1977 and 1979), and Freyd and Baron (1982), have mainly concentrated on the order of acquisition of morphemes, that is, on whether L2 learners acquire inflectional morphemes before derivational ones, or whether learners are able to decode and recognize them before they can move into a productive stage, disregarding the importance of knowing and the acquisition of the morphological processes available in the L2. Unlike previous studies, the current article makes emphasis on how relevant word-formation processes or even morphology in general can be for the non-native speaker or second/foreign language learner as a way to increase their vocabulary or lexical resources, and also as a strategy to promote their autonomous learning. Nation (2001) likewise mentions that 'there are principles that some teachers and course designers follow that go against research findings' and mentions several of them in relation to vocabulary, two of which are 'All vocabulary learning should occur in context,' and 'Vocabulary learning does not benefit from being planned, but can be determined by the occurrence of words in texts, tasks and themes', (p. 384).

II. A Critical View on the Textbook 'Action Pack' (AP)

The 'Action Pack (AP) is the prescribed English textbook by the Ministry of Education, for the compulsory stage (the first nine years of schooling) in Jordan. Both textbooks of the 8th and 9th grade were reviewed, but the current study selected the AP of the 9th grade to be discussed as an example of the whole compulsory stage, since it represents the highest level of the compulsory stage. As a mere first hand impression, after skimming the whole units, one may observe two obvious things. First, that the book consists of 12 units and that almost all these units have more or less the same type of activities. Second, the vocabulary activities and exercises have nothing about English word-formation processes, except for the orphan exercise in AP unit (11) page (87) says 'make nouns from these adjectives and verbs: choose the correct ending and write the noun in the table below'; which means that EFL designers and planners of this prescribed textbook tend to ignore the English word-formation processes entirely. Almost all kinds of the vocabulary activities in AP are words provided to students, either to match words with pictures; match words in column A with words from column B; match verbs with their definitions; find names of places on the map; fill gaps with the suitable word; what everyday objects are made of; give a name of each of these places; describe people/things or choose a feeling for each situation,…etc. The textbook, does not have any single exercise, for example, to explain and clarify that when a word undergoes a word-formation process, several changes might occur regarding spelling, meaning, stress, class, sound, which usually yields a new linguistic unit. The student, actually, needs to know how and why these changes happen.

The book is packed generally with structural exercises which make students memorize the syntax of the language (i.e. phrases, clauses and sentences) without providing any kind of activities that help them understand how word structures are formed. This makes the learning process more difficult and burdens the students with the necessity of memorizing still more word forms resulted from the continuing different word-formation processes. For example, in unit five page 42, the vocabulary activity says: 'match the type of illnesses (e.g. stomachache, headache, neckache, and illnesses) with their meanings or with pictures'. No activity is provided to illustrate how the word e.g. 'illnesses' is structured, students learn it as a vocabulary item to describe somebody's health. No explanation is offered to the learners to clarify for them that *illnesses* is formed by 'ill' (adjective) + the suffixes 'ness' and 'es' and that the same suffixes '-ness' and '-es' both or either of them can be used in forming other words, i.e. nouns, singular or plural e.g. goodnesses. If no activity explains to the foreign learner, how this foreign learner in 9th grade will understand that *'smog, brunch, motel, telethon'* are new words came to being via a word-formation process (blending), and that each one of them consists of two parts of two already-existing words are put together to form new words, (smoke+fog; breakfast+lunch; motor+hotel; television + marathon, respectively); As Matthews, (1974) put it: 'How does one plunge into syntax when one cannot identify and understand the elements whose role and distribution is in question? It is only in favoured cases, where the morphology is simple or is already thoroughly explored, that a beginner can plunge into syntax, (p. 8). In AP unit 3, page 27, students learn words (cloudy, foggy, sunny, rainy, stormy and snowy) as vocabulary items to describe weather and climate, however, no exercise is provided to clarify to the learner that the word *'cloudy'* is formed by the root '*cloud'* + and the suffix *'y'* and that the same suffix *'y'* can be used in forming other words,(i.e. adjectives) and also that *'y'* has

got distinct morphological meanings: adjectival (e.g. *juicy, spicy, icy*). or nominalizing (see Chomsky, 1970) (e.g. modesty), or diminutive (e.g. doggy).

As a result ,students usually learn words (e.g. units 8,9,12 expression, natural unfair, respectable earthquake) all as single units without being aware that most words they learn are derived or composed words which they can break down into components to help them understand their form, and thereby their meaning. Further, in the AP, students learn words (e.g. 'machinery, industrial, stomachache, illnesses, unemployment, rainy, cloudy, blackboard, discovery, went, dried, ran) Indeed, recognizing how these words are formed, however, may not be always very easy in a language such as English. because by forming new words, several changes, as it is mentioned above, might emerge during or after the new formation, regarding spelling, meaning, stress, class, sound which makes their recognition more difficult to the learner. For example, some verbs change sounds when they become nouns (reduce–reduction); others retain the same sounds but the spelling changes (fry–fried), etc. Irregular verbs are another example of this: 'ran' can be easily related to 'run' and 'run', while 'went'seems quite unrelated to 'go' and 'gone'. Very often, however, such changes are recurrent over large sets of words. Similarly, the stress changes from the verb 'produce' to the noun 'produce' are typical of a large group of stress-changing words. In addition to the sorts I alluded to earlier, it is precisely these sorts of difficulties that need to be capitalized upon by textbooks designers in addressing the problems of word-formation, especially when learners have never been introduced to them before. The learner in this case tries to memorize these structures which burdens her/him with necessity for memorizing more and more, because as Lees (1960) and Levi (1978) note that native speakers have not ceased creating new forms spontaneously and EFL/ESL students may never be able to catch up with them, and are,therefore, frequently confused. Thereby, students need to develop strategies for rapid comprehension in order to better cope with English vocabulary in the long run. English word-formation is usually taken for-granted by teachers and planners, and vocabulary are still assigned to parts of speech (noun, verb adverb, adjective..) by a method which goes back for two millennia (Matthew, 1974). *Indeed*, students need to know: facts about word- formation and how to put words to fit different grammatical contexts as words can change their shape and their grammatical value, too.

III. Basic Terminology with Definitions

Morphology, an area of linguistics, dealing with the internal structure of word forms, can be divided into two main branches (Bauer, 1983, p. 33). Word formation is the one branch of it. According to him, 'word formation deals with the formation of new lexemes' whereas Yule, G., (2006) defines ′word formation processes (mechanisms)′ as 'the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language'(p.64). These processes enlarge the vocabulary and therefore create new lexemes. In my opinion, by dividing the phrase ′word formation processes′ into its components the term almost explains itself, namely ′the processes of the formation of words′, thus this may be a very appropriate definition .It is necessary to mention at this point that word-formation is generally divided into two main groups (Bauer, 1983; Quirk et al, 1985), the first group includes 'affixation (derivation), compounding and conversion' which are considered predictable formations, whereas the 2nd group includes what Bauer (1983) calls the unpredictable formations such as clipping, blending, acronyms, etc. Let's start first with the definition of the terms relevant to these processes: Affixes (prefixes, suffixes & infixes) are bound morphemes which attached to a base (root or stem). Prefixes attach to the front of a base. Prefixes in English they are small class of morphemes numbering about seventy-five (75) and their meaning are often those of English prepositions and adverbials. An example of a prefix is the 're-' of 'recall' or 'mal-' of 'malnutrition'. Suffixes occur to the end of a base e.g. of a suffix, '-al' of 'national, '-y' of 'noisy'; infixes are inserted inside of a root. The infixes are not normally to be found in English e.g.'absogoddamlutely'

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language (any part of a word that cannot be broken down further into smaller meaningful parts, including the whole word itself). The word 'boys' can be broken down into two meaningful parts: 'boy' and the plural suffix '-s'; neither of these can be broken down into smaller parts that have a meaning. Therefore 'boy' and '-s' are both morphemes. i.e. one free morpheme (boy) and one bound morpheme (s) which is a suffix.Simply,one can say that every affix is a morpheme but not every morpheme is an affix. Also every bound morpheme is an affix. To put in another way, that every bound morpheme (derivational or inflectional) is an affix. (a) *Bound morpheme* is a morpheme that cannot stand alone as an independent word, but must be attached to another morpheme/word (affixes, such as plural '-s', are always bound; roots are sometimes bound, e.g. the 'kep-' of 'kept' or the '-ceive' of 'receive'. (b) *Free morpheme* is a morpheme that can stand alone as an independent word (e.g. 'table, boy, cat, read, write, city'). The stem is an element (free or bound, root morpheme or complex word) to which additional morphemes are added. Also called a *Base*. A base can consist of a single root morpheme, as with the 'good' of 'goodness'. But a base can also be a word that itself contains more than one morpheme. For example, we can use the word 'goodness' as a base to form the word 'goodnesses' to make 'goodnesses', we add the plural morpheme, spelled '-es' in this case, to the base 'goodness'. *The root* is a (usually free) morpheme around which words can be built up through the addition of affixes. The root usually has a more-specific meaning than the affixes that attach to it. For example, the root 'kind' can have affixes added to it to form 'kindly', 'kindness', 'kinder', 'kindest'. The root is the item you have left when you strip all other morphemes off of a complex word. In the word *decrystalizing* for example, if you strip off all the affixes'-*ing*, -*ize*, and *de-', crystal* is what you have left. It cannot be divided further into meaningful parts. It is the root of the word.

IV. Content and Functional Morphemes

A content morpheme is a morpheme that has a relatively more-specific meaning than a functional morpheme; a morpheme that names a concept / idea in our record of experience of the world. Content morphemes fall into the classes of noun, verb, adjective, adverb. A functional morpheme is a morpheme that has a relatively less-specific meaning than a content morpheme; a morpheme whose primary meaning /function is to signal relationships between other morphemes. Functional morphemes generally fall into classes such as articles ('a', 'the'), prepositions ('of', 'at'), auxiliary verbs ('was eating', 'have slept'), etc

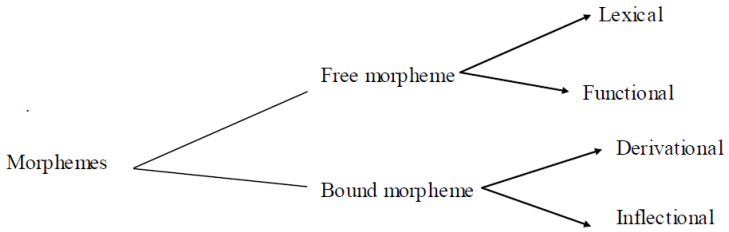

Figure 1. shows different categories of free and bound morphemes

Simple word is a word consisting of a single morpheme; a word that cannot be analyzed into smaller meaningful parts, e.g. 'boy, six, chalk, in, the, of, read'. **Complex word** is a word consisting of a root plus one or more affixes (e.g. 'girls', 'wanted ', 'deadly' carelessness, disestablishment). **Compound word** is a word that is formed from two or more simple or complex words (e.g. landlord, red-hot, window-cleaner, classroom, girlfriend).Given the basic terminology with definitions along with the illustrative examples, makes feasible to start with the English inflectional system.

V. A Review of English Inflectional System

First of all, one should know that there are no inflectional prefixes in English. English has only three categories of meaning which are expressed inflectionally, known as inflectional categories.

They are number in nouns, e.g. 'cat-s, cat's', 'runs'; tense/aspect in verbs e.g.'talk-ed', 'talk-ing'; and comparison in adjectives e.g. 'small-er' '-est',. Thereby, inflection is the process by which affixes combine with roots to indicate these basic grammatical categories ,and the suffixes '-s', 'ed', 'ing', '-er', and 'est' are inflectional suffixes) Inflection is viewed as the process of adding very general meanings to existing words, not as the creation of new words.(regular inflections)

Irregular inflectional morphology

Type of irregularity	**Noun plurals**	**Verbs: past tense**	**Verb past participle**
Unusual suffix	ox**en**,syllab**i**,antenn**ae**		see**n**, fall**en**, eat**en**
Change of stem vowel	foot/f**ee**t, mouse/m**i**ce	fly/fl**ew**,get/g**o**t	swim/sw**u**m,sing/s**u**ng
change stem vowel with unusual suffix	brother/br**e**thr**en**/	feel/f**elt**, kneel/kn**elt**	write/wr**itten**,break/ br**oken**, etc.
Change in base/stem form (sometimes with unusual suffix)		send/sen**t**,bend/ben**t**, think/th**ought**, teach/ t**aught**,	Sent, bent, thought, taught and bought, etc.
Zero-marking (no suffix, no stem change	deer, sheep, moose, fish,etc.,	hit, beat	hit, beat, come,etc.,

Suppletion (instead of a suffix, the whole word changes): be - am - are - is - was - were – been. go - went - gone, good - better - best, bad- worse - worst, some - more – most. Syntactic marking (added meanings are indicated by a separate word rather than marking with a suffix or change to the base): Future of verbs: will go, will eat, will fight, etc. Comparative/superlative of adjectives: more intelligent, more expensive, etc., most intelligent, most expensive, etc. Having illustrated the inflectional morphemes leads us to start with the common word-formation processes in the production of new English words.

VI. A Review of Word-formation Processes

1- Derivation/affixation: It is the most common word-formation process (Yule, 2006,p,70) which is achieved by means of a large number of small bits are called affixes, e.g.'un, ful, ness.less, .ism, im, dis, de, ment, in' etc., it is the process by which affixes combine with roots to create new words (e.g. in 'character-'ize', 'read-er', '-ize' and '-er' are derivational suffixes). Derivation is viewed as using existing words to make new words. The inflection/derivation difference is increasingly viewed as shades of gray rather than an absolute boundary. Derivation is much less regular, and therefore much less predictable, than inflectional morphology. For example, we can predict that most English words will form their plural by adding the affix '-s' or '-es'. But how we derive nouns from verbs, for example, is less predictable. Why do we add '-al' to 'refuse', making 'refusal', but '-ment' to 'pay' to make 'payment'? 'Payal' and 'refusement' are not possible English words. Thereby, we have to do more memorizing in learning derivational morphology than in learning inflectional morphology. Unlike prefixes, suffixes frequently alter the word-class as I mentioned above. Four main types of suffixes are usually distinguished in English: *(a)Suffixes forming nouns:* From nouns: kingdom, rockdom, terrorism, From verbs: crystallization, naturalization, From adjective: militancy, Excellency

happiness (b)*Suffixes forming verbs*: there are two main suffixes deriving verbs from nouns 'ify and 'ize' as in 'classify', purify, realize, and 'colonize' etc., and another suffix forming verbs is 'en' as widen, lengthen, shorten ,weaken etc. *(c) suffixes forming adjectives*: From nouns: eg. habitual, natural, normal, boyish, From verb: readable, believable, tireless, payable etc From adjective: foolish, greenish, etc Some scholars (Arnoff, 1976, p,21) claim that only nouns, adjectives and advers can be the product of word-formation, and that only these form classes can be used bases in the formation of derivations. However, Bauer (1973) reported that the first part of this claim is true, but there is plenty of evidence minor form classes can be used as bases in established forms like 'inness, inner whyness, downer,etc', (p.225)**.**

2- Compounding: joining two or more words to produce a new single form (one new word) it is very common in languages like German and English. Examples: skateboard, whitewash, super-high-way, cat-lover, self-help, red hot, textbook, fingerprint, sunburn, wallpaper, waterbed, etc. A compound, Bauer (1973) suggests, may therefore be more fully defined as a lexeme containing two or more potential stems that has not subsequent been subjected to derivational process. One may distinguish four major types of compounds in English: (1) -Compound nouns which constitutes the rest majority of English components, is obtained by stringing two nouns together. This group contains four kinds of compounds: **(a)** Exocentric compounds: this is where the compound is not a hyponym of the grammatical head. For instance, red-skin where the compound refers to a person rather than to a skin which is red. **(b)** Endocentric compounds this is where the compound is a hyponym of the grammatical head and informs that e.g. armchair is a kind of a chair. **(c)** Appositival compounds: this is where the compound is a hyponym of both the first and second element (or grammatical head), for example *maid servant* is a hyponym of both 'maid' and 'servant'. the element of oppositional compounds ,generally marks the sex of person as in boy-friend woman-doctor,…etc. **(d)** Copulative compounds: this where the two elements of the compound name are separate entities combined to refer to one entity, e.g.Rank-Hovis, these are not common in English. (2) - Compound verbs: most of the compound verbs in English are formed by conversion or by the process known as backformation. that is by subtracting an affix thought to be part of the word ,Anyway, verb compounds are rather rare in English. The different types like noun+ verb e.g. *sky-dive*, verb+verb e.g. *freeze-dry*, adjective +verb, e.g. *soft-land*, particle +verb, e.g. *over look*, adjective + noun e.g. *bad-mouth*, and noun +noun, e.g. *breath test*. (3) -Compound adverbs: the most common way of forming an adverb is by adding the suffix 'ly' to a compound adjective. (4) -Compound adjectives: They could be formed by several different patterns, e.g. noun +adjective (sea- born, space born), verb + adjective (fail-safe), verb + noun (turn-key, switch-button), adjective +adjective (white-sweet, bitter-sweet).etc.

3- Borrowing: it is one of the most common sources of new words in English, it is the taken over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loan words, It may be adapted to the borrowing language's phonological system to varying degrees. Examples: *hummus, chutzpah, cipher, artichoke,alcohol* (from Arabic). *boss* from (Dutch), *croissant* from (French), *lilac* from (Persian), *Piano, spaghetti* from(Italian), *pretzel f*rom (German), *robot* from(Czech), *yogurt* from (Turkish),*Zebra* from (Bantu) *skunk, tomato* (from indigenous languages of the Americas*), sushi, taboo, wok* (from Pacific Rim languages), *banana* (from Swahli language). A special type of borrowing is described as **loan-translation or calque**. In this process there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language,an interesting example is the French term un gratte-ceil which literally translates as 'a srcape-sky.or from the German wolkenkratzer (cloud scraper) both of which were used, for what in English, is normally referred to as a 'skyscraper'. The English word superman is thought to be a loan of the German ubermencsh, the term 'loan-word' itself is believed to have come from German 'Lehnwort' etc.

4- Conversion: (also called **Zero derivation**: or **functional shift**): As is well known, conversion is the word-formation process whereby a lexical item is simply converted or adapted from one grammatical class to another without an affix. For example, we can talk of the conversion of the adjective *daily* (as in: 'we read it in a *daily* newspaper') to the noun *daily* (as in: 'We read it in a *daily*'). That the two instances of the word daily (the base adjective and the derived noun) belong to two different grammatical classes is only clear from the fact that they are used in different sentence positions. i.e. adding no affixes; simply using a word of one category as a word of another category in a different sentence position especially in an adjective case. In English, conversion is indeed an important word-formation process, and adjective-noun conversion is one of its main categories, see e.g. Marchand, 1969; Adams, 1973; and Quirk et al., 1985). Further, a change in the function of a word as, for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction is generally known as conversion (category change and functional shift).Examples: Noun-verb: comb, sand, knife, butter, referee, proposition, bottle, vacation, paper, etc. We say: 'he is papering the bedroom walls', or 'have you buttered the toast?' verb- noun: guess, must, spy. Phrasal verbs also become nouns as *a printout, a takeover*.

5- Stress shift: no affix is added to the base, but the stress is shifted from one syllable to the other. With the stress shift comes a change in category. the nouns cómbine ímplant, réwrite, tránsport with the stress shift they become verbs: combine, implánt rewrîte, transpórt, respectively. Sometimes when the stress shifts, nouns become adjectives e.g. the nouns e.g.cóncrete, âbstract, become adjectives 'concrête, abstrâct'.

6- Clipping: The element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process called clipping. This usually occurs when a word of more than one syllable eg 'fanatic' is reduced to a shorter form'fan'often in casual speech.Common examples are 'ad' (advertisement'), 'fax'('facsimile'), 'gas'('gasoline'),'bra' ('brassiere), bro (< brother), pro (< professional), prof (< professor), math (< mathematics), veg (< 'vegetate', as in veg out in front of the

TV), sub (< substitute or submarine), flu(<fluenza), fan (<fanatic). In other words, shortening of a polysyllabic word. More examples: 'Perm bra, cab, phone, plane, pub,condo, etc'.

7- Acronym formation: forming words from the initials of a group of words that designate one concept. Usually, but not always, capitalized. An acronym is pronounced as a word if the consonants and vowels line up in such a way as to make this possible, otherwise it is pronounced as a string of letter names. Examples: NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration), NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), scuba (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus), radar (radio detecting and ranging), NFL (National Football League), AFL-CIO (American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations). All united nations organizations as unsc… etc.

8- Blending: Parts (which are not morphemes!) of two already-existing words are put together to form a new word. Examples: motel (motor hotel) brunch (breakfast & lunch), smog (smoke & fog), telethon (television & marathon), modem (modulator & demodulator), Spanglish (Spanish & English).

9- Backformation: 'It is a very specialized type of reduction process is known as ′back formation′. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of different type(usually a verb). A good example is the process whereby the noun television first came into use and then the verb televise was created from it, (Yule.2006, p, 67)'. Backformation process is regarded as a borderline case, i.e. it can be counted as a member of the most productive word formation processes or as a member of the so called secondary word formation processes. Because of the relation between compounding, especially compound verbs, and back formation. It is a suffix identifiable from other words is cut off of a base which has previously not been a word; that base then is used as a root, and becomes a word through widespread use. Examples: pronunciate (< pronunciation < pronounce), resurrect (< resurrection), enthuse (< enthusiasm), self-destruct (< self-destruction < destroy), burgle (< burglar), attrit (< attrition), burger (< hamburger). This differs from clipping in that, in clipping, some phonological part of the word which is not interpretable as an affix or word is cut off (e.g. the '-essor' of 'professor' is not a suffix or word; nor is the '-ther' of 'brother'. In backformation, the bit chopped off is a recognizable affix or word ('ham ' in 'hamburger'), '-ion' in 'self-destruction'. Backformation is the result of a false but plausible morphological analysis of the word; clipping is a strictly phonological process that is used to make the word shorter. Clipping is based on syllable structure, not morphological analysis. It is impossible for you to recognize backformed words or come up with examples from your own knowledge of English, unless you already know the history of the word. Most people do not know the history of the words they know; this is normal. More examples of backformed words to illustrate this special process: 'worker>work', 'editor> edit', 'sculptor>sculpt etc. Further, a particular type, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as 'hypocorisms'**.** First, a longer word is reduced to a single syllable,then '-y' or-'ie' is added to the end. The most familiar versions of this process are the words 'movie< (moving pictures'), telly < ('televiision'), 'Aussie' > ('Australian'),' barbie < ('barbecue'), 'bookie' < ('bookmaker'), 'Brekky' < ('breakfast').'hankie < ('handkerchief').You can probably guess what 'chrissy pressies' are.

10- Coinage: Adoption of brand names as common words: One of the least common processes of word-formation in English is 'coinage', that is the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product which becomes general term for any version of that product, e.g. 'kleenex, xerox, aspirin, nylon, zipper, Teflon, kitty litter, brand-aid'. The word ceases to be capitalized and acts as a normal verb/noun (i.e. takes inflections such as plural or past tense). some scholars warned using them in formal writing because 'the companies using the names usually have copyrighted them and object to their use in public documents, so they should be avoided in formal writing (or a law suit could follow!).

11- Onomatopoeia: (pronounced: 'onno-motto-pay-uh'): words are invented which (to native speakers at least) sound like the sound they name or the entity which produces the sound. In other words, Onomatopoeia is the imitation of sound by sound. Here, the sound is truly an echo to the sense: the referent itself is an acoustic experience which is more or less closely imitated by the phonetic structure of the word. Terms like buzz, crack, growl, hum, hiss, sizzle ,cuckoo, cock-a-doodle-doo, beep, ding-dong, crash, crush, plop, roar, squeak, squeal, whizz are onomatopoeic words (Ullman, 1979, p.84).

VII. The Need of the Word-formation Teaching in EFL Context

Vocabulary is very often defined according to form. This should not be surprising since the branch of linguistics that deals with the study of words is precisely called 'morphology'; that is, 'the study of form'. Generally speaking, the vocabulary of a language includes the words of that language. The word has been defined as a freestanding element of language that has meaning (McCarthy, 1990), as opposed to all sorts of bound forms in a language. The majority of English words have been created through the combination of morphemic elements, that is, prefixes and suffixes with base words and word roots**.** If learners understand how this combinatorial process works, they possess one of the most powerful understandings necessary for vocabulary growth (Anderson and Freebody, 1981). Studying how words are formed offers one important way of classifying words for teaching and learning purposes. Cutler, (1983); and Corson, (1985) emphasized the importance of word-formation in language acquisition. For instance, Corson, (1985) states: 'difficulties for many people in articulating and decoding words in a context often seem due to the form rather than to the meaning of the words, (ibid, p. 49)'. Furthermore, the study of word-formation may turn out to be highly productive

since it consists of learning a small number of processes that are regularly used to create a large number of words in a language. This understanding of how meaningful elements combine is defined as morphological knowledge because it is based on an understanding of morphemes, the smallest units of meaning in a language. In the intermediate grades and beyond, most new words that students encounter in their reading are morphological derivatives of familia words (Aronoff, 1994). In recent years research has suggested some promising guidelines for teaching the meanings of prefixes, suffixes, and word roots as well as for the ways in which knowledge of these meaningful word parts may be applied (Templeton, 2004). Word roots such as *dict, spect*, and *struct* are meaningful parts of words that remain after all prefixes and suffixes have been removed but that usually do not stand by themselves as words: *prediction, inspection, construction*.

VIII. The Absence of Word-formation Teaching in EFL Context

The importance of the process of how a word is shaped in English is still underestimated by planners, book writers and teachers. The word-formation is usually taken for- granted and words are still assigned to categories e.g. verb, noun, adverb, adjective etc, (Matthews,1974) In EFL, most language teaching materials are taken from grammatical syllabuses which accept the view that language is a grammatical system and that learning a language consists of learning that system. The last thirty years witnessed the development of new approaches to language teaching, such as communicative approach which originates from the purpose of language as communication. Hymes (1972) referred to as 'communicative competence'. Canale and Swain's work is considered as an expansion of Hymes' model which attempts to 'determine the feasibility and practicality of developing what we shall call the 'communicative competence' of students' (Canale and Swain, 1980:1). Bachman's framework (1990) is an extension of earlier models 'in that it attempts to characterize the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs' (Bachman, 1990:81). Such approaches yielded situational and notional syllabuses, in these approaches word-formation processes are not considered in the name of communicative language, and EFL/ESL materials vary depending on how the textbooks designers and developers conceptualize them which is often focus on the situations and notions to be utilized in communicative language. According to these new approaches EFL mostly consists of teaching patterns of social use and how to use them to express meaning. Therefore, neither grammatical syllabuses nor the more recent ones give attention or importance to word formation. Students are left to their abilities to use dictionaries and guessing skills to understand such processes. Lyons (1981) does not even see the necessity of listing a word like 'politeness'in a dictionary as a vocabulary unit, since both its meaning and its grammatical properties are predictable by rule, and that speakers of a language have intuitions about what is or is not an actual word of their language (ibid, p. 42). It seems that Lyons' foregoing statement might be true for the natives, but he forgets the foreign learner who does not have those intuitions and who is denied that list of derived words in the dictionary as Lyons suggests? How can a foreign language learner come to perceive , for example, that 'carelessness' is formed by the addition of two suffixes 'less' and 'ness' respectively, and not a mere vocabulary item?

IX. Pedagogical Implications

As McCarthy (1990)states'....vocabulary often seems to be the least systematized and the least well catered for of all the aspects of learning a (second) or foreign language', (p.iii). In terms of ESL/EFL pedagogy, then, one major implication of the arrgument above is that both curriculum and instruction need to incorporate English vocabulary more systematically. Beyond 'menaing identification' ESL/EFL educators need to address what it means to know and use vocabulary in a broader way, including those aspects summarized by Nation (1990, pp.29-49); see also schmidtt (1995). At the pedagogical levels: in the primary grades students begin to explore the effects of prefixes such as un-, re-, and dis- on base words. In the intermediate grades students continue to explore prefixes and an increasing number of suffixes and their effects on base words: govern (verb) + -ment = government (noun). Common Greek and Latin roots begin to be explored, along with the effects of prefixes and suffixes that attach to them (Templeton, 1989). These include, for example, chron ("time," as in chronology), tele ("distant, far" as in television), and fract ("break," as in fracture). The EFL teacher is also responsible in a way that he should attribute much importance to the word-formation processes when he teaches EFL materials.The textbook is a tool in the hands of the teacher, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but also how useful it can be. Studying how words are formed offers, one important way of classifying vocabulary for teaching and learning. The rationale behind teaching word-formation processes is that learners are likely to attach meanings to words which they have never encountered before if they can recognize within them the presence of familiar morphemes (McCarthy 1990). Thereby, students need to know facts about word formation processes and how to put words to fit different grammatical contexts as words can change their shape and their grammatical value, too. The critical view and analysis given by the researcher on the content of the Coursebooks of AP series prescribed for compulsory stage in Jordan, from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ, shows that teaching of morphological processes is relevant and essential in order to enhance the learners' creative power. Consequently, this piece suggests that there is a finite number of word-formation processes in English and the most common ones and their typical formatives can be introduced and taught directly in EFL purposes. In addition to this, it seems that enhancing learner awareness of the internal structure of words and the

mechanisms by which they have been obtained has a double effect. On the one hand, it contributes to logical memorizing and retention (since words may be learnt in clusters, and not individually); on the other, when the learner is aware of word-formation processes he or she is better prepared to decode and encode new words, which is precisely what will occur in autonomous learning processes.

X. By Way of Conclusion

In this piece I have briefly considered an essential aspect of L2 pedagogy by relating the central place of the English word-formation processes in EFL/ESL learning and teaching to the L2 curriculum. In essence, learning of word-formation mechanisms and use in academic contexts is where a student's EFL/ESL 'course of study' interacts with and is fundamental to his or her present and future 'course of life'. In the previous sections, arguments have been given in favour or the inclusion of word-formation mechanisms in L2 teaching. Thus, we have held that knowing word-formation rules and mechanisms is basic for the development of autonomous and independent learners, especially concerning vocabulary production, creativity, understanding and even proficiency. One might conclude that the dropout of word-formation mechanisms (processes) is a defective procedure. These mechanisms are an essential aspect of the English language that no teaching approach could bear neglecting them. Hence, it is very possible that one of the main reasons for the poor performance in English among Arab EFL learners could be found in their English curriculum that does not include teaching the English word formation which is usually taken for-granted. In sum, explicit word-formation mechanisms' teaching is an indispensable tool for helping students to acquire vocabulary commensurate with the level of language knowledge they aim to attain. It should be borne in mind that only small amounts of incidental vocabulary learning occur from reading. Moreover, learners are more likely to infer an incorrect meaning of an unknown L2 word in an L2 text when no cue has been given to its meaning. Thereby, and to this end, the content of the textbook 'Action Pack' for teaching EFL should be revised and reevaluated by curriculum planners. What is proposed in this paper is a preliminary evaluative study that may serve as a guide in the planning phase of textbook writing. Word-formation mechanisms are very essential for EFL teaching, therefore, curriculum planners, book writers, designers and English language teachers should attribute much importance to these processes.

As a consequence of all this, we still strongly and firmly hold that, even within communicative approaches, coursebooks and dictionaries should not disregard or neglect language learners' language or rather, second language learners' productions or corpora in order to identify problematic areas. This will make it possible to adopt and adapt contents most effectively to the learners' needs and favour the building up and interiorizing of lexical resources. All this will make learners not only independent and autonomous in their production but also more accurate and proficient in their realizations, which will indeed favour autonomous learning as they become fully aware that they are actually making progresses once outside the school and classroom.

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The Impact of Using Story Maps as Graphic Organizers on Development of Vocabulary Learning of EFL Learners

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***Abstract*—The present study has been an attempt to investigate the impact of using story maps as graphic organizers on developing vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Sixty male and female students, who had scored homogenously in a TOEFL test, participated in this study. Both the control and the experimental groups participated in a vocabulary pre-test. After undergoing a course of 8 sessions of reading short stories, through which story maps were used as post-reading activity in the experimental group and traditional question and answer techniques were used in the control group, both groups took part in a vocabulary post-test. The data analysis revealed a significant difference between the performances of the two groups with the experimental group outperforming the other.**

***Index Terms*—graphic organizers, incidental vocabulary learning, plot, story maps, theme**

I. Introduction

For a long time, literature has not been included in the curriculum of teaching English, since teaching a foreign language has been regarded as a matter of linguistics (Eren, 2004). "In sixties and seventies, in fact, there was a distinct reaction against the use of any literary English at all in the classroom, but now the pendulum has swung the other way …" (Hill, 1994, p.7).

Currently, literature is considered as a promising tool for language learning purposes. Different genres of literature such as novel, drama, poetry, and short story, have been involved into language teaching environments in many different ways. Scholars in the field have proposed various advantages for the use of literature in EFL/ESL classes as: being authentic, increasing motivation, developing cultural/intercultural awareness and globalization, providing intensive/extensive reading practice, developing sociolinguistic/pragmatic knowledge, promoting grammar and vocabulary Knowledge, reinforcing language skills, increasing emotional intelligence (EQ), and fostering critical thinking (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011).

Among different literary texts, short stories have been of great concern by a number of researchers (Egan, 1995; Eren, 2004; Erkaya, 2005; Strodt-Lopez, 1996 etc). Short story is a work of prose fiction which is shorter than the short novel, more restricted in characters and situations (Chang, 2006). A short story is usually concerned with not more than a few effects, problems or themes. In terms of character development, generally, a single aspect of a character's personality undergoes change or is revealed as a result of some incidents, confrontation or conflict. Short stories seem to be the unique literary works can be used in language teaching due to their practical implementation, compact nature and readability in one sitting. They are not broad in scope and have a single effect on the readers (Alagözlü, 2011).

Short stories are neatly organized most of the time, and have common elements that lend themselves to an analysis (Alagözlü, 2011). This analysis can be visualized by graphic organizers which can be manipulated at all stages of teaching reading. Moreover, the use of graphic organizers make the students retrieve the information obtained quite easily, which will support and enhance learning.

In this study the researcher wants to investigate whether using graphic organizers after reading a short story can have any effect on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following question was raised:

○ *Does the use of* graphic organizers *have any significant impact on vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?*

In order to investigate the above mentioned research question, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

○ *Using* graphic organizers *has no significant impact on vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.*

II. Benefits of Using Short Stories

Storytelling is a linguistic activity that is educative because it allows individuals to share their personal understanding with others, thereby creating negotiated transactions (Egan, 1995 & 1999). Using stories can help developing critical thinking, self monitoring, strategic flexibility, and fruitful peer interaction (Strodt-Lopez, 1996). He listed some skills that students can promote through using short stories as follow:

- Using a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic background knowledge in making inferences and supporting them;
- Analyzing the causes of differences in interpretation;
- Challenging and disagreeing harmoniously in English

Erkaya (2005) asserted that through short stories, instructors can teach literary, cultural, and higher-order thinking aspects. However, Erkaya (2005) emphasized that before novice instructors attempt to use short stories in their EFL classes, they should understand the benefits of short stories and plan classes that meet the needs of their students.

Greene (1996) summarized a few characteristics of good stories as follow:

- Having a single theme, clearly defined, so that the reader will not be confused when reading the story.
- Having a well-developed plot.
- Having pleasing sounds and rhythm to be more attractive to the children or teenagers.
- Having believable characters and representing qualities such as good, evil or beauty to make the story clear to the readers.
- Being faithful to source materials
- Having dramatic appeal with a perfectly safe edge of fear and sadness
- Being appropriateness for the listener; stories that are too hard for some age groups to understand could not be good stories to them.

However, Eren (2004) argued that there is no strict rule to determine the length of short-stories. It is the teacher's duty to choose a story short enough to handle within course hours. He believes that the shortness of the text is important because it makes the learners feel they can read, understand and finish something in English, and it will create a sense of achievement and self-confidence.

Hill (1994, p. 15) points out some other basic criteria to be kept in mind while choosing a literary text including:

- the needs and abilities of the students
- the linguistic and stylistic level of the text
- the amount of background information required for a true

Eren (2004) noted that before giving the short-story, the teacher should decide the readability of the text to see if the vocabulary and sentence structure of the short-story is suitable to the level of the students. As students will not understand these sentences and words, they will get bored and not read the work (Eren, 2004). He also adds teachers should choose a short-story with minimized cultural values and attitudes, and explain them before studying the work.

McKay (2001, p. 322) and Rivers (1968, p. 230) point out that students read and enjoy a text if the subject-matter of the text is relevant to their life experience and interests. To them teachers need not select the material from the canons of famous writers, rather they may use short-stories written for teenagers.

Regarding the authenticity of short stories, there are some controversies over the use of graded or simplified materials. Harmer (2001) asserts that simplified books can be used as extensive reading materials. He stated that "Such books succeed because the writers or adaptors work within specific lists of allowed words and grammar; this means that students at the appropriate level can read them with ease and confidence" (p. 210).

Eren (2004) believes that if one of the aims of using short-story in class is to give the students a feeling of achievement and self confidence, simplified or graded materials will not achieve it. This is because the students will be aware of the fact that the text they are reading is not written for native speakers, but for foreign language learners. Therefore, he recommends the use of authentic short-stories.

III. Using Story Maps as Graphic Organizers

A graphic organizer is a diagram or illustration of a written or oral statement. Examples include matrices, hierarchies, and continua (Alagözlü, 2011). By facilitating learning, graphic organizers help develop an understanding of a body of knowledge and explore new information and relationships. They are valuable in having students access prior knowledge and gather new knowledge and information.

Visual organizers can be applied as a pre-teaching and post-teaching strategy for the purpose of introducing or reinforcing the key concepts in a text and how they might be pertinent (Chang, 2006). Visual organizers suffice for organizing students processing of text in both reading and writing. Often these organizers are employed to provide structure to lectures to class discussion (Hill, 1994). Hill further expounds that the visual organizer is usually a teacher-generated cue. To use the visual organizer strategy, the teacher must outline the topic, the main ideas are to be explained, and the essential supporting details are developed. Once the text discussion has progressed over several days, it is advisable to ask students to construct their own organizers or accomplish partially constructed ones. This will allow more passionate student involvement in the learning process. The organizer will become more personalized and less

abstract (Hill, 1994). Therefore, the role of EFL learners has changed from merely the receivers of concepts and information to the creators of visual organizers representing their own thinking processes.

Graphic organizers can help immeasurably in teachers' and students' communication needs (Chang, 2006). The various kinds of visuals have unique qualities that make each type the "right" one to use in certain language-learning contexts.

The structure of short stories is appropriate for a representation through graphic organizers which enable readers to see the various elements of a story graphically and explore visually how they work together. Demonstrating the story elements with graphic organizers might initiate a process of meta-textual thinking (Alagözlü, 2011).

A story map is considered as a kind of graphic organizer which includes "a visual aid that displays the chunks of information to be studied" (Crandall, Jaramillo, Olsen & Peyton, 2002, p. 2). A story map will help students understand the components of the story. Crandall et al.

(2002) describe a story map as follows: "A story map is one example of a graphic organizer. A story map breaks down the components of a story- characters, setting, and dialogue in a series of events or conflicts leading to a resolution-into chunks of text that can help students organize and comprehend the events of the story" p. 2). Crandall et al. (2002) explain the advantages of using graphic organizers as follows:

Graphic organizers can help teachers clarify their instructional goals. Teachers can ask themselves what they want their students to learn and how they can display this information graphically to help their students connect ideas…Discussions might take place as students clarify the connections, clear up misconceptions, and come to consensus on the structure of the map (p. 2).

Using a story map, teacher may encourage his/her students to infer meaning from the text, and is able to develop students' reading and speaking skills (Eren, 2004).

IV. Method

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 100 male and female Iranian intermediate EFL learners with the age range of 16 to 30 at an English institute in Karaj. 60 homogeneous learners; whose scores on the standardized language proficiency test was one standard deviation below and above the mean, participated in the study, and they were assigned to two groups of experimental and control.

B. Instruments

Two kinds of tests were utilized in this study:

1. The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL, 1995 version). This test was administered as a standardized measure to check the homogeneity of subjects in terms of language and also it was used as a criterion to validate teacher-made vocabulary test. This TOEFL test consists of 100 items of three sections of structure and written expressions (40 items), vocabulary (30 items) and reading comprehension (30 items). The reliability of the test, as calculated through KR - 21 measure of internal consistency was found to be (0.88).

2. A teacher-made multiple-choice test of vocabulary, consisting of 38 items. The vocabulary items were taken from the short stories used in the study. This test was used and used as both the pretest and the posttest (within 25 minutes). The test was validated by the researcher using the TOEFL test.

C. Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of this study, the researcher carried out the following procedures:

At first a TOEFL test of 100 multiple choice items was administered to the learners in order to homogenize them. 60 students, whose scores was one standard deviation below and above the mean, were selected and divided into two groups. In order to control the teacher variable, both groups were taught by the same teacher. After that a pre-test of 38 multiple choice vocabulary items, was administered to both the experimental and control groups. The reliability of the test was calculated through KR-21 formula (r = 0.76). Then an 8-session course of instruction began. This course lasted for a month (two sessions per week). For the best use of the allocated time, the students in both groups had to read the text before the class meeting. In this study 8 short stories were used by the researcher, and each short story was practiced within 45 minute classroom period. The researcher tried to select short stories which seemed to be interesting to the learners and had enough length to be covered during the time limit of the class sessions. One sample of the short stories used by the researcher (*Thank You ma'am* by Langston Hughes) and its related story map is provided in the Appendices of this paper (Appendix A and Appendix B).

Before reading the text in class, in both groups, the teacher gave very brief information about the writer in order that the students could see the writer in the context of her/his time. After the information about the writer, as pre-reading activities, the teacher asked some questions about daily life of the students which are related to the subject matter of the short story. After the pre-reading activities, while reading the text in class, the students might find some sentences long or difficult to understand. In this case, the teacher helped the students, either by paraphrasing or acting out or drawing.

The difference between the procedures used for two groups was in the post reading step during which for the experimental group the teacher made use of a graphic organizer in the form of a story map. As explained earlier, "a

story map breaks down the components of a story- characters, setting, and dialogue in a series of events or conflicts leading to a resolution-into chunks of text that can help students organize and comprehend the events of the story" (Crandall et al., 2002, p. 2). Using a story map, teacher encouraged her students to infer meaning from the text. Asking suitable questions the teacher helped students to fill the boxes in the organizer. So, the students have to infer answers to these questions from the work.

After reading the story the learners in the control group were given a set of factual questions, based on the story, whose answers could be find in the text. Then the answers to the questions were checked by the teacher and the points of disagreement were discussed by the learners.

At the end of the course, students in the control and experimental groups were given the 38 item vocabulary test the same as pre-test. To examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups, a t-test was run.

V. Data Analysis

After administration of the TOEFL test those participants who scored within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the main study. The results are illustrated in Table1.

TABLE 1.
DEACRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PROICIENCY TEST

N	Mean	SD	Acceptable Range
100	30.68	9.263	[21.417 - 39.943]

After administering the pre-test, for the experimental group (M = 14.36 out of 40, SD = 3.89), and for the control group (M = 12.59 out of 40, SD = 4.37). Analyzing the data of the post-test showed that for the experimental group (M = 30.66, SD = 3.26), and for the control group (M = 20.67, SD = 4.54). Tables 2 and Table3 represents the summarized data for the pre-test and post-test respectively.

TABLE 2.
SUMMARIZED DATA FOR THE PRE-TEST

Statistical Data	Control Group	Experimental Group
Number of Subjects	30	30
Mean	12.59	14.36
Variance	19.10	15.14
SD	4.37	3.89

TABLE 3.
SUMMARISED DATA FOR THE POST-TEST

Statistical Data	Control Group	Experimental Group
Number of Subjects	30	30
Mean	20.67	30.66
Variance	20.65	10.67
SD	4.54	3.26

The difference between the mean scores of the two groups shows that there has been a kind of difference between the performances of the two groups in learning vocabulary. In order to see whether this difference is statistically significant the researcher used the t-test formula.

VI. Results and Discussion

In order to test the hypothesis through *t*-test, first the homogeneity of the variances was checked through an F test. The value of F (58.60) = 7.52 > 0.05 was statistically significant. Therefore variances were not homogenous and the *t* separate formula was used. By using this formula *t*sep was calculated to be 4.38. Then the two parameters of the *t*-observed and *t*-critical were compared. The results are illustrated in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
T-VALUES

t-critical	Alpha level	Degree of freedom	*t*-observed
1.68	0.05	48	4.38

As shown in the table above, the *t*-observed = 4.40, p = 0.05 (one tailed), d = 48, and the *t*-critical = 1.65. Thus the *t*-observed value was greater than the *t*-critical value meaning that there was a statistically significant difference between the performances of the two groups and subjects, who received vocabulary instruction through cooperative tasks, outperformed the control group.

The central question guiding the study was whether or not the use of story maps as advance organizers in the language classroom has any impact on vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. Having done all the necessary data

analysis, the results of the study provided support for the value of story maps as effective tools for incidental learning of vocabulary.

VII. Conclusion

The story making elements in a short story like plot, characters, conflict, climax, and resolution can be easily recognized and demonstrated by graphic organizers, which are effective visual aids that arrange essential aspects of an idea or topic into a pattern using labels (Alagözlü, 2011).

Teaching short stories via graphic organizers make students to think of short stories as literary texts that are argumentative in nature. Each aspect of a short story (facts, relationships, properties, conflict, storyline plot, and characters) can be easily visualized through the use of graphic organizers. Graphic organizers help students recall the information in the text to be used for claims, arguments, evidence, and assumptions on which they will probably construct their reasoning (Alagözlü, 2011). According to him the use of graphic organizers in teaching short stories might be effectively used especially at post reading stage, once the story has been read and comprehended.

Incidental vocabulary learning occurs 'when the learners are required to perform a task involving the processing of some information without being told in advance that they will be tested afterwards on their recall of the information' (Laufer & Hulstijn , 2001, p. 10).

Using story maps as graphic organizers for understanding short stories was found to be of great importance to enhance the learners' incidental vocabulary learning. By asking suitable questions the teacher helped students to fill the boxes in the organizer. So, the students have to infer answers to these questions from the short story. A story map helps students understand the components of the story more clearly by breaking down the components of a story- characters, setting, and dialogue in a series of events or conflicts. This will help students organize and comprehend the events of the story. In this way incidental learning of vocabulary occurs when the students focus on comprehending the text.

It seems that students in the experimental group get more involved in the story than the students in the control group. Learners in the control group can find the answers in the text without any deep understanding of the story. There are less opportunities for negotiation of meaning among them. On the other hand, in the experimental group learners need to understand the story more deeply in order to be able to fill in the organizer. Therefore, as the results of this study showed, greater amount of incidental learning of vocabulary occurred in the learners in the experimental group.

Appendix (A)

Thank You ma'am
By Langston Hughes

She was a large woman with a large purse that had everything in it but hammer and nails. It had a long strap, and she carried it slung across her shoulder. It was about eleven o'clock at night, and she was walking alone, when a boy ran up behind her and tried to snatch her purse. The strap broke with the single tug the boy gave it from behind. But the boy's weight and the weight of the purse combined caused him to lose his balance so, intsead of taking off full blast as he had hoped, the boy fell on his back on the sidewalk, and his legs flew up. the large woman simply turned around and kicked him right square in his blue-jeaned sitter. Then she reached down, picked the boy up by his shirt front, and shook him until his teeth rattled.

After that the woman said, "Pick up my pocketbook, boy, and give it here." She still held him. But she bent down enough to permit him to stoop and pick up her purse. Then she said, "Now ain't you ashamed of yourself?"

Firmly gripped by his shirt front, the boy said, "Yes'm."

The woman said, "What did you want to do it for?"

The boy said, "I didn't aim to."

She said, "You a lie!"

By that time two or three people passed, stopped, turned to look, and some stood watching.

"If I turn you loose, will you run?" asked the woman.

"Yes'm," said the boy.

"Then I won't turn you loose," said the woman. She did not release him.

"I'm very sorry, lady, I'm sorry," whispered the boy.

"Um-hum! And your face is dirty. I got a great mind to wash your face for you. Ain't you got nobody home to tell you to wash your face?"

"No'm," said the boy.

"Then it will get washed this evening," said the large woman starting up the street, dragging the frightened boy behind her.

He looked as if he were fourteen or fifteen, frail and willow-wild, in tennis shoes and blue jeans.

The woman said, "You ought to be my son. I would teach you right from wrong. Least I can do right now is to wash your face. Are you hungry?"

"No'm," said the being dragged boy. "I just want you to turn me loose."

"Was I bothering *you* when I turned that corner?" asked the woman.

"No'm."

"But you put yourself in contact with me," said the woman. "If you think that that contact is not going to last awhile, you got another thought coming. When I get through with you, sir, you are going to remember Mrs. Luella Bates Washington Jones."

Sweat popped out on the boy's face and he began to struggle. Mrs. Jones stopped, jerked him around in front of her, put a half-nelson about his neck, and continued to drag him up the street. When she got to her door, she dragged the boy inside, down a hall, and into a large kitchenette-furnished room at the rear of the house. She switched on the light and left the door open. The boy could hear other roomers laughing and talking in the large house. Some of their doors were open, too, so he knew he and the woman were not alone. The woman still had him by the neck in the middle of her room.

She said, "What is your name?"

"Roger," answered the boy.

"Then, Roger, you go to that sink and wash your face," said the woman, whereupon she turned him loose—at last. Roger looked at the door—looked at the woman—looked at the door—*and went to the sink.*

Let the water run until it gets warm," she said. "Here's a clean towel."

"You gonna take me to jail?" asked the boy, bending over the sink.

"Not with that face, I would not take you anywhere," said the woman. "Here I am trying to get home to cook me a bite to eat and you snatch my pocketbook! Maybe, you ain't been to your supper either, late as it be. Have you?"

"There's nobody home at my house," said the boy.

"Then we'll eat," said the woman, "I believe you're hungry—or been hungry—to try to snatch my pocketbook."

"I wanted a pair of blue suede shoes," said the boy.

"Well, you didn't have to snatch *my* pocketbook to get some suede shoes," said Mrs. Luella Bates Washington Jones. "You could of asked me."

"M'am?"

The water dripping from his face, the boy looked at her. There was a long pause. A very long pause. After he had dried his face and not knowing what else to do dried it again, the boy turned around, wondering what next. The door was open. He could make a dash for it down the hall. He could run, run, run, run, *run!*

The woman was sitting on the day-bed. After a while she said, "I were young once and I wanted things I could not get."

There was another long pause. The boy's mouth opened. Then he frowned, but not knowing he frowned.

The woman said, "Um-hum! You thought I was going to say *but*, didn't you? You thought I was going to say, *but I didn't snatch people's pocketbooks*. Well, I wasn't going to say that." Pause. Silence. "I have done things, too, which I would not tell you, son—neither tell God, if he didn't already know. So you set down while I fix us something to eat. You might run that comb through your hair so you will look presentable."

In another corner of the room behind a screen was a gas plate and an icebox. Mrs. Jones got up and went behind the screen. The woman did not watch the boy to see if he was going to run now, nor did she watch her purse which she left behind her on the day-bed. But the boy took care to sit on the far side of the room where he thought she could easily see him out of the corner of her eye, if she wanted to. He did not trust the woman *not* to trust him. And he did not want to be mistrusted now.

"Do you need somebody to go to the store," asked the boy, "maybe to get some milk or something?"

"Don't believe I do," said the woman, "unless you just want sweet milk yourself. I was going to make cocoa out of this canned milk I got here."

"That will be fine," said the boy.

She heated some lima beans and ham she had in the icebox, made the cocoa, and set the table. The woman did not ask the boy anything about where he lived, or his folks, or anything else that would embarrass him. Instead, as they ate, she told him about her job in a hotel beauty-shop that stayed open late, what the work was like, and how all kinds of women came in and out, blondes, red-heads, and Spanish. Then she cut him a half of her ten-cent cake.

"Eat some more, son," she said.

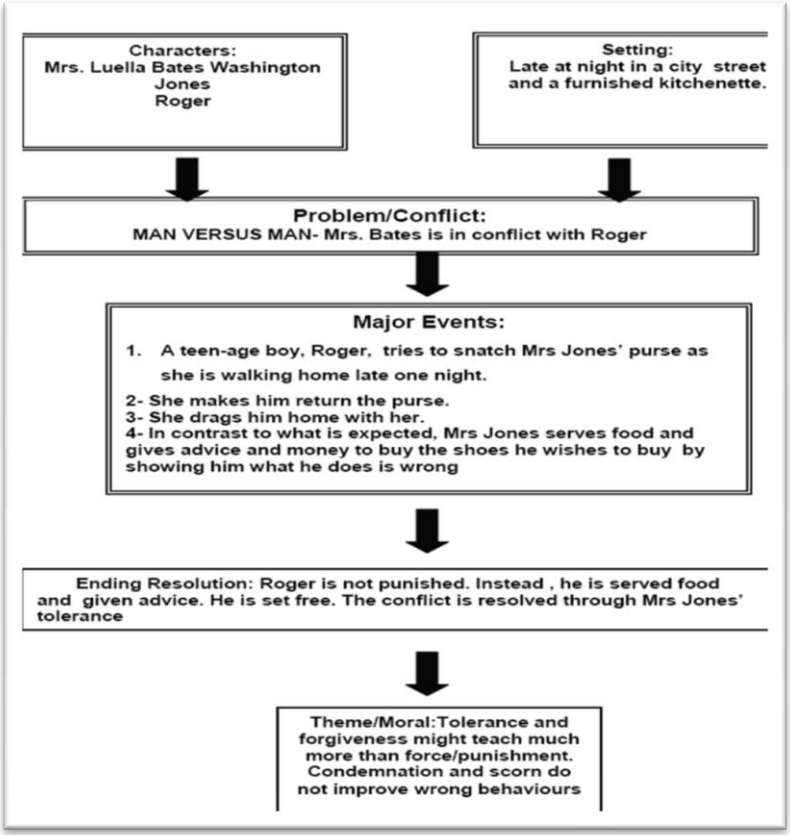
When they were finished eating she got up and said, "Now, here, take this ten dollars and buy yourself some blue suede shoes. And next time, do not make the mistake of latching onto *my* pocketbook *nor nobody else's*—because shoes come by devilish like that will burn your feet. I got to get my rest now. But I wish you would behave yourself, son, from here on in."

She led him down the hall to the front door and opened it. "Good-night! Behave yourself, boy!" she said, looking out into the street.

The boy wanted to say something else other than "Thank you, m'am" to Mrs. Luella Bates Washington Jones, but he couldn't do so as he turned at the barren stoop and looked back at the large woman in the door. He barely managed to say "Thank you" before she shut the door. And he never saw her again.

APPENDIX (B)

Story Map of Thank You ma'am by Langston Hughes (As cited in Alagözlü, 2011, p. 38)



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Fostering Critical Thinking through Socrates' Questioning in Iranian Language Institutes

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***Abstract*—Critical thinking is a western concept and as its history points out developed and flourished in the western world because the conditions were favorable. Developing critical thinking in non-western societies cannot be pursued unless the local exigencies are carefully considered. Fostering critical thinking in Iran as an Islamic country has its own obstacles and problems. Considering such limitations, this paper tries to offer practical ideas and viable strategies for developing and actualizing critical thinking through Socratic Questioning in Iranian language institutes based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy and Paul's Taxonomy of questions. The main premise is: Questions are not merely meant to ask, but they have teaching potentiality. Through some class activities such as free discussions, active reading, analytical writing, and dynamic assessment, the teachers can cultivate critical thinking ability in the students. As the title of the article depicts, the interrelationship of three main themes is to be investigated: (1) critical thinking, (2) Socratic Questioning, and (3) Iranian language institutes. First, each of these three themes is treated respectively and then the mechanics of developing this skill in language institutes in Iran would be discussed.**

***Index Terms*—analytical writing, Bloom's revised taxonomy, critical thinking, dynamic assessment, Paul's taxonomy of questions, Socratic questioning**

I. Introduction

Dewey (1910) and Edward de Bono (1976), among so many educationalists, declared the aim of education is to teach young people to think. Critical thinking is a way to take charge of our thinking. Although critical thinking has a long history in the Western world, it is almost a new concept in most Eastern societies including Iran. There are few teachers and students who, when asked what they know about critical thinking or Socratic Questioning, have a vivid picture of these themes. This paper intends to discuss, as its title suggests, the issue of fostering critical thinking by using the potentiality of Socratic Dialectic in an Iranian context, namely language institutes. The interrelationships of three main themes are, therefore, to be investigated in this paper: (1) Critical Thinking, (2) Socratic Method, and (3) Iranian Language Institutes. Initially it would be logical to discuss these three themes respectively, and then delve into the mechanics of fostering critical thinking in Language institutes and recommend some techniques and strategies to enable the teacher and the students to implement critical thinking in Iranian language classrooms.

II. Critical Thinking

Critical thinking has been defined and interpreted differently by different scholars and thinkers. Like many other concepts and constructs, there is no consensus on its definition. Richard Paul (1988) construes critical thinking as the ability to reach sound conclusions based on observation and information. Beyer (1983) describes critical thinking as assessing the authenticity, accuracy, and worth of knowledge, claims, beliefs, or arguments. Stephan Norris (1985) maintains that it helps students apply what they already know to evaluate their own thinking. Some scholars such as Paul (1987) believe constructs such as critical thinking should not be subjected to a one-line definition as such a definition would be limiting. In order to escape the limitations of a single definition it would be more desirable to create a framework which consists of different perspectives including alternative definitions. Wright (2002) on the other hand, emphasizes the importance of having a well thought out definition of critical thinking and maintains that when we define critical thinking we try to be clear about what we want to do; however, our working definition should include the core meaning of the original concepts and what most people mean by the term. This paper has no intention to stick to a single definition of critical thinking. Instead, the idea of critical thinking as a complex concept would be investigated by considering a variety of dimensions. Nonetheless, as the main focus of the paper is to introduce tactics and strategies to be used in Iranian language institutes to promote critical thinking through Socratic Questioning, those aspects of critical thinking which can be fostered through Socratic Method would be emphasized more. In order to make

the discussion more concrete, it would be better to think of the main features of a critical thinker to present a holistic view of this general term. Critical thinkers:

- systematically monitor their thoughts,
- do not simply memorize a body of knowledge and use the basic tools of disciplined reasoning into every subject they study,
- ask deep and thought-provoking questions,
- examine different propositions which are offered for acceptance to find out whether they correspond to reality or not,
- gather pertinent information with great care and precision,
- try to understand the new information well enough to apply it to new situations,
- are not easily manipulated,
- use the strategies of active learning,
- try to develop higher order thinking,
- recognize unstated assumptions and values,
- apply their knowledge to new situations,
- comprehend and use language with clarity and accuracy,
- make connections among diverse pieces of information,
- challenge unexamined assumptions, beliefs, and values,
- do not render a judgment before considering all the facts and the relevant data,
- do not merely memorize discrete pieces of information,
- can distinguish those beliefs that are reasonable and logical from those which lack adequate evidence or rational foundation,

However, one should be careful not to misjudge people regarding being a critical thinker or not. Having explicit knowledge of what critical thinking is should not be the only criterion to call a person a critical thinker. Obviously there are people who apply some strategies of critical thinking, but may not be able to discuss explicitly what is meant by critical thinking. On the other hand, there are people who know what critical thinking is in theory, but do not implement it in practice. For the latter group, it is necessary to make critical thinking intuitive. They are like people who know the meaning of Democracy, but do not behave democratically in their daily lives.

A short history of Critical Thinking

Evidently the Greek philosopher Socrates set the agenda for critical thinking. He believed no idea can be taught directly, and tried to educate his students through questioning. He helped his students reach a deep level of understanding and thinking through questioning the underlying beliefs and assumptions. Socratic method of instruction required the students to consider different perspectives. The importance of this method was its capability in stimulating the students' thinking. Socrates pointed out how educative good and deep questions can be, and how such questions can lead to deeper thought. His method of questioning is known as "Socratic Questioning" and is the best known critical thinking teaching strategy. In the Renaissance (15^{th} and 16^{th} centuries) a flood of scholars began to think critically about religion, art, society, human nature, law, and freedom. Francis Bacon in "The Advancement of Learning" concentrated on the way people misused their minds and maintained that mind should not be left with its own tendencies. He laid the foundations for the scientific approach and modern science. Another text in critical thinking (Rules for the direction of the mind) was written by Descartes about fifty years later. He argued for the importance of disciplined mind and well-based thinking. Descartes developed a method of critical thought based on the principles of systematic doubt. He believed every part of thinking should be questioned, doubted, and tested. Thomas Moore introduced a model called Utopia in which every domain of the world was subject to critique. Machiavelli laid the foundations for critical political thought. Hobbes and Locke tried to investigate human critical mind to open up new vistas of learning.

Is Critical Thinking teachable?

According to Walsh and Paul (1988) critical thinking is not the same as intelligence and does not necessarily develop with maturity. It must be taught to be improved. Peters (1967, cited in Garrison, 1991) argues that there is no innate tendency to think critically, neither is it easy to acquire it. On the whole there are two approaches to the idea of teaching critical thinking, the *process approach* and the *content approach*. Process approach is in favor of dealing with critical thinking as a separate and independent course while content approach votes for teaching it within established courses. Those who support the process view (e.g., Lipman, 1988) believe critical thinking is an enabling discipline and deserve separate instruction. Advocates of the content approach, on the other hand, maintain that teaching such cognitive skills is more effective provided the instruction is given in context (Ashton 1988). Some scholars such as Presseisen (1988) support a unified view and think critical thinking can be taught more effectively if the two approaches are combined.

III. Socratic Method

Socrates has been recognized as one of the founders of western philosophy. He innovated a method of instruction based on questioning. Socratic questioning was based on a series of organized and systematic questions which helped the students gain awareness towards their ignorance, misconceptions, wrong assumptions, and false conclusions. This

model of instruction does not rely on memorizing the discrete pieces of information a teacher lectures or a textbook presents. In this model questions are asked for which there are no definitive answers, in fact the questioner does not seek such answers. The philosophy behind this method is to stimulate the thinking. According to Sigel (1979) Socratic enquiry serves the cause of cognitive development because they activate representational thought. Socratic dialectic is neither a meandering chat nor recitation-style teaching in which the teacher asks a question, the student gives an answer and the teacher finally offers a feedback through his or her final remark. Socrates believed the true vocation of a teacher is to help the learners to collect their thoughts and build new understanding from previous knowledge. Through questioning, sometimes, we notice people cannot rationally justify their beliefs. Socratic dialectic is an effective tool to help people distinguish reasonable and logical beliefs from irrational and unfounded beliefs. Through questioning the students can be led to new discoveries, so the function of questions is not limited to assessing the amount of knowledge obtained but creating new levels of understanding, to uncover contradictions. In Socratic Method teachers are expected to abandon their role as deliverer of the course content and engage the students with the material

Gunter, Estes, and Mintz (2010) argue that the success of a classroom discussion depends on the kinds of questions that teachers prepare. They assert that "good questions are educative – they provide the opportunity for deeper thought" (p.192). Based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy and Paul's Taxonomy of Socratic Questions, Gunter et al try to introduce different types of questions teachers can ask in order to not only evaluate and assess students' knowledge but also raise their level of understanding. Bloom's Taxonomy contains six types of questioning for six cognitive levels:

1. Remembering questions which ask students to recall what they have learned,
2. Understanding questions which ask students to explain what they have learned,
3. Applying questions which ask students to use new learning in other familiar situations,
4. Analyzing questions which ask students to break what they have learned into its parts and explore the relationships among them,
5. Evaluative questions which ask students to render a judgment,
6. Creating questions which ask students to generate new ways of thinking about issues and subjects,

Paul's Taxonomy categorizes Socratic questions into six types as:

1. Questions for clarification:	• Why do you say that? • How does this relate to our discussion?
2. Questions that probe assumptions:	• What could we assume instead? • How can you verify or disapprove that assumption?
3. Questions that probe reasons and evidence:	• What would be an example? • What is....analogous to? • What do you think causes this to happen.? Why?
4. Questions about Viewpoints and Perspectives:	• What would be an alternative? • Would you explain why it is necessary or beneficial, and who benefits? • Why is it the best? • What are the strengths and weaknesses of...? • How are...and ...similar? • What is a counterargument for...?
5. Questions that probe implications and consequences:	• What generalizations can you make? • What are the consequences of that assumption? • What are you implying? • How does...affect...? • How does...tie in with what we learned before?

IV. Iranian Language Institutes

In Iran Ministry of Education accredits, supervises, and monitors language institutes. Though different types of language courses for the instruction of different languages are offered, the main language being instructed is English and students from different age groups attend English language courses. The majority of these students take English conversation courses, though, there are students whose aim is to pass IELTS or TOEFL tests, need to improve their English to be ready for school and university entrance exams, or need to improve their English for job purposes. Each year a flood of enthusiasts with a variety of motives attend different courses in order to enhance their English (or any other foreign language).

Iran is an Islamic country and the majority of people are Muslims who respect and follow the instructions of the Holy Quran. Although several times in this holy book it is mentioned that there are "*signs for people who think deeply*" (Quran: Chap. 16, verse 69; Chap.39, verse 42; Chap. 45, 13) and Quran encourages people to listen to different sayings and follow the best (" *Give good tidings to My servants who listen to speech and follow the best of it, those are the ones*

Allah has guided and those are people of understanding". Chap. 39 verse 18) people who are proud of their religion are rarely optimistic towards Western values. In spite of the fact that the above-mentioned verses, quoted from Quran, are obviously an invitation to be a critical thinker, questioning the beliefs and values is considered an unforgivable sin and the person who commits this, would be accused of impugning the values and infusing doubts. Following the Islamic revolution in 1979, Iran adopted an Islamic version of government which is so strict with what is considered to be Islamic laws. It is advisable to approach the issue of critical thinking with great care and understanding. It is never possible to question the beliefs and values in the name of fostering critical thinking. So a teacher who decides to develop critical thinking among the students can discuss issues which do not question the religious or political matters. If the point is to teach the fundamentals of critical thinking, then there are other less threatening topics which are less hazardous. The students should learn to develop a habit of not accepting everything unless there are enough evidence, learn to familiarize themselves with conflicting views, learn not to base their actions on personal feelings, learn to ask deep questions, and learn to live with uncertainty. They should learn that knowledge is always subject to change and the truth is not necessarily contained in the textbook. They should learn that merely memorizing the facts is a trivial pursuit and knowing facts requires thought. The point is to familiarize the students with the merits of critical thinking. Once they make a habit of being a critical thinker they will ask deep questions about everything. Besides the teacher should be cautious not to create tensions in the classroom. As Senior (2006) warns us "clashes between value systems, even between students from the same cultural background can sometimes come to the fore in language classroom".

Another issue which is worth considering is the fact that Iranian students are not familiar with the concept of critical thinking the way it was prominently developed in the 1980s, which, according to Feuerstein (1999), asserts schools should be less concerned with imparting information and requiring the memorization of empirical data. The educational system, in Iran, is more or less traditional. In this didactic system teachers provide explanations on the content of the course books and students are expected to memorize the materials and finally those who can recall more information get better grades. A simple interview with students and teachers depicts this truth. As a matter of fact there is no specific course in any level to familiarize students with critical thinking. Based on the interviews I had with language teachers and learners in different language institutes I noticed both groups were unaware of the role of questions to teach and they thought of questions as evaluative tools rather than a means to instruct. The type of the questions being used were mostly questions which target the memorized information.

V. Actualization of Critical Thinking

Learning a second language by itself means learning to think and feel in another way because new horizons will be in front of the learners and they are no longer confined to think and feel within the limitations of the first language (Brown, 2007). One can conclude that learning a second language, per se, is a step forward to be a critical thinker as the learner gets access to new ways of thinking and seeing the world. In this way, courses to teach second or foreign languages are great opportunities for learners to enhance critical thinking skills. If critical thinking means looking at the world from different perspectives, so learning a foreign language provides the learners with this capability.

However, this is not the whole story. One cannot easily conclude that learning English will necessarily instill, for example, democratic values. As Karmani (2005) argues those who implemented 9/11 attacks were so proficient in English, and their attack would have been inconceivable if they had not known English. They used not only American planes to hit their targets, but also American English.

Considering the limitations of fostering critical thinking in Iran, the teacher has to embark on this duty with great care and full attention. Being familiar with different types of activities which promote critical thinking in L2 classrooms, the teachers provide the opportunity for the learners to develop their thinking and learning. There are some techniques and class activities which the teacher can resort to, in order to actualize critical thinking in the L2 learners.

Active Reading: Students should be encouraged to interact with the reading material instead of reading passively. Of course there are students who underline or highlight the text they are reading, but that is not enough. Active learners comment on what they read, raise questions, and think about what they read. Students should learn not only the information about what they read, but also learn to think about the subject. Being familiar with Socratic Questioning causes the students to raise deep questions about the materials they read. The students are no longer passive receptors into which teachers deposit concepts and information. The teacher should first raise the L2 learners' awareness toward various kinds of questions, based on Paul's Taxonomy, and then ask students to read a text and write questions. Asking comprehension questions which transcend memorization and encourage the learners to think profoundly, is one way to actualize critical thinking in the classroom.

Free Discussions: According to Dillon (1994) discussion is a particular form of group interaction where members join together in order to address a question of common concern. Ur (1981) argues that although the main aim of a discussion in a foreign language course may be efficient fluency practice, it can help the students to participate constructively and cooperatively in a discussion. This involves logical thought and debating skills as well. When students share their views with their teacher, it is the best time to identify the misconceptions and through Socratic Questioning raise their awareness. During the course of discussion the teacher has the opportunity to emphasize the need for all data used in reasoning to be reinterpreted, how inferences are made and the way wrong assumptions which people take them for granted can deceive them. Also, teachers should empower the students to distinguish facts from

opinions, raw data from interpretations of the data. Sensitizing the students to the inferences they make and to assumptions that underlie their thinking enables them to gain command over their thinking. Students learn to weigh evidence and analyze ideas even if they run contrary to deeply held views. Students are provided with the chance to develop metacognitive skills as they receive feedback on their thoughts and the thoughts of their peers.

Analytic Writing: Analytical writing tests critical thinking and analytical writing. It assesses learners' ability to articulate and support complex ideas, construct and evaluate arguments, and sustain a focused and coherent discussion. It does not assess specific content knowledge. A teacher who is committed to teach critical thinking to students asks them to go beyond Descriptive writing in which ideas are repeated towards Analytic writing where ideas are explained, critiqued, evaluated, and applied. Having Socratic method of questioning in mind will foster this type of writing.

Dynamic Assessment: According to Rod Ellis (2008) dynamic assessment refers to a mode of assessment in which the learner's performance is modified during assessment itself. This type of assessment is in line with Socratic Method in which questions led the student to the answer. In addition to this type of assessment, teachers who are familiar with Paul and Bloom's taxonomies of questions are expected to evaluate their students and assess their ability, knowledge and or understanding not only through questions which merely target memorized materials, but also through evaluative, analyzing, applying, creating, and understanding questions as well. Familiarity with Socratic method and the spectrum of questions leads us to this objective.

VI. Conclusion

In this article, the main obstacles for developing and actualizing critical thinking skills in an Iranian context was discussed. It was pointed out that the educational system in Iran is in dire need of becoming familiarized with Socratic Method of questioning to improve and detach from the current memorization based instruction and learning. Paul's taxonomy of questions and Bloom's taxonomy of questions were introduced as two models for categorizing questions. Iranian language institutes were chosen for implementing the classroom techniques and activities. Four specific classroom activities namely Free discussions, Active Reading, Analytical writing, and Dynamic Assessment were introduced as having the potentiality to foster critical thinking in Iranian EFL learners.

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Evaluative Criteria of an English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist

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***Abstract*—Checklists are instruments that help teachers or researchers in the area of English Language Teaching (ELT) to evaluate teaching-learning materials like textbooks. Several checklists are available in the literature, most of which lack validity. The paper discusses the results of a survey that investigated a group of English as a Second Language (ESL) experts' (n=207) views on a checklist developed by the present researchers. The results showed an equal level of importance for all the items of the checklist. Additionally, based on the findings of factor analysis, two items were removed from the checklist. The study offers useful implications for ELT practitioners and researchers. Further research is necessary to field test the checklist for its validity and reliability.**

***Index Terms*—English language teaching material evaluation, textbook evaluation checklists**

I. Introduction

The textbook is one of the crucial factors in determining the learners' success in language courses. Teachers or curriculum developers, therefore, should select this teaching material carefully. Checklists are often used by experts in evaluating and selecting textbooks. Evaluation is made easier, more objective and valid when it is based on a reliable instrument. Most checklists available in the literature lack the expected validity or reliability (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010). This necessitates the need for developing a checklist that is of high validity in terms of the construct domain of its evaluative criteria, that accounts for the consistency of the scores resulting from its items, and that is economical.

This study presents part of a project, the objective of which was to develop the English Language Teaching Textbook Evaluation Checklist (ELT-TEC). The project commenced by a review of the available instruments (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010). In the light of the evaluative criteria in the available well-established checklists, the researchers developed a tentative checklist (Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, & Nimehchisalem, 2011). This was followed by a qualitative study in which a focus group, including six ELT experts, helped the researchers enhance the clarity and inclusiveness of the checklist (Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011). Parallel with the focus group, a survey of a group of English as a Second Language (ESL) experts' views on the tentative checklist was conducted. The present paper reports the findings of this survey.

In developing checklists, two important matters stand out. One of them is determining the evaluative criteria that constitute the main skeleton o of any checklist and according to which textbooks are evaluated. The other crucial step is to decide on the level of importance or 'weight' of each criterion. This paper was mainly concerned with the second issue. With regard to their weightage, checklists may be of equal-weight or optimal-weight schemes. In an equal-weight scheme equal weights are assigned to each criterion whereas in an optimal-weight scheme different weights are assigned to each criterion. Most checklists available in the literature follow an equal weight scheme.

II. Objectives and Research Questions

The objective of the study was to determine the degree of importance of each section alongside its related sub-categories. The study also sought to test the practical significance of each item. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the degree of importance of each section and sub-category of the checklist?
2. Which items should be included in the final checklist?

III. Method

Quantitative method was used for collecting and analyzing the data. This section discusses the sample, instrument, and data analysis method used in the study.

A. Sample

The sample included 207 English language teachers or lecturers (72.5% female, aged between 20 and 67) in Malaysia.

B. Instrument

The instrument that was administered was a revised version of the tentative checklist for textbook evaluation (Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, & Nimehchisalem, 2011). As presented in Appendix I, the checklist was converted into a 5-scale Likert style questionnaire which consisted of two parts. The first part elicited demographic information, like the respondents' gender, age, level of education, teaching context, as well as teaching experience. It also inquired whether the respondents had experienced any workshops related to textbook evaluation or selection and whether they had already been involved in textbooks evaluation or selection.

The second part presented the checklist to the respondents and asked them to read and rate the importance of each item from 0 (for unimportant) to 4 (very important). The respondents were told that they could add or delete sections, sub-categories, or items based on their own judgement. The second part of the questionnaire also provided two additional columns in front of each section, sub-category or item. In the first column, they could reword any part of this section or comment on it whenever they regarded it fit. The 'reword' and 'comment' columns would enable the researchers to collect some more qualitative data to support the findings or the focus group study (Mukundan et al., 2011).

C. Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed using SPSS version 16. Descriptive statistics and Exploratory Factor Analysis were used for analyzing the data. Factor analysis can indicate how much variance is explained by each factor, or in the case of the present study, each sub-category (e.g., methodology, suitability to learners, physical and utilitarian attributes, etc.). Moreover, it can help instrument developers in grouping several items under a limited number of categories (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Such an application can prove very useful in developing instruments since it can help developers come up with a more economical instrument by collapsing certain components.

IV. Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics related to the demographics of the respondents (n=207), who were 72.5% females, aged between 20 and 67.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULTS OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic feature	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	57	27.5
	Female	150	72.5
Age	20-35 years of age	112	54.1
	36-50 years of age	83	40.1
	51-67 years of age	12	5.8
Level of education	Diploma	20	9.7
	BA	107	51.7
	MA	75	36.2
	PhD	5	2.4
Teaching context	School	83	40.1
	Language institute	25	12.1
	University	99	47.8
Teaching experience	1-5 years (low)	82	39.6
	6-15 (moderate)	71	34.3
	16-35 (high)	54	26.1

As for their level of education, more than half of the respondents (57.7%) held a bachelor degree (57.7%). The remaining part had a diploma (9.7%), master degree (36.2%), or PhD (2.4%). Most of the respondents taught at university (47.8%). Another large proportion (40.1%) of the respondents comprised school teachers. Language institute instructors constituted the smallest group (12.1%). The teaching experience of the respondents ranged between 1 and 35 years, with a majority (39.6%) having a low and a minority (26.1%) having a high teaching experience.

The questionnaire was administered to the respondents. The survey resulted in quantitative data that were analyzed using descriptive statistics and factor analysis methods, the results of which are discussed in this section. In order to answer the first research question; that is, the importance of each criterion, the mean and percentage of each criterion as rated by the respondents were calculated (Table 2).

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULTS FOR THE IMPORTANCE OF CRITERIA

No	Criteria	n	Sum	Mean	Std.*	%
1.	The book in relation to syllabus	207	659	3.18	.73	7.8
2.	Methodology	207	639	3.09	.65	7.6
3.	Suitability to learners	207	640	3.09	.68	7.6
4.	Physical and utilitarian attributes	207	626	3.02	.64	7.4
5.	Supplementary materials	207	651	3.15	.79	7.7
6.	Listening	207	642	3.10	.75	7.6
7.	Speaking	207	661.5	3.19	.72	7.8
8.	Reading	207	655	3.16	.73	7.8
9.	Writing	207	651.5	3.15	.79	7.7
10.	Vocabulary	207	662	3.20	.66	7.9
11.	Grammar	207	645	3.12	.66	7.7
12.	Pronunciation	207	636	3.07	.72	7.6
13.	Exercises	207	656	3.17	.70	7.8

*Std.: Standard deviation

The results are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 207). As it can be observed from the table, 'vocabulary' was rated as the most important (3.2±.66) and 'physical and utilitarian attributes' as the least important (3.02±.64) criteria. This would mean a range of 7.4% and 7.9%; that is, an inconsiderable difference of 0.5% between the variables with the highest and lowest degree of importance. This finding suggests that the respondents regarded all the criteria as either 'important' (3.0) or 'very important' (4.0). Therefore, it is not necessary to assign weights for the criteria in the checklist. Such findings are in line with the literature in which most checklists are of an equal-scheme weight.

Factor analysis was used to analyze the data and provide an answer for the second question, the significance of each item. There are two points that should be considered before using factor analysis, the sample size and strength of inter-correlations among items. The appropriate sample size for factor analysis is a size of 10:1 (or a minimum of 5:1) ratio of respondents to items (Nunnally, 1978). The instrument had 38 items, so a size ranging between 190 and 380 would be appropriate for this study. The sample size of the present study, 207, falls within this range and is therefore suitable for factor analysis. Another criterion to check the adequacy of the sample size is Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy. If its value exceeds the threshold of .6, the sample size is adequate. Table 3 shows the SPSS output for KMO test.

TABLE III.
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.931
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6.116E3
	df	703
	Sig.	.000

According to the table, the calculated value of KMO measure is .931 that is more than .6, which suggests the adequacy of the sample size. As for the strength of inter-correlations among items, based on the result of Bartlett's test of sphericity (Table 3), the significant value is smaller than alpha at .05 level of significance ($p=.000<\alpha=.05$), which suggests that the data set is suitable for factor analysis.

The Varimax rotation technique was used to determine the factor loading of each item. Appendix II shows the results of this analysis. The rotated component matrix (Appendix II) can be used for two purposes. First, it helps researchers group different items under certain categories. Second, it can indicate which items are practically significant. With regard to grouping the items, since the results of factor analysis were not consistent with the literature, they were not followed in this study. The results were used for determining the level of significance of each item.

In Appendix II, the values in front of each component, or item, are called factor loadings that show the correlation between the original variables and the factors (Coakes & Steed, 2007). Once the factor loadings are squared, they can indicate the percentage of variance in an original variable explained by a factor. Appendix III shows the squared factor loading of each item. The results were interpreted based on Hair et al's (2006) rule of thumb:

Unacceptable factor: >.30
Minimally acceptable factor: .30-.40
Acceptable factor: .40-.50
Significant factor .50<

As Hair *et al.* (2006) also point out, researchers' final decision on the number of the factors to be included in the final instrument should rely on the literature. Factor analysis results should only be regarded as recommendations. Table 4 presents the items categorized following Hair et al's (2006) rule of thumb.

TABLE IV.
ITEMS CATEGORIZED BASED ON HAIR ET AL'S (2006) RULE OF THUMB

Unacceptable items (>.30)	Minimally acceptable items (.30-.40)	Acceptable items (.40-.50)	Significant items (.50<)
6, 11, 12, 15, 27	3, 4, 5, 7, 14, 16, 17, 18, 20, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 38	1, 10, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 33, 34, 35, 36	2, 8, 9, 13, 37

According to the table, 5 items were regarded as unacceptable because their squared factor loadings were less than .30. These items included 'the compatibility to the learner needs' (item 6), 'efficient audio materials' (item 11), 'interesting tasks' (item 12), 'cultural sensitivities' (item 15), and 'vocabulary load' (item 27). According to the literature, these items are all important and should not be removed from the final checklist; however, a closer look at the items in the checklist shows their redundancy. As for item 6, there are already two other items (4 and 5) that consider the compatibility of the checklist to the learners' age and needs. Including another item would therefore sound unnecessary. The same argument also seems true for item 12 since the same feature has been repeated in items 24 (Texts are interesting), 26 (Tasks are interesting), and 32 (Examples are interesting). Therefore, it seems logical to remove this item based on the results of factor analysis. It may be argued that removing these items may lower the reliability of the instrument and that keeping them in the final checklist will not reduce its validity. It should, however, be noted that removing the unnecessary items will result in the higher economy of the instrument and enhance its usefulness.

Items 11, 15 and 27 were not removed from the final checklist, however. The reason was that regarding the literature, the researchers considered 'efficient audio materials' (item 11), 'cultural sensitivities' (item 15), and 'vocabulary load' (item 27) as important items. Removing these items would affect the construct validity of the checklist.

V. CONCLUSION

The paper presented the findings of the quantitative phase of a project that aims at developing a checklist to evaluate English language teaching textbooks. The main objective of the present study was to provide proof for the construct validity of the checklist. The results showed that the respondents viewed all the items as equally important. Two of the items were found to be redundant and were removed from the final checklist to improve its economy.

This study indicates how quantitative method can be employed to provide support for the validity of instruments in their development process. As it was also observed, factor analysis can help developers in making their instrument more economical. Despite their usefulness, factor analysis results must be handled cautiously and should be interpreted in the light of the related literature.

ESL researchers and teachers and particularly ELT material developers and evaluators will find the results of this research useful. The study also provides a practical guide for curriculum developers and indicates what constitutes a good textbook based on the views of ELT practitioners.

The findings of the present study helped the researchers further refine their checklist, which at this stage can be applied for evaluating textbooks more confidently. Future study will focus on the empirical test of the reliability and validity of the checklist.

APPENDIX I. ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEXTBOOK CHECKLIST

Dear respondent

This project aims at finding out what evaluative criteria are important for English language teachers or lecturers. Please answer the following questionnaire regarding your personal and professional background.

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Age: …… years
3. Level of education: ☐ Diploma ☐ BA ☐ MA ☐ PhD
4. Major: ☐ TESL ☐ Others
5. Teaching context: ☐ University ☐ School ☐ Language institute
6. Teaching experience: ……years
7. Have you ever participated in any textbook evaluation workshops, seminars, courses, etc.?
   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not applicable
8. If your answer to question 7 is 'Yes', please list the courses you attended.
   a) ……
   b) ……
   c) ……
9. Have you ever evaluated a textbook? ☐ Yes ☐ No

In the following section, you will find a list of the criteria that will be used to develop a checklist for evaluating English language teaching textbooks. You are requested to mark (0-4) to indicate the level of importance of each criterion according to this key:

0: Unimportant 1: Less important 2: Fairly important 3: Important 4: Very important

If you think a criterion is missing, you may add it to the end of the list and indicate its level of importance. In addition, if there is a term that, according to your experience, would be hard for evaluators to understand, you may add the term that you recommend in the column, *Reword*. If you have any further comments about each criterion, you may mention it in the *Comment* column.

Thank you for your cooperation.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEXTBOOK CHECKLIST

Evaluative criteria	Level of importance	Reword	Comment
I. General attributes A. The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum 1. It matches to the specifications of the syllabus.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
B. Methodology 2. The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT. 3. Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
C. Suitability to learners 4. It is compatible to the age of the learners. 5. It is compatible to the needs of the learners. 6. It is compatible to the interests of the learners.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
D. Physical and utilitarian attributes 7. Its layout is attractive. 8. It indicates efficient use of text and visuals. 9. It is durable. 10. It is cost-effective.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
E. Efficient outlay of supplementary materials 11. The book is supported efficiently by essentials like audio-materials.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
II. Learning-teaching content A. General 12. Most of the tasks in the book are interesting. 13. Tasks move from simple to complex. 14. Task objectives are achievable. 15. Cultural sensitivities have been considered. 16. The language in the textbook is natural and real. 17. The situations created in the dialogues sound natural and real.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
B. Listening 18. The book has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals. 19. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity. 20. Tasks are authentic or close to real language situations.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
C. Speaking 21. Activities are developed to initiate meaningful communication. 22. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
D. Reading 23. Texts are graded. 24. Texts are interesting.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
E. Writing 25. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learner capabilities. 26. Tasks are interesting.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
F. Vocabulary 27. The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level. 28. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book. 29. Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
G. Grammar 30. The spread of grammar is achievable. 31. The grammar is contextualized. 32. Examples are interesting. 33. Grammar is introduced explicitly and reworked incidentally throughout the book.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
H. Pronunciation 34. It is contextualized. 35. It is learner-friendly with no complex charts.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
I. Exercises 36. They are learner friendly. 37. They are adequate. 38. They help students who are under/over-achievers.	⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④ ⓪ ① ② ③ ④		
39.			
40.			

APPENDIX II. ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX[A]

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
II.D. Texts are interesting	.693					
II.C. Activities are developed to initiate meaningful communication	.675					
II.D. Texts are graded	.663					
II.E. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learner capabilities	.661					
II.E. Tasks are interesting	.656					
II.C. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work	.635					
II.F. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book	.552					
II.F. The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level	.543					
II.I. They are adequate		.715				
II.H. It is learner-friendly with no complex charts		.679				
II.H. It is contextualized		.656				
II.I. They are learner friendly		.654				
II.G. Grammar is introduced explicitly and reworked incidentally throughout the book		.654				
II.G. The spread of grammar is achievable		.579				
II.G. The grammar is contextualized		.570				
II.I. They help students who are under/over-achievers		.565				
II.F. Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book		.551				
II.G. Examples are interesting		.549				
I.B. The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT			.734			
I.A. It matches to syllabus specifications			.688			
I.B. Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT			.626			
I.C. It is compatible to the needs of the learners			.596			
I.C. It is compatible to the age of the learners			.569			
I.C. It is compatible to the interests of the learners			.464			
II.B. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity				.638		
II.A. The situations created in the dialogues sound natural and real				.629		
II.B. The book has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals				.621		
II.A. The language in the textbook is natural and real				.611		
II.B. Tasks are authentic or close to real language situations				.560		
I.E. The book is supported efficiently by essentials like audio-materials				.537		
II.A. Cultural sensitivities have been considered				.412		
I.D. It is durable					.781	
I.D. It indicates efficient use of text and visuals					.724	
I.D. It is cost-effective					.660	
I.D. Its layout is attractive					.623	
II.A. Tasks move from simple to complex						.726
II.A. Task objectives are achievable						.625
II.A. Most of the tasks in the book are interesting						.534

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

APPENDIX III. SQUARED FACTOR LOADINGS

Item	Factor loading	Squared factor loading
Section I		
1. It matches to the specifications of the syllabus.	.688	.473
2. The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT.	.734	.539
3. Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT.	.626	.392
4. It is compatible to the age of the learners.	.569	.324
5. It is compatible to the needs of the learners.	.596	.355
6. It is compatible to the interests of the learners.	.464	.215
7. Its layout is attractive.	.623	.388
8. It indicates efficient use of text and visuals.	.724	.524
9. It is durable.	.781	.700
10. It is cost-effective.	.660	.436
11. The book is supported efficiently by essentials like audio-materials.	.537	.288
Section II		
12. Most of the tasks in the book are interesting.	.534	.285
13. Tasks move from simple to complex.	.726	.527
14. Task objectives are achievable.	.625	.391
15. Cultural sensitivities have been considered.	.412	.170
16. The language in the textbook is natural and real.	.611	.373
17. The situations created in the dialogues sound natural and real.	.629	.396
18. The book has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals.	.621	.386
19. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity.	.638	.407
20. Tasks are authentic or close to real language situations.	.560	.314
21. Activities are developed to initiate meaningful communication.	.675	.456
22. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work.	.635	.403
23. Texts are graded.	.663	.440
24. Texts are interesting.	.693	.480
25. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learner capabilities.	.661	.437
26. Tasks are interesting.	.656	.430
27. The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level.	.543	.294
28. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book.	.552	.305
29. Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book.	.551	.304
30. The spread of grammar is achievable.	.579	.335
31. The grammar is contextualized.	.570	.325
32. Examples are interesting.	.549	.301
33. Grammar is introduced explicitly and reworked incidentally throughout the book.	.654	.428
34. It is contextualized.	.656	.430
35. It is learner-friendly with no complex charts.	.679	.461
36. They are learner friendly.	.654	.428
37. They are adequate.	.715	.511
38. They help students who are under/over-achievers.	.565	.319

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Enhancing Students' Use of Cohesive Devices: Impacts of PowerPoint Presentations on EFL Academic Writing

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***Abstract*—This study aims to explore the impacts of preparing and presenting PowerPoint slides in EFL settings on the improvement of cohesive devices in EFL setting. In order to examine the effects of PowerPoint presentations on students' use of cohesive devices, sixty two BA students from University of Isfahan were randomly assigned into 2 groups .The course was "advanced writing". Each session lasted 90 minutes. One group received the traditional textbook teaching style whereas the other group received the power points of the same materials during ten sessions. Comparing the performance of two groups based on use of cohesive devices, it became evident that students in power point group performed better than students in traditional teaching style. (Frequency use of cohesive devices in power point group is 47.79 and the frequency use of cohesive devices in traditional teaching style is 27.79). Also results indicated that preparing and presenting power point slides had a significant effect on students writing achievement and their appropriate use of cohesive devices.**

***Index Terms*—PowerPoint presentation, EFL, cohesive devices, academic writing**

I. Introduction

It seems that it is a Power Point world, surrounded by complete images, movement and sound.Technological advances have led to a boom in the use of multimedia presentations in college classrooms .Multimedia formats are popular with faculty and students alike .In fact, faculty and students think (i.e., perceive) that the use of multimedia presentations improves student learning (Hogarty, Lang, and Kromney 2003).

While the use of PowerPoint and multimedia in the classroom has significantly increased globally in recent years (Connor and Wong, 2004Bartsch and Cobern, 2003), it seems that few studies have systematically investigated its impact on student learning.

Rebele et al. (1998) note that little research exists regarding integration of technology in the curriculum, and suggests that researchers should examine whether technology improves learning. Further, Rebeleet (1998) recommend "researchers should explore how educational technology can contribute to the continuing evolution and improvement of education" (p. 207).

One study that has examined the relationship between multimedia and student learning and attitudes was conducted by Butler and Mautz (1996) in a laboratory experiment conducted during a 30-minute time period.The results showed an interaction between the effects of the multimedia presentation and the students' preferred class representation style (i.e., whether the student was considered a "verbal" or imaginal" learner).

Teachers have been using computers in EFL courses for many years and have employed a variety of computer applications and methodologies .Some agree with Murphy-Judy (1997)that "the readers whom foreign language education produces now, should not be trained in defunct literacy practices, but rather should be prepared to function in this new world".

It is believed that PowerPoint presentations incorporate graphics, animation, and color, imagery. Reynolds and Baker (1987) found that presenting materials on a computer increased attention and learning, and learning increased as attention increased

In 2002, it was estimated that more than 400 million copies of Power Point presentations were in circulation and that somewhere between 20 and 30 million power point based presentations were given around the globe each day. (Simons 2005).

EFL practitioners using Power Point slides consider Power Point presentation as a process consisting of six main stages:

a. Preparation stage

b. Material collection and arrangements
c. Rehearsal stage
d. Delivery stage
e. Follow-up stage
f. Evaluation and assessment stage

Since few studies have systematically investigated Power Points' presentations impacts on EFL settings, the present study made an attempt to explore and address it .In fact, the question the present study sought to address was this :"it is generally assumed that the modern technology significantly improves learning."

II. Review of Literature

Researches exploring the effect of preparing powerpoint presentations by students seem to be very limited .Gunel (2006) compared the effectiveness of writing summary report and preparing PowerPoint presentation on students 'achievements on two units in physics lesson .The results indicated that students preparing the PowerPoint presentation scored significantly better on achievement test than the summary report format group .In another study, he(2006) investigated the students' ability to choose the material and the content of PowerPoint presentations on professional topics via the internet as well as the ability to prepare and deliver the presentation in front of the audience .At the result, it was reported that preparing and delivering PowerPoint presentation improved students listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

PowerPoint presentations should arouse the imagery system and could contribute to comprehension, and improve short and long-term memory .Since, in a PowerPoint presentation, topics are presented in a hierarchical fashion with graphics, color, and animation, students could "use a mental image of that outline to study, to retrieve the information on a test, to organize their answer for an essay question, and to perform other educational tasks (Clark and Paivio, 1991. p. 176). " Rose (2001) also notes that presentation of learning materials in graphical form is beneficial for students.

In power points slides, Peek (1987) found that when pictures and text are presented together, information retention is improved. Other studies have shown that color is a factor in memory representation .For example, Hanna and Remington (1996) found that color, as a stimulus, is a part of memory representation. Allen (1990) submitted that colors are encoded as a verbal representation as well as in the perceptual mode in the form of a visual image. In a review of literature on the use of color in teaching, Dwyer and Lamberski (1983) conclude that when color is central to the ideas and concepts being presented and the students pay attention, the use of color improves learning.

Power point presentations allow for graphical simulations, which allow for mental imagery and associated knowledge, which should lead to increased learning.

Proponents of power point presentations believe they improve learning through enhanced attention (Luna and McKenzie 1997) improved recall through multimodal benefits, a matching of technologically learning styles with the latest technology.

It should be understood that using PowerPoint in EFL classes does have great advantages both for teachers and students. Catherina (2006) indicates that students think PowerPoint based lectures are more interesting than traditional lectures. Moreover, Fisher (1998) reports that student scores on tests are even improved with PowerPoint lectures as opposed to traditional lectures. Aly, Elen, and Willems (2004) point out that PowerPoint based lectures focus attention and reduce distraction. Szaboa and Hastings (2000) find similar trends in their study at Nottingham Trent University in England. Besides, seventy-two percent of students who are surveyed say that they want PowerPoint presentations to be adopted in EFL classes.

Miltenoff (2003) indicates that PowerPoint can be used as a multimedia and interactive tool. Pictures, animation, sound effects, and music can greatly enhance the quality of the presentation. It is much easier to use attractive fonts, photos, clipart, tables, and graphs in PowerPoint. And the hyperlinks on the slides allow users to get more information than is found in books and broadens the field of view of students. Most importantly, slide shows are adaptable to many EFL teaching environments, including face-to-face and online.

In addition, comparing PowerPoint presentations with handwriting, teachers can immediately appreciate the value and impact of using PowerPoint presentations. According to Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996), "On the one hand, PowerPoint presentations are more effective and they can take less time and effort to create. On the other hand, teachers can improve the quality of PowerPoint presentations while dramatically reducing their production time and budgets." (p. 95).

The colors used in PowerPoint presentations can influence how students respond to teachers' messages. Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996) stated "Colors can bring emotion to PowerPoint presentations. However, used improperly, colors can also undermine themes of teachers' presentations and distract students." (p. 99) In addition, teachers should also be aware that "a significant portion of students—may be color-blind and not perceive the differences between two or more colors. Keeping all these points in mind, teachers are best advised to keep their color selections simple and restrained." (Coulthard& Hutchinson, 1996).

Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996) indicate that fortunately for teachers, Microsoft hired professional artists to compile PowerPoint's numerous color schemes. A color scheme is a set of eight colors that teachers can apply to individual slides, notes pages, and student handouts. The eight main colors include a background color, title text color,

text and line color, fill color, shadows color, and three colors for accents .Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996) present the idea that by using color schemes, teachers ensure that all the colors in their presentations are balanced and will work well together. Also, color schemes make it easy to apply a new set of colors to their presentations, just as using templates makes it easy to change overall design.

It has been said that a picture is worth a thousand words. Although this phrase is overused, its truth is undeniable. Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996) indicate that graphics add personality to teacher presentations and convey information more efficiently than text alone. Unfortunately, many new computer users struggle with the tendency to place too many graphics on a single screen. To assist teacher plans of how and when to use graphics, apply these basic principles: strive for simplicity, use emphasis sparingly, and ensure a visual balance between graphics and text.

Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996) find that PowerPoint's Auto Layouts already encourage a balanced and visually appealing use of graphics. The Microsoft ClipArt Gallery mini-app provides a one-stop shopping mall for all the clip art images. A clip art image is a computer graphic or picture that teachers can insert into their documents, usually without having to pay royalties or licensing fees to the artist or designer. Microsoft's ClipArt Gallery provides hundreds of images organized into over 25 categories. Teachers can also use the Gallery to add their own images, delete existing images, and move images.

Although PowerPoint presentations have many advantages, PowerPoint presentations in EFL teaching are hampered by several problems as well.

First, Klemm (2007) thinks that more teachers are just clicking the mouse all the time when they are giving the lectures. Instead of interacting with students during the EFL class, they just sit in front of the computers without leaving their chairs.

Second, Miltenoff (2003) indicates that teachers do not need to write information on the blackboard, but just click the mouse. Therefore, it is very easy for teachers to give too much information in one class, which can difficult for students to comprehend. What's more, students are easily overwhelmed with a large amount of information given in the PowerPoint presentation.

Third, Roblyer (2003) states that students need ample online development time to take full advantage of the benefits of PowerPoint technology. This presents a problem in most EFL classrooms due to insufficient numbers of computers. So educators should try their best to increase the number of computers if conditions permit.

Fourth, integration of PowerPoint technology into the curriculum presents additional problems. Mayer and Moreno (1998) indicate that students need sufficient time to focus, build, and reflect in order to ensure quality projects. The conventional school schedule, often broken into 50-minute blocks, does not lend itself to serious project development. If PowerPoint is going to have a major impact on learning, educators will need to look at ways of infusing more flexibility into students' daily schedules.

Finally, Boyle (1997) warns that technology such as PowerPoint is a mixed blessing. It helps teachers communicate information more quickly, but do not necessarily help them analyze whether or not information is accurate, relevant, or correct. The more information they have, the more important it becomes to learn critical analysis, visual literacy, and information literacy skills.

It should be reiterated that there is a gap about recent studies on the use of Power Point presentations and its effect on learners' writing ability and their attitude. It is hoped this study bridge the gap.

Teaching Writing

There is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master. The difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing idea, but also in translating these ideas into readable text. The skills involved in writing are highly complex. L2 writers have to pay attention to higher level skills of planning and spelling, punctuation, word choice, and so on. The difficulty becomes even more pronounced if their language proficiency is weak.

With so many conflicting theories around and so many implementation factors to consider, planning and teaching a course in writing can be a daunting task.

The writing process as a private activity may be broadly seen as comprising four main stages: planning, drafting, revising and editing. As research has suggested, "many good writers employ a recursive, nonlinear approach—writing of a draft may be interrupted by more planning, and revision may lead to reformulation ,with a great deal of recycling to earlier stages"(Krashen, 1984, p. 17).

Process writing

The term *process writing* has been bandied about for quite a while in ESL classrooms. It is no more than a writing process approach to teaching writing. The idea behind it is not really to dissociate writing entirely from the written product and to merely lead students through the various stages of the writing process but "to construct process—oriented writing instruction that will affect performance" (Freedman, Dyson, Flower, & Chafe, 1987, p.13). to have an effective performance –oriented teaching program would mean that we need to systematically teach students problem-solving skills connected with the writing process that will enable them to realize specific goals at each stage of the composing process. Thus process writing in the classroom may be construed as a program of instruction which provides students with a series of planned learning experiences to help them understand the nature of writing at every point.

Process writing as a classroom activity incorporates the four basics writing stages—planning, drafting, revising, and editing; and three other stages externally imposed on students by the teacher, namely, responding, evaluating, and post-

writing. Process writing in the classroom is highly structured as it necessitates the orderly teaching of process skills, and thus it may not, at least, give way to a free variation of writing stages. Teachers often plan appropriate classroom activities that support the learning of specific writing skills at every stage.

Figure2.1. The writing process

Planning

Pre-writing is any activity in the classroom that encourages students to write. It stimulates thoughts for getting started. In fact, it moves students away from having to face a blank page toward generating tentative ideas and gathering information for writing. The following activities provide the learning experiences for students at this stage:

Group Brain Storming

Group members spew out ideas about the topic. Spontaneity is important here. There are no right or wrong answers. Students may cover familiar ground first and move off to more abstract or wild territories.

Clustering

Students form words related to a stimulus supplies by the teacher. The words are circled and then linked by lines to show discernible clusters. Clustering is a simple yet powerful strategy: "its visual character seems to stimulate the flow of association…and is particularly good for students who know what they want to say but just can't say it" (Proett& gill, 1989, p.60).

Rapid Free Writing

Within a limited time of 1 or 2 minutes, individual students freely and quickly write down single words and phrases about a topic. The time limit keeps the writers' minds ticking and thinking fast. Rapid free wring is done when group brain storming is not possible or because the personal nature of a certain topic requires a different strategy.

WH- Questions

Students generate *who*, *why*, *what*, *where*, *when*, and *how* questions about a topic. More such questions can be asked of answers to the first string of *wh*-questions, and so on. This can go on indefinitely.

In addition, ideas for writing can be elicited from multimedia sources (e.g., printed material, video, films), as well as from direct interviews, talks, surveys, and questionnaires. Students will be more motivated to write when given a variety of means for gathering information during pre-writing.

Drafting

Once sufficient ideas are gathered at the planning stage, the first attempt at writing- that is drafting- may proceed quickly. At the drafting stage, the writers are focused on the fluency of writing and are not preoccupied with grammatical accuracy or the neatness of the draft. Depending on the genre of writing (narrative, expository or argumentative), an introduction to the subject of writing may be a startling statement to arrest the reader's attention, a short summary of the rest of the writing, an apt quotation, a provocative question, a general statement, an analogy, a statement of purpose, and so on. Such a strategy may provide the lead at the drafting stage. Once a start is made, the writing task is simplified "as the writers let go and disappear into the act of writing" (D' Aoust, 1989, p. 7).

Responding

Responding to student writing by the teacher has a central role to play in the successful implementation of process writing. Responding intervenes between drafting and revising. It is the teacher's quick initial reaction to students' drafts. Response van be oral or in writing, after the students have produced the first draft and just before they proceed to revise. The failure of many writing programs in schools today may be ascribed to the fact that responding is done in the final stage when the teacher simultaneously responds and evaluates, and even edits students' finished texts, thus giving students the impression that nothing more needs to be done.

Revising

When students revise, they review their texts on the basis of the feedback given in the responding stage. They reexamine what was written to see how effectively they have communicated their meanings to the reader. Revising is not merely checking for language errors. It is done to improve global content and the organization of ideas so that the writer's intent is made clearer to the reader.

Editing

At this stage, students are engaged in tidying up their texts as they prepare the final draft for evaluation by the teacher. They edit their own or their peer's work for grammar, spelling, punctuation, diction, sentence structure and accuracy of supportive textual material such as quotation, examples and the like. Editing within process writing is meaningful because students can see the connection between such as an exercise and their own writing in that correction is not done

for its own sake but as part of the process of making communication as clear and unambiguous as possible to an audience.

Evaluating

In evaluating student writing, the scoring may be analytical (i.e. based on specific aspects of writing ability) or holistic (i.e. based on a global interpretation of the effectiveness of that piece of writing). In order to be effective, the criteria for evaluation should be made known to students in advance. They should include overall interpretation of the task, sense of audience, relevance, development and organization of ideas, format or layout, grammar and structure, spelling and punctuation, range and appropriateness of vocabulary, nad alacrity of communication.

Post writing

Post writing constitutes any classroom activity that the teacher and students can do with the completed pieces of writing. This includes publishing, sharing, reading aloud, and transforming texts for stage performances, or merely displaying texts on notice boards. In short, the post writing sage is a platform for recognizing students' work as important and worthwhile.

The Role of Cohesive Devices in Writing

Halliday and Hasan (1976) have provided a framework for the study of cohesion and coherence in ESL/EFL writing (Green et al., 2000; Jafarpur, 1991; Johns, 1980; Johnson, 1992; Yvette and Yip, 1992; Zhang, 2000). However, the findings of these studies have been somewhat contradictory. Some have found that there is no difference in the deployment of cohesive devices in ''good'' and ''weak'' writing (Johnson, 1992; Zhang, 2000).

Others indicate that highly rated essays differ from low rated ones in the use of cohesive devices (Jafarpur, 1991).

According to Johnson (1992), there was no difference in the degree of cohesion between ''good'' and ''weak'' compositions written in Malay by native speakers or in English by native and Malay speakers. Zhang's (2000) study of cohesion in 107 expository compositions created by Chinese English majors generated similar findings as Johnson's (1992).

On the other hand, some researchers find that compositions scored holistically high contain more cohesion than those scored low (Jafarpur, 1991). In addition, it is generally agreed that highly rated essays contain more lexical collocations than do low rated essays (Johns, 1980; Zhang, 2000). The researchers also hold that lexical cohesion is the most common category in both good and weak essays, followed by reference and conjunction (Johns, 1980; Zhang 2000). At the same time, some peculiar features have also been identified in the writing of ESL/ EFL learners (Khalil, 1989; Kuo, 1995). Khalil's (1989) analysis showed that the EFL students overused reiteration of the same lexical item as a cohesive device, but underused other lexical and grammatical cohesive devices. The case was the same with the writing composed by Spanish-speaking students (Palmer, 1999) and by Chinese undergraduate English majors (Zhang, 2000). In Wikborg's (1990) study, it was found that Swedish students often showed cohesion problems in their writing ranging from missing or misleading sentence connection to malfunctioning cohesive devices to too great a distance between the cohesive items in a cohesive chain. Consequently, the misuse of these cohesive devices affected or even broke the coherence of the text.

These empirical studies demonstrate that cohesion is an important element of any type of writing and that L1 and L2 learners of English have considerable difficulty in using cohesive devices. To the best of researcher's knowledge there has not been any similar study to investigate the impacts of Power Point presentation slides on cohesive devices used by EFL / ESL students.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to examine the effects of PowerPoint presentations on students' writing and their use of cohesive devices, sixty two BA students from University of Isfahan were randomly assigned into 2 groups .The intended course was "*advanced writing* ."Each session lasted 90 minute .One group received the traditional textbook teaching style whereas the other group received the power points of the same materials during ten sessions .It should be mentioned that the same instructor ran all the sessions .

B. Research Design

This study used both qualitative and quantitative approach .This study benefitted a pretesting, randomization, having experimental and control groups and pretest and posttest, as such it is an experimental study.

TABLE1.
RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Group	pretest	treatment	Posttest
EG	TOEFL	power point presentations	TOEFL
CG	TOEFL	conventional method	TOEFL

EG: Experimental Group
CG: Control Group

C. Procedure

The intervention was implemented during the fourth semester of 2009-2010 academic years .In an attempt to assess the effect of applying new technology to the class, a control and treatment group would suffice .The teacher was the same for both groups .The slides highlighted the features of good essay writing .For example how to develop an introduction, a thesis statement, a topic sentence, a conclusion .Slides depicted a sample with enough explanation .A pretest was administered to determine both their proficiency level and their writing skill .The test included grammar items, vocabulary items and reading comprehension items .Also in the writing section of the test, a topic wasassigned to them.Atintervals, the instructor asked questions to assess their learning and asks them to write an essay based on what has been taught .At the end of the semester, a post test were administered .Their scores on the pretest, posttest and their writing were registered for later evaluation. The presentations for control group were supported by traditional, text-based style and the teacher relied on *chalk andtalk*presentation .The presentations for treatment group were supported by power point presentations which provide colorful, visual aids with graphics and animation.

It should be mentioned that a placement test consisting of 100 multiple-choice items was employed to determine the proficiency level of the participants and divide them into two groups. This test consisted of four sections including Listening Comprehension, Structure and Written expression items, Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension, and Writing. Due to practicality limitations and because it was not the main construct under investigation in this study, Listening Comprehension of both the placement and TOEFL (criterion against which placement test was validated) was excluded.

1. TOEFL

A 1992 original version of TOEFL Test was utilized to serve as a criterion to estimate the concurrent validity of the placement test constructed by the researcher. As to the listening comprehension, the same limitations as the placement test were applied.

2. Validation Procedure

Using KR-21, the reliability estimates of the tests were calculated. As to the reliability of post-test, using both KR-20 formula (Kuder Richardson, 1937), and Cronbach's Coefficient α (Cronbch,1951), the reliability estimates of the test were calculated. Table 2.3 shows reliability indices.

TABLE.3.2.
RELIABILITY OF TESTS

Reliability	TOEFL	Placement Test	post test	
r	0.87	0.87	Kr-20 0.87	Alpha o.88

As the table shows, the reliability figures of the test are high enough to be considered as acceptable. It can, therefore, be concluded that the placement test enjoys satisfactory reliability.

After estimating the reliability measures of the above-mentioned test, utilizing the Pearson –Product Moment correlation formula through SPSS software for Windows, the placement test was concurrently validated against the criterion measure, the TOEFL test. The validity coefficient was found to be 0.87.

TABLE. 3.3.
CONCURRENT VALIDATION OF PLACEMENT TEST AND TOEFL TEST

	Scores of TOEFL Test	Scores of Placement Test
Scores of TOEFL test Pearson Correlation	1.000	.866**
Sig (2-tailed)	0	.000
N	151	151
Scores of Placement test Pearson Correlation	.866 **	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	0
N	151	151

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

IV. FINDINGS

At the beginning of the study, the pretest was administered to both groups. The results are presented below. According to the pretest scores, there was no difference between CG and EG .

TABLE 4.
PRETEST SCORES ON EG AND CG GROUPS

Group	n	M	SD
EG	31	15.67	1.24
CG	31	12.9	0.88

Additionally, pre test scores showed that there was no statistically difference between EG and CG at the beginning of the study.

At the end of the study, the post test was administered to both groups .Post test scores indicated that group receiving power points outperformed the conventional teaching group .

TABLE5.
POST TEST SCORES ON EG AND CG GROUPS

Group	n	M	SD	p
EG	31	20.21	4,04	0,000
CG	31	15.38	4,02	

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST ON THE POSTTEST SCORES FOR CONTROL &EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Posttest Score	Equal variances assumed	1.649	.210	-4.241	28	.000	-3.867	.912	-5.734	-1.999
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.241	24.742	.000	-3.867	.912	-5.745	-1.988

TABLE.7.
COHESIVE DEVICES USED IN POWER POINT PRESENTATION TEACHING STYLE

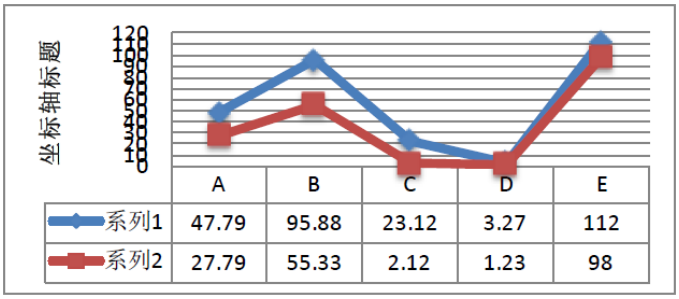
Type of Cohesive devices	Reference devices	Conjunction devices	Lexical devices	Total number of cohesive devices
Frequency	1423	698	2658	47.79
Mean	28.46	13.96	53.16	95.88
Standard deviation	11.49	5.41	11.75	23.12
Standard error	1.63	0.77	1.66	3.27
Range	63	30	56	112
Percentage based on total	29.8%	14.6%	55.6%	100%

TABLE 8.
COHESIVE DEVICES USED IN TRADITIONAL TEACHING STYLE

Type of Cohesive devices	Reference devices	Conjunction devices	Lexical devices	Total number of cohesive devices
Frequency	1223	398	16.58	27.79
Mean	26.36	1.56	43.13	55.33
Standard deviation	8.4	3.22	9.12	2.12
Standard error	0.75	0.22	0.12	1.23
Range	43	22	32	98.
Percentage based on total	18.98	12.34	43.32	100%

Comparing the performance of two groups based on use of cohesive devices, it became evident that students in power point group performed better than students in traditional teaching style. (frequency use of cohesive devices in power point group is 47.79 and the frequency use of cohesive devices in traditional teaching style is 27.79).

TABLE9
USE OF COHESIVE DEVICES BY BOTH POWER POINT PRESENTATION AND TRADITIONAL TEACHING GROUPS



V. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to systematically investigate Power Point presentations' impacts on EFL settings, the present study aimed to investigate students' academic writing when presentation software Microsoft PowerPoint is

used. Results indicated that preparing and presenting power point slides would have an effect on EFL student's achievements .Accompanying graphics in slides helped the students construct information in their minds .This construction in their minds could enhance learning .These results also support Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning .According to Mayer, people when learning, place relevant words into auditory working memory and relevant images into visual working memory .People then organize visual information separately in auditory and visual memory and finally integrate these representations with prior knowledge .These results are very meaningful for displaying the advantages of power point to enhance learning.they find it helpful if there are discussion points on the lectures .There is a preference for copies of actual power point slides .Further research could further investigate the use of Power points in other skills and sub-skills. Another study can evaluate the role of Power Point presentations on EFL, ESL children learning foreign languages.

VI. Conclusion

The presentation can be viewed as a process consisting of the appropriate number of preparation stages to make it as effective as possible. Psychologically speaking, each stage has some impact on the learning process and is of equal importance. While assessing students' knowledge the teacher has to consider and evaluate the whole process required to prepare a presentation. On the whole, students need to develop a strategy for structuring their presentations. The introduction of advantages and disadvantages of Power Point presentations helps the teacher to better integrate the presentation into the learning process. Presentations allow students to develop all four skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) as in this study the writing skills. Transforming oral presentations into written assignments expands the activity making the presentation more effective. The individual choice of the subject helps to promote successful research strategies and increase motivation. When the researcher compared the results of the participants' writing, the scores revealed that the students in Power Point group outperformed the students in conventional teaching style. Comparing the performance of two groups based on use of cohesive devices, it became evident that students in power point group performed better than students in traditional teaching style.

s(frequency use of cohesive devices in power point group is 47.79 and the frequency use of cohesive devices in traditional teaching style is 27.79). Therefore it might be a good idea for other researchers to apply Power Point presentations in their teaching styles.

Limitations of the Study

Throughout the accomplishment of different phases, the study did face some limitations.

1. First, the small and uneven number of participants that we had. Larger samples, hence more representative of the larger population, may yield more conclusive results.
2. Second, there is clearly a need to address the role and impact of Power Point presentation on other language areas.
3. Third, this study was done in an EFL context, so the findings might not be generalized to ESL context.
4. Fourth, it is possible that during this study other intervening variables affected outcomes. As it is believed the difficulty of evaluation along with generalization of findings in human issues. Some uncontrolled variables such as fatigue, unwillingness to participate and effective mood may have affected the results.
5. Fifth, the participants of the study were only English majors in Iran irrespective of their age, and gender. So we cannot extrapolate the findings to other types of studies.
6. According to Singleton (1999) researchers should: be collaborative, be qualitative as well as quantitative, and be durative. This study deals with snapshots of learners, rather than long-term study of language learning over a period of years.

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Task-type and Listening Ability of Iranian Male Learners

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***Abstract*—This present study investigated the correlation between four specific task-types (matching, form-filling, labeling, and selecting) and listening ability of the students of English as a foreign language. This study not only identified correspondence between four specific task-types and students' language proficiency level, but also tried to find out whether there was any significant relationship between task-type and listening ability of Iranian male learners. Forty-five EFL male learners participated in this study. The instruments of data collection of this correlational study included one language proficiency test and one task-based test of listening comprehension. Analysis of the findings indicated that there was significant positive relationship between listening ability and all four tasks. In terms of correspondence, labeling, selection and matching tasks had high correspondence to advanced and lower intermediate proficiency levels, but only matching task corresponded to upper-intermediate proficiency level. Incorporating tasks and task-based activities in EFL classrooms seem to have enhanced the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners.**

***Index Terms*—task-type, listening comprehension, correspondence**

I. Introduction

Foreign language listening comprehension is a complex and active process and crucial in the development of second language competence; but until recently, this important skill had been neglected both with regard to its place in language teaching and with regard to the creation and development of useful techniques and procedures for teaching the listening skill.

This negligence may have stemmed from the fact that listening is considered a passive skill, and from the belief that merely exposing the student to the spoken language is sufficient for improvement of listening comprehension (Carter & Nunan, 2001).

But by the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in language teaching methodology, communicative competence became the end goal of any learning and teaching program. According to CLT, all four skills of language are equally important and listening skill is not a secondary skill, but an active and internal one. Among recent manifestations of communicative language teaching, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has emerged as a major focal point of language teaching which is based on using tasks as the core of language teaching and learning (Brown, 2007).

Listening effectively is frequently cited as the most difficult part of acquiring another language and yet, without good listening skills, communication can be fractured. According to Ur (1984) listening exercises are most successful if they are constructed around a task. The students should demonstrate their understanding by performing the intended act of the speaker and if they can complete the assigned task correctly, their listening ability will improve. Listening tasks, therefore, seem to be corresponded with students' skills in listening, as well as reading, writing, and speaking.

Task-based Language Teaching

The idea and meaning of task is not as simple as it might seem. There are many definitions of tasks in many disciplines; a clear cut definition of which has turned into a problem .In spite of the vast quantity of the published materials on task-based language learning and teaching, there is no consensus definition of what a task is? (Bruton, 2002).

Williams and Burden (1997) define task as "any activity learners engage to further the process of learning a language" (p. 168).

Similarly, Long (1985; as cited in Ellis, 2003) defines task as the hundred and one things people do in every day life for themselves or for others freely or for some rewards.

Task-based language learning (TBLL), also known as task-based language teaching (TBLT) or task-based instruction (TBI) refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. This approach focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The purpose of this study is to test the practical usefulness of task-based approach in teaching listening and to determine the correspondence of four specific task-types and three different proficiency levels. Because the

previous studies in this regard had hardly dealt with applying the tasks designed by the researcher, this study afforded exclusivity to the literature in the sense that it encompassed the four specific task types.

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

Is there any significant relationship between task type and listening ability of Iranian male learners?

Is there any direct correspondence between task-type and proficiency level of EFL learners?

II. Methodology

A. Participants

This is a correlational study in which the participants were chosen from among the EFL learners of a total of sixty male students, all of whom were Persian native speakers but studied English more than five semesters and were Junior High- School or pre-university students. The age of all participants ranged from 15 to 22.The rationale for selecting this range of participants was the relative familiarity with English and with listening comprehension skill. After administering a proficiency test and according to the obtained results, forty five students were chosen and put into three levels of intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced. This division was based on the OPT scale. Students whose scores fell between 150 and 169 were assigned as advanced learners, students with scores of 135 and 149 as upper-intermediate group and students with scores between 120 and 134 as lower intermediate group. So, participants of this study were three groups of EFL learners with three different proficiency levels.

B. Instrumentation

Pre-test

The pretest of the study was an Oxford Placement Test. This test was administered at the beginning of the study in order to place the participants into three different proficiency levels. This test is divided into two main sections, Listening test and Grammar test.

Listening Test

This listening part involves 100 items taken from authentic situations where mishearings have taken place. The students have in front of them in written form , the items being tested and must make their choices on the basis of what they hear on the tape. The 100 items are on the cassette, spoken by native speakers at normal speaking speed. The listening test takes ten or twelve minutes. Each item is read only once and there was not any pause or repetition.

Grammar Test

The grammar test was a 100-item written multiple-choice test of a range of grammatical and lexical items .The items of the grammar test are contextualized situationally or linguistically and took a maximum of 50 minutes. This test is presented in two parts. Within each part there are short sub-sections with different context. Students can answer the questions by simply ticking the correct box.

Post-test

The post-test in this study was a task-based test of listening comprehension (Cameron, 2000) to determine the efficacy of the task types on the listening comprehension of EFL learners and to see whether there were any significant relationships between the tasks and students' language proficiency level.

C. Procedure

The study was conducted at the start of the term. At first, an OPT test was administered and then the participants were divided into three groups. This way, there were three groups of lower intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced. After placing them into three groups, they were given special listening tasks for the whole term that took eighteen sessions (9 weeks).

Each session lasted about 80 minutes and 40 minutes was allotted to teaching listening by the intended tasks and the time was equally divided among the four tasks.

In fact, special listening tasks were designed for each group to be practiced through the task-based approach. The four tasks were labeling, selecting, matching, and form filling, which were applied according to the framework introduced in Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 244). The four tasks were practiced by each of the three groups of participants by the help of another book of Cameron and Todd entitled" *Prepare for IELTS General Training Modules* (2001). This book also contains five listening tests and suggests some useful points for learners. Because the four tasks specified in this study were purely receptive ones and there was no demand on the subjects' part for language production, the validity of the tasks was protected.

Concerning the selection of listening materials that would fit each level of proficiency appropriately, Scrivener (1994) argued that it is not the material (the recording) that should set the level of the lesson, it is the task. Thus, a tape of someone asking for directions in the street is more likely to be usable at a lower level than a discussion on complex moral issues. In this study the four types of tasks were practiced by each of the three groups, and they only differed regarding the topic and language system (grammar and vocabulary). Cameron (2001) claims that these types of tasks are quite suitable for all levels of language proficiency.

With regard to the sequence of class activities, the following route-map was made and implemented throughout the course:

Lead in: The teacher introduced the topic (foregrounding) and the students performed a similar task so that the task requirements are made clear. Next, the teacher prepared students for what they are to hear by pre-listening activities that are probably the most important aspect of any listening sequence because the success of all the other activities depends on the extent to which the teacher manages to give the students the background, guidance and direction to achieve the end goal of the activity (Chastain, 1988).

There are some pre-listening strategies that were recommended by the teacher at the beginning of first session. The pre-listening strategies are:

Anticipate the words and phrases you are most likely to hear.

Anticipate synonyms and ideas expressed in different words.

It is not necessary to understand all of the words.

Pre-task work: included looking through worksheet, work on vocabulary, prediction.

The actual task: involved performing each of the four actual task types of the study.

In this stage the students listen to the material. One of the most important problems during this stage is to arouse learners' interest in the content of the listening materials (Bahrami, n. d).

Tape playing: When the students are completely ready and motivated for the new lesson and after some predictions and working on similar and related vocabularies, the actual task stage begins. The teacher first played the tape and then asked the students to perform the task individually. If they could not achieve the point individually, the teacher would play the tape a number of times so that the students could discover the correct words and compare their findings in pairs or in groups after each time of playing. This strategy will be repeated until students could discover the exact words and could obtain the teacher's approval. Eventually, if they could not find it, the teacher provided the exact word.

Prabhu (1987) stated that learners must be encouraged to complete the task on their own, so they should be provided with such a chance, but working collaboratively on tasks would enable learners to perform beyond the capacities of any individual learner.

As far as task sequencing was concerned, the tasks and materials were graded so as to facilitate maximum learning. In effect, this required determining the complexity of individual task types so that tasks would match to learners' level of development.

It is necessary to mention that four tasks of the study (Matching, Form Filling, Labeling, and Selection) have many common features. So, controlling task complexity is easy. The proficiency level of students has been controlled carefully and the same methodological procedures were applied by the teachers for the implementation of the four tasks.

The students were invited to consider different strategies in performing each task. For form filling task, read the form carefully and think of how the words will sound when you hear them, but do not cling too tightly to your predictions. For matching and selection task, it is better for learners to anticipate the vocabulary and ideas you might hear.

D. Data Analysis

In order to obtain the relationship and correspondence between each task- type and proficiency level of participants, correlational analysis was performed. In this study, the Pearson Correlation was used.

III. Findings

In order to find out whether the whole treatment (task-based activities) affected the participants' performance (listening comprehension) in the three levels of language proficiency, the obtained data will be subjected to the statistical analysis of Pearson correlation with the following null hypotheses:

H_{01} There is no significant relationship between task type and listening ability of EFL male learners.

H_{02} There is no direct correspondence between task type and proficiency level of EFL learners.

In order to test the first hypothesis, a number of correlational computations were employed. The results are provided below for each proficiency group separately. Table 1 shows the results of the correlation between listening ability and task types for the advanced group.

TABLE 1
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LISTENING ABILITY AND TASK TYPES FOR THE ADVANCED GROUP

		Form Filling	Labeling	Matching	Selection
Listening ability	Pearson Correlation	.482	.782**	.866**	.721**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.069	.001	.000	.002
	N	15	15	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 1, for the advanced group the correlation between listening ability and form filling task is not significant (r= .482, p= .69). On the other hand, there are significant correlations between listening ability and Labeling (r= .782, p= .001), Matching (r= .866, p= .000), and Selection (r= .721, p=. 002). Therefore, in advanced group, the first null hypothesis is retained with respect to Form Filling, but it is rejected for Labeling, Matching, and Selection.

Table 2 indicates the results of the correlational analysis between listening ability and task types for the upper-intermediate group.

TABLE 2
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LISTENING ABILITY AND TASK TYPES FOR THE UPPER-INTERMEDIATE GROUP

		Form Filling	Labeling	Matching	Selection
Listening Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.772**	.790**	.755**	.758**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.001	.001
	N	15	15	15	15

It can be seen in the above table, Table 2, that there are significant correlations between listening ability and all four task types, that is, Form Filling (r= .772, p= .001), Labeling (r= .790, p= .000), Matching (r= .755, p= .001), and Selection (r= .758, p= .001). As a result, the first null hypothesis is rejected with regard to upper-intermediate group.

The last correlational analysis for testing the first null hypothesis was performed for the lower-intermediate group. Table 3 depicts the results of this correlation.

TABLE 3
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LISTENING ABILITY AND TASK TYPES FOR THE LOWER-INTERMEDIATE GROUP

		Form Filling	Labeling	Matching	Selection
Listening Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.593*	.852**	.758**	.710**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	.000	.001	.003
	N	15	15	15	15

By studying Table 3, one can see that, as with upper-intermediate group, the correlations between listening ability and all task types are statistically significant, that is, Form Filling (r= .593, p= .020), Labeling (r= .852, p= .000), Matching (r= .758, p= .001), and Selection (r= .710, p= .003). As a result, the first null hypothesis is rejected with regard to upper-intermediate group. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected, and it can be claimed that there is a significant correlation between task type and listening ability of EFL learners.

For testing the second null hypothesis of the study, another set of correlational analyses were employed. The results are presented below for each proficiency group separately.

Table 4 shows the results of the correlation between proficiency scores and task type scores for the advanced group.

TABLE 4
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN PROFICIENCY AND TASK TYPES FOR THE ADVANCED GROUP

		Form Filling	Labeling	Matching	Selection
Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.339	.781**	.737**	.592*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.217	.001	.002	.020
	N	15	15	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

By referring to Table 4 , one understands that for the advanced group the correlation between proficiency scores and Form Filling task is not significant (r= .339, p= .217). On the other hand, there are significant correlations between listening ability and Labeling (r= .781, p= .001), Matching (r= .737, p= .002), and Selection (r= .592, p=. 020). Therefore, in advanced group, the second null hypothesis is retained with respect to Form Filling, but it is rejected regarding Labeling, Matching, and Selection.

Table 5 indicates the results of the correlational analysis between proficiency and task types for the upper-intermediate group.

TABLE 5
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN PROFICIENCY AND TASK TYPES FOR THE UPPER-INTERMEDIATE GROUP

		Form Filling	Labeling	Matching	Selection
Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.428	.440	.699**	.444
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.101	.004	.097
	N	15	15	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5 reveals that there is only a significant correlation between proficiency and matching (r= .699, p= .004), but the correlations between proficiency and other tasks, that is, Form Filling (r= .428, p= .111), Labeling (r= .440, p= .101), and Selection (r= .444, p= .97), are not statistically significant. As a result, the second null hypothesis is rejected with regard to matching task, but it is retained for Form Filling, Labeling, and Selection tasks.

The last correlational computation for the second null hypothesis was performed for the lower-intermediate group. Table 6 indicates the results for this correlation.

TABLE 6
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN PROFICIENCY AND TASK TYPES FOR THE LOWER-INTERMEDIATE GROUP

		Form Filling	Labeling	Matching	Selection
Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.246	.835**	.604*	.874**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.376	.000	.017	.000
	N	15	15	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Looking at Table 6, it can be seen that, as with the advanced group, the correlations between proficiency scores and Form Filling task is not significant (r= .246, p= .376), but there are significant correlations between proficiency scores and Labeling (r= .835, p= .000), Matching (r= .604, p= .017), and Selection (r= .874, p=. 000). Therefore, in lower-intermediate group, the second null hypothesis is retained with respect to Form Filling, but it is rejected regarding Labeling, Matching, and Selection. According to the above results, the second null hypothesis is rejected in advanced and lower-intermediate group, but it is retained in upper-intermediate group.

IV. DISCUSSION

As far as the first question of the study is concerned, the researcher embarked upon discovering the relationship between each task and the listening comprehension of the EFL learners. The results obtained rejected the first null hypothesis for the three tasks of "matching, labeling and selection," and it was verified for the "form-filling" task for advanced group of the study. This means that there was a significant relationship between the first three tasks and listening comprehension ability of advanced group. On the other hand, no such relationship was observed between the task of "form-filling" and listening comprehension. But the correlations between listening ability and all four task types for lower-intermediate and upper-intermediate groups are statistically significant. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected with regard to upper-intermediate and lower-intermediate groups.

The second research question of the study wants to know if there is any direct correspondence between task type and proficiency level of EFL learners.

By investigating the obtained results, it can be seen that, in lower- intermediate and advanced groups, the correlations between proficiency scores and Form Filling task is not significant, but there are significant correlations between proficiency scores and Labeling, Matching, and Selection. But in upper-intermediate group, there is only a significant correlation between proficiency and matching, but the correlations between proficiency and other tasks, that is, Form Filling , Labeling , and Selection , are not statistically significant. So, labeling task, matching task and selection task correspond to the lower-intermediate and advanced proficiency level and only matching task corresponds to the upper-intermediate proficiency level. Totally and according to the above results, the second null hypothesis is rejected in advanced and lower-intermediate group, but it is retained in upper-intermediate group. The results suggest that there is high correspondence between labeling, selection and matching task types and advanced and lower-intermediate proficiency levels. In other words, Labeling, Matching, and Selection tasks are more suitable and compatible for lower-intermediate and advanced group, but only the matching task is suitable for upper-intermediate proficiency level.

In a similar study performed by Bahrami (n. d), the influence of task-based activities on listening ability of EFL learners was examined. The participants of that study were ninety senior EFL learners and the sources of data for this quasi-experimental study included two task-based tests of listening comprehension and a test of language proficiency entitled an Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English (ECPE) test. The results of this study demonstrated that at the intermediate level, all the tasks showed some degrees of correspondence with the level in question except the task of selecting. In the upper-intermediate level, all the tasks corresponded with this

level except the "selecting" task. And finally, in the advanced level, the two tasks of "matching" and "labeling" showed correspondence to the level in question, and the two others did not.

V. Conclusion

Listening comprehension is a complex psychological activity that involves various mechanisms. Feyten (1991) claims that more than 45% of communicating time is listening, which clearly shows how important this skill is in overall language ability. Different methods have been tested to promote listening ability of EFL learners in Iran, but unfortunately most EFL learners suffer from listening problems. This study is an attempt to demonstrate the effectiveness of four specific task types in teaching listening comprehension skill and to see if there is any direct correspondence between four specific task types and proficiency level of students. So, forty-five male learners of a private language institute in three different proficiency levels were taught by the help of four task types. Implementing aural task-based materials in the language classroom exposed EFL students to real-language use from the beginning of language study.

Generally speaking, according to the obtained results, the listening-comprehension skill in EFL students tended to improve through exposure to task-based input. Specifically, there is significant positive correlation between listening ability and all four tasks. In terms of correspondence, labeling, selection and matching tasks have high correspondence to advanced and lower intermediate proficiency levels, but only matching task corresponds to upper-intermediate proficiency level. This study implied that each task type has special properties and according to the characteristics of each task it is more suitable for specific proficiency level. According to the obtained results through this experiment, the researcher arrived at the following conclusions:

1- Incorporating tasks and task- based activities in EFL classrooms enhance the listening comprehension skill of learners and task-based teaching of listening may be a suitable and effective alternative for traditional methods of teaching listening. Of course, some task types are more suitable for specific proficiency levels. For best result, it is better to teach listening by tasks that have high correspondency to the learners' proficiency level.

2- It seems that the Iranian EFL course books do not adequately prepare students for task-based instruction due to the fact that they focus excessively on language forms and traditional methods of teaching listening. So, the result of this study and others indicate that helping students make connections to the real world and authentic tasks might facilitate listening comprehension

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A Semiotic-based Approach as an Effective Tool for Teaching Verbal and Non-verbal Aspects of Language

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***Abstract*—Language as a means of communication has been the target of many scholars and linguists such as Saussure (1913), Jakobson (1974), Chomsky (1957) among others. Such scholars and Linguists have discussed the important aspects of Language focusing on the relationship between the signs (signifiers) and objects (signified) (Pierce cited in Ibrahim, 2005:10). Linguistics is used to tackle the non-linguistic signs, i.e. the visual signs, and gestures as well. This paper deals with the basic principles and insights of semiotics and its possible application to foreign language learning settings. It is hoped that the findings of this paper will raise awareness of teachers as a foreign language to what constitutes the semiotic approach and how to apply it.**

***Index Terms*—semiotics, signs, body language, communication, teaching**

I. Introduction

Semiotics is the science of signs, of symbolic behavior or of communication system (Lyons, 2004, p.17). As mentioned above, much research has been conducted on the semiotic perspective, but there has been very little discussion of the application of semiotic insights to education. Papers like this would lead to the emergence of a new field of study called educational semiotics.

Chomsky discusses the relationship between the linguistic and non-linguistic aspects in human life. He focuses on the view that language learning/acquisition is a process of self-investigation, of knowing how the mechanism of the human mind functions. He elaborates that "Language learning is nothing more than what human minds construct when placed in appropriate conditions; they are designed in anything like the same way to learn physics." (Chomsky, 1979, p.35).

Communication, meanwhile, is the exchange of ideas between two or more people. All forms of communication can be categorized as verbal or non-verbal. Much of the communication that takes place among people is verbal. Verbal communication is a conversation between two or more individuals in which they use their speech organs to convey the message. Non-verbal communication is the process of communication among individuals through wordless messages. Such messages can be sent through gestures, body language, facial expressions, eye contact and signs.

II. Verbal Communication

Much controversy has been raised about the validity of language as a means of communication. Man has been differentiated from other creatures in that he uses language for communication. Fromkin et al (2003) assure:

Humans use speech sounds to communicate with each other and to express meanings, but such sounds are not necessary to be an aspect of language, as evidenced by the sign languages (p.23).

According to many scholars, animals, birds and insects like monkeys, dolphins and bees can communicate without language. "The chirping of birds, the squeaking of dolphins and the dancing of bees may potentially represent system similar to human languages. If animal communication systems are not like human language, it will not be due to a lack of speech.*"* (Fromkin et al, ibid, p.23)

In order to be able to communicate, people should be communicatively competent. Johnson and Johnson (1999) talk about four major components of communicative competence:

Grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence includes knowledge of vocabulary, rules of words and sentence formation, linguistics, semantics, pronunciation and spelling. Sociolinguistic competence includes rules of appropriateness of both meanings and grammatical forms in different sociolinguistic contexts. Discourse competence includes the knowledge required to combine forms and meanings to achieve coherent spoken and written text (pp.62-65).

Al–Mutawa and Kailani (1994) stress that the discourse strategy involves the following aspects:

a. Cohesion: This is the creation of ties between sentences by lexical and grammatical means.

b. Coherence: This is a way in which structure is created in texts as in sequential Logic of speech acts.

c. Gambits: These are words and expressions that help regulate conversation, e.g. well, now, oh, yes, etc.

d. Turn-taking: In conversations and dialogues, this refers to the role-changing process from one speaker to another (p. 168).

They also state

The strategic competence is the speaker's ability to solve communication problems by means of strategies. The term covers problem solving devices that learners resort to in order to solve what they experience as problems in speech production and reception. (ibid, p. 198).

Saussure (1913) (cited in Dinneen 1979, p.967) considers language as a phenomenon of two fundamental dimensions: Langue and Parole. The distinction between langue and parole relates to the abstract language system which is called language and the individual utterances made by the speakers of language which are called speech. Parole is defined as what people say. He does not view speaking as a social fact, since it is put under conscious level and it is fully an individual output; a social fact should be used by the entire community. Saussure (1913) states that langue is both a social product of the faculty of speech and a collection of necessary conventions that have been adopted by a social body to permit individuals to exercise this faculty (cited in Hawkes, 2004, p.10). Langue is a set of habits we have been taught by our speech community.

Chomsky's Generative Grammar theory (1957) was a turning point in the twentieth century. He applied Generative Grammar to linguistics with a heavy attack on Structural Grammar. According to the principles of Structuralism, sentences in a text are analyzed under the nine basic patterns and all sentences are subjected to these patterns. Generative Grammar takes advantage of the Structural Grammar to interpret sentences of the same structure, but of different meanings as follows:

John is easy to please.

and

John is eager to please.

Both examples belong to the same grammatical pattern: (Noun + Be + Adjective + Infinitive) with different meanings. Structural grammar does not account for these differences.

A major aim of generative grammar is to provide a means of generating sentences. To achieve this aim, Chomsky draws a fundamental distinction between competence and performance. He thinks of competence as the subconscious knowledge of a set of internal rules while performance is what the speaker actually produces (ibid). Sociolinguistics emphasizes that the EFL learners' communicative competence will remain inadequate unless they are familiar with the appropriate contexts in which the foreign language is used. Ignorance of the cultural features of the foreign language would create instances of misunderstanding or the collapse of the communication process.

III. Non–verbal Communication

As a means of communication, language transmits knowledge and ideas from one individual to another. A great deal of our communication is in a non – verbal form which is transmitted through sign language or other similar alternatives to verbal language. In philosophy, "sign" envisages notions such as symbols, symptoms and signals. It is used in an all-inclusive sense as when semiotics is defined as the science of signs (Crystal, 1992, p. 316).

The concept of a sign language is defined as a set of gestures being used in place of a real language. Yule (2001) remarks that "sign language is a system of gestures developed by a speaker for limited communication in a specific context where speech cannot be used" (p. 202).

Saussure (1857-1913) was the first to introduce the term linguistic signs. He records in his Course de Linguistique General (Paris, 1913; translated by Baskin as Course in General Linguistics, New York, 1959) (cited in Crystal, 1992 p. 307), that the conception of language as a system of mutually defining entities which yields a major influence on social schools in linguistics, such as the Prague school, the Geneva school and glossematics. He defines language as "a system of signs that express ideas" (Hawkes, 2004, p.13). The linguistic sign can be dealt with in terms of the relationship between concept and sound image. Saussure (1913) bridges "concept" with the combination of "sound-image" or signified with signifier which are considered as the two sides of the sign.

The signifier is the sign vehicle; while the signified is the meaning. The signifier is the form that the sign represents whereas the signified is the concept (image) that the form takes. Saussure elaborates that words are signs which have two sides: a mark, which he calls the significant or signifier and a concept which he calls the signified. A sign is not the link between a thing and a name but between a concept and a sound pattern. When you think about a tree, the tree as an object is the signified and the written form is the signifier which represents the tree as coded culturally to our minds (Sert, 2006, p.107). Hawkes (2004) remarks the arbitrariness of the relationship between the signifier and the signified that makes language conservative in nature. It also serves to guarantee the "structural" nature of the system in which it occurs (p. 14).

Eco (1976) considers a sign as "everything that can be taken as standing for something else." (P.16). According to pierce (1977) "a sign is something which stands to somebody for something in some respect" (p.72). He adds that signs are divided into three types: icons, indices and symbols. Icons are the signs which are related or similar to the objects they stand for by virtue of some physical resemblance. Indices are the signs that relate physically to the objects they stand for because they are part of the event or the object for which they represent. For example, smoke underlines the existence of fire because the two are part of the same phenomenon. Symbols are the signs arbitrarily linked with their

objects. For example, the word "dog" stands for an animal. Hawkes (2004) states that a diagram or a painting has an iconic relationship to its subject by virtue of its resemblance of it (p.105). It is the signifier to its object signified in iconic mode. An index has association with its reference. It is considered as a sign which refers to the object. It is affected by its object and has some qualities in common with that object. In the index, the relationship is concrete, actual and usually of a sequential, causal nature. The pointing finger is a signifier whose relationship to its signified is indexical in mode. A knock on the door is an index of someone's presence and the sound of car's horn is a sign of the car's presence in the same mode.

The word symbol is used to designate the linguistic sign or what is called signifier. Unlike icon and index, Pierce considers the symbol as conventional. Icons and indexes are not conventional (Standford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2010, p.5). In the symbol, the relationship between the signifier and the signified is arbitrary.

It requires the active presence of the interpretent to make the signifying connection. A symbol has an arbitrary relationship with its referent. A word or an image is symbolic when it implies something more than its meaning. It has a wider unconscious aspect. Sert (2006) points out:

A symbol is a mode in which the signifier does not resemble the signified but which is fundamentally arbitrary or purely conventional so that the relationship must be learned (numbers, national flags, particular languages, Morse code, etc).Icon is a mode in which the signifier is perceived as resembling or imitating the signified (cartoon, portrait, imitative gesture, etc) (p. 110) .

Chandler (2002) (cited in Sert 2006 p.110) argues that "an index is mode in which the signifier is not arbitrarily, but directly connected to the signified as in the relationship between fire and smoke."

The triadic relationship of object (O), sign vehicle (S) and interpreting (I) can be represented as follows:

Icon: O-⟶ S —— I

Resemblance A significant outcome is produced in the interpreter's mind by forming a relationship that resembles the object.

Index: O⟶ S —— I

Real connection A significant outcome is produced in the Interpreter's mind by "noticing" the object.

Symbol: O⟶ S —— I

Rule A significant outcome is produced in the interpreter's mind by forming a structure that refers to the object

Mc Neil (1974 ,p.42) (cited in Ibrahim, 2005 p.11).

Gestures are the use of motions of the human body as a means of non-verbal communication. Davaninzhad (2009) states:

One of the most frequently observed, but least understood clue is a hand movement. Most people use hand movement regularly when talking. It can indicate a particular meaning, feeling or intention; while some gestures (e.g., a clenched fist) have universal meanings, others do not. (p.4)

O.K gesture has different meanings in different cultures and societies. Putting your index finger in your thumb means in America everything is good; while in France it means a sign of insult (ibid). Facial expressions reveal the attitude of the speaker. For example, a smile can communicate the acceptance of an individual's answer while raised eyebrow means disagreement.

However, many body gestures and verbal non-linguistic actions other than verbal linguistic utterances are culture – oriented to the extent that they may mean something in one location of a peculiar dialect but nothing or at best something different in another. Somebody movements or non-verbal gestures like side-movement of the head, lifting movement of the head or shoulders or nodding are more culture bound than verbal gestures. A side movement of the head could mean rejection in Jordan or "no way" while this same non-verbal action could mean acceptance somewhere else in the Arab world. So is the case with face lifting which could mean disagreement in one specific culture and agreement in another.

This applies to many verbal non-linguistic actions other than verbal linguistic utterances, like /ʧi'/, /ʃ:/ and /ju: / in the Arab world and like /pu: / in England could signal different attitudes in different places and different dialects. /ʧi'/, in Iraqi Arabic dialect is a sound underlying rejection and disagreement which is purely peculiar of an Iraqi communicative convention. Nevertheless, "a long /ʃ/ is a sound underlying a request or a demand for silence and this sound is normally coupled with the placement of the forefinger on the lips. This sound-gesture action can be viewed as rather universal. In Jordan, /ju:h/ is a message of boredom. It could indicate some other suggestion elsewhere. In fact, this issue is worth further investigation. Such gestures or verbal non–linguistic actions can be dealt with in the context of the sign system of icons, indices and symbols. These are culture oriented conventions which may have different or even conflicting interpretations by different interpretants in different locations and cultures.

Clearly, the understanding of a message be it verbal or non-verbal involves intralinguistic and extralinguistic factors (Robins, 1989 p.28). Some meanings are learned and understood away from any specific extralinguistic context, e.g. all red signs are warnings. To know where a request "please close the window", a polite request "would you mind closing the window" or brusque order "close the window!" would be appropriate requires a considerable knowledge of personal social relations, social convention, etc. In short, Saussure's indivisible link between the signifier and the signified is often defined by some extralinguistic presuppositions especially on sentence, not only on word level.

To conclude, social semiotics is a branch of semiotics. It includes the use of signs to construct the life of community. Societies differ in their conception of signs. A sign used by one society may imply a different message in another. For example, the color red indicates danger and prohibition in Jordan, whereas in India represents life for people. Lemke (1990) states that social semiotics is a theory of how people make meaning in social context.(p. 186)

IV. Pedagogical Implications

In spite of Chomsky's statement at a language teaching conference at Northeast University in the United States that linguistics has no direct relation with the teaching of languages, the fact remains that the two disciplines are closely related and interrelated. Chomsky (1966) remarks "I am, frankly, rather skeptical about the significance, for the teaching of language, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology".

Semiotics as the study of signs has been an area of interest to linguists and educationalists. The application of the semiotic approach to education has recently gained significant interests and it emerges as a new field of study called educational semiotics. Stables and Gough (2006) state:

It is important to note that the semiotic perspective argued for here is not merely an application to educational theory of the work regularly done by semioticians. It is rather a theory of learning and choice grounded in a view of living as semiosis. (p. 274).

Erton (2006) assures the importance of educational semiotics:

Semiotics is a very influential and essential field of study, because by making use of signs the learners are able to achieve a lot of information on various fields such as, literature, art, architecture, psychology, anthropology, philosophy, etc. (p.75)

This is ascribable to the importance of teaching foreign languages and target culture. The importance of using semiotic signs in education is due to the fact that culture and society play an essential role in defining the learning environment. The culture is intermingled with social signs and social codes. Signs have different meanings in different cultural contexts. Lemke (1990) remarks that "social semiotics is a theory of how people make meaning in social contexts." (186). Accordingly, foreign language learning is considered as a product of the foreign culture. In ELT classes, the teacher may resort to imitative gestures, pictures and visualized materials associated with the target culture which is part of a foreign language.

This will help students draw an analogy between their native culture and the target culture and this would facilitate learning the foreign language as it helps highlight areas of difficulty in language learning.

One of the objectives of educational semiotics is that the teacher should have knowledge of these signs and develop the materials and techniques for the teaching atmosphere. The teacher ought to visualize the learning materials according to the principles of educational semiotics and to the relations between signs. The results may become promising and lead to effective learning. Using signs in the classroom gives learners a lot of information about different fields. The use of semiotic elements (visual material) like flashcards and wall pictures helps the learners contextualize the meaning of the vocabulary within their minds and facilitates the learning process by passing information to the long-term memory. Facial expressions reveal the attitude of the teacher which can also be used effectively in teaching. For example, a smile can communicate the acceptance of the learner's answer or it can be used as a stimulus or a reward to the learners. Raised eyebrow means disagreement and gives hints for the learner to change or modify his answer, as noted above.

The curriculum is also influenced by the semiotic approach. Books, flashcards and wall pictures ought to contain a set of symbols which can be useful in the affective domain of learning. Erton (2006) states:

The cassette signs indicate the time of a listening activity, a smiling face indicates the success of the activity, the tick and the cross sign refer to a true/false activity and different colors in a textbook might represent different sections of language study: speaking, reading, listening, etc. (p. 85)

The teacher may also use such semiotic symbols as a part of his techniques in teaching foreign languages because the use of signs and symbols by teachers and learners is an effective and influential technique in teaching foreign languages. Erton asserts:

"*Since semiotics is the combination of signs and symbols to communicate information, the student, and the teacher can make use of a number of signs, some of which are iconic and some are symbols. Thus, it can be said semiotics is a fundamental issue to be considered in language teaching pedagogy." (ibid P. 74).*

Semiotics can be used to facilitate teaching new vocabulary. The teacher can accompany the educational sign like a no-smoking sign by a sentence or a phrase so that the learners will recall them easily. Sert (2006) states "while teaching new vocabulary, if new words are reinforced with relevant pictures, the result will be the long-term coding of this target language item."(p.109) Today's textbook and teaching material teem with colorful pictures aimed at creating a make-shift learning atmosphere and often creating a real-life learning setting.

Willis (1981) (cited in Sert, 2006 p.109) conducted a study on two groups: the experimental group and the traditional group. The teacher in the experimental group used the following symbols in evaluating the students' written products:

s - spelling

s / p - singular, plural

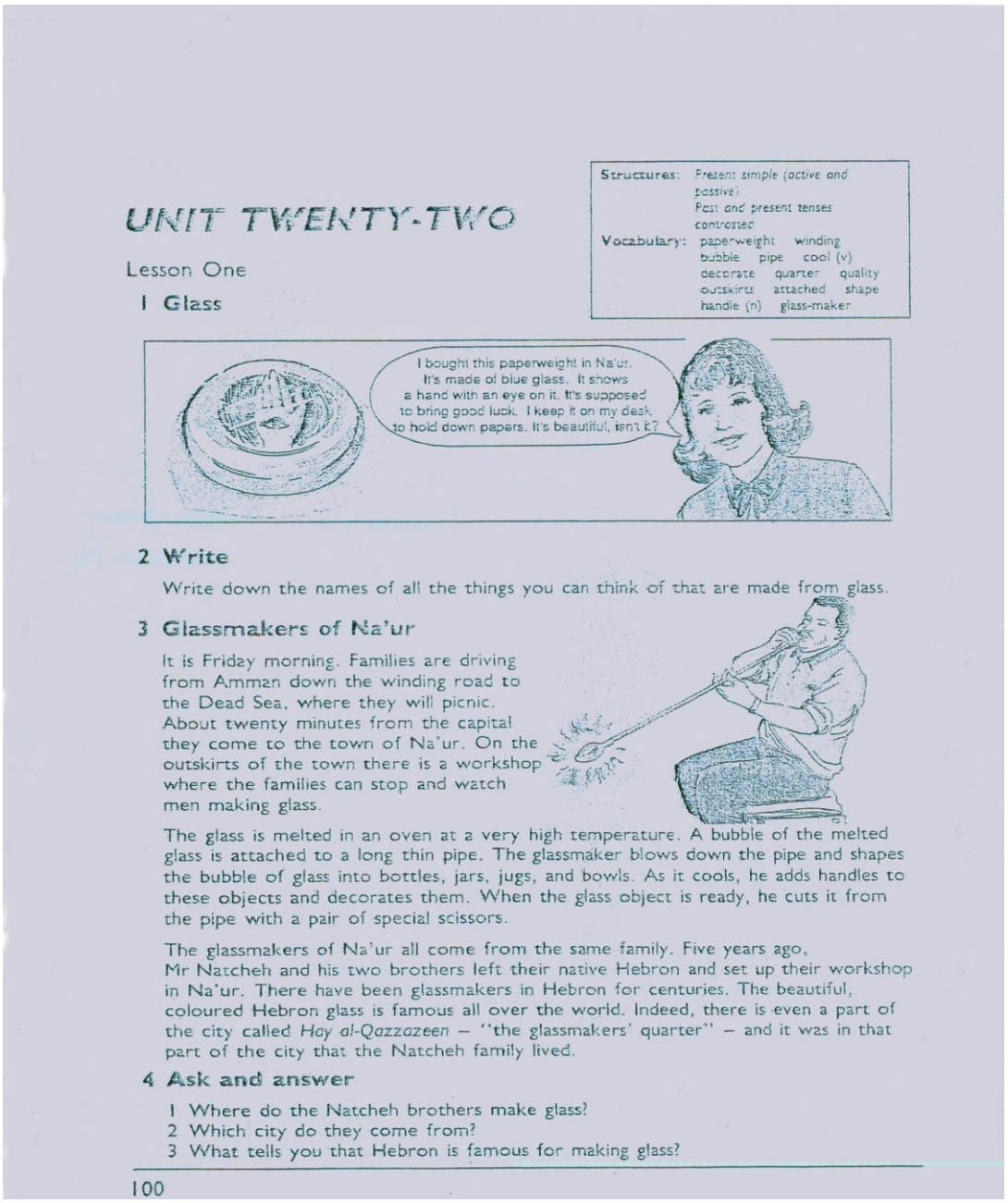
c – concord (subject – verb agreement)

w.o – word order
p – Punctuation
t – tense ,etc

The teacher in the traditional group used long sentences to evaluate the products of his students. The researcher found that the experimental group performed better than the traditional one.

V. Sample Classroom Application: Speaking

a. The Reading Text: Glassmakers of Na'ur (Cobb et al, 1997,pp.100-101).



UNIT TWENTY-TWO

Structures: Present simple (active and passive)
Past and present tenses contrasted
Vocabulary: paperweight winding bubble pipe cool (v) decorate quarter quality outskirts attached shape handle (n) glass-maker

Lesson One

1 Glass

I bought this paperweight in Na'ur. It's made of blue glass. It shows a hand with an eye on it. It's supposed to bring good luck. I keep it on my desk to hold down papers. It's beautiful, isn't it?

2 Write

Write down the names of all the things you can think of that are made from glass.

3 Glassmakers of Na'ur

It is Friday morning. Families are driving from Amman down the winding road to the Dead Sea, where they will picnic. About twenty minutes from the capital they come to the town of Na'ur. On the outskirts of the town there is a workshop where the families can stop and watch men making glass.

The glass is melted in an oven at a very high temperature. A bubble of the melted glass is attached to a long thin pipe. The glassmaker blows down the pipe and shapes the bubble of glass into bottles, jars, jugs, and bowls. As it cools, he adds handles to these objects and decorates them. When the glass object is ready, he cuts it from the pipe with a pair of special scissors.

The glassmakers of Na'ur all come from the same family. Five years ago, Mr Natcheh and his two brothers left their native Hebron and set up their workshop in Na'ur. There have been glassmakers in Hebron for centuries. The beautiful, coloured Hebron glass is famous all over the world. Indeed, there is even a part of the city called *Hay al-Qazzazeen* – "the glassmakers' quarter" – and it was in that part of the city that the Natcheh family lived.

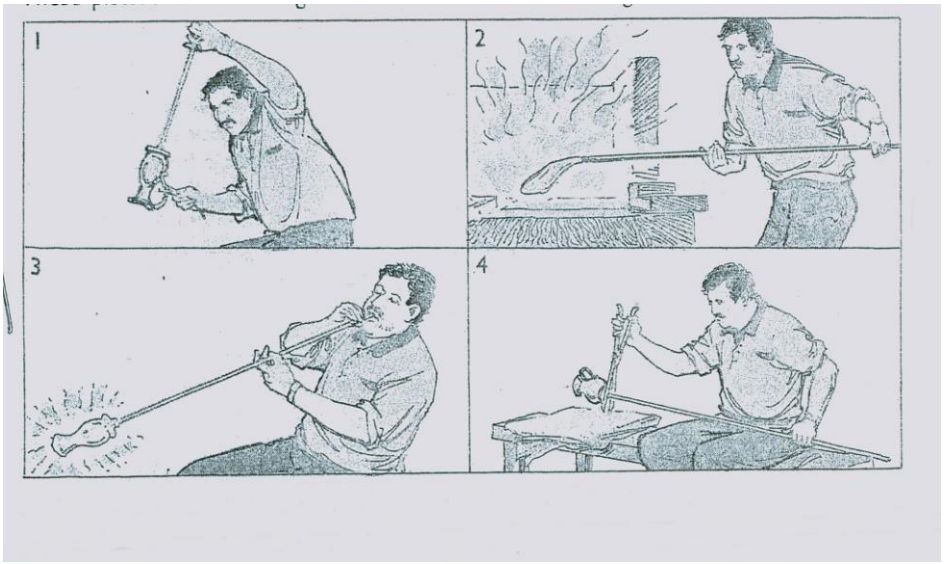
4 Ask and answer

1 Where do the Natcheh brothers make glass?
2 Which city do they come from?
3 What tells you that Hebron is famous for making glass?

100

b. Semiotic signs and symbols: The semiotic signs and symbols of this activity (speaking) are: map of Jordan and the West Bank, Wall picture of old glass factory symbolizing the Jordanian culture and pictures of how the glass is made in a traditional glass factory.

c. Procedure: By making use of the above semiotic symbols, the students are asked to locate the site of Na'ur and Hebron on the map. Under the guidance of the teacher, the students are asked to talk about these cities and how we can travel to these cities from Amman. The map of Jordan and the west Bank will be helpful. The teacher offers the following pictures, which show the stages of how to make glass in the traditional glass factory:



These pictures are presented as semiotic signs. The teacher asks the students to put the pictures in the right order and to make up their own questions .One group can ask another (or one partner to another in a pair). For example, they could ask the following questions:

-Is the oven hot or cold? Why?

- What is the pipe for?

-What is on the end of the pipe?

- What is the man going to do with the pipe?

Students are more likely to remember language when it is presented visually through semiotic signs. Pictures of an old traditional glass factory and a new one which appears as semiotic signs are presented. The students are asked to compare between them. As a response to the students, the teacher's silence may help foster the student's self-reliance and his initiative. Teacher's gestures will help facilitate learning and they are easily understood because such gestures are culturally familiar to both the teacher and his students. They would give quick responses while carrying out the activities.

VI. Conclusion

Language as a means of communication has been under focus in the last century by researchers and linguists like Saussure (1913), Jacobson (1974), Chomsky (1957), Krisitva (1986), and others. Their main concern, among other things has been the relationship between the sign and the object and the transfer of the cultural elements to language environment. Communication is the exchange of ideas among people. All forms of communication can be classified as verbal and non-verbal. Verbal communication is a conversation between two or more individuals by using the speech organs to convey a message. Non-verbal communication is the process of communication among people through wordless messages, such as gestures, body language, facial expressions and signs. Some scholars like Saussure, pierce, and others have tackled the sign in the domain of communication.

Throughout the paper, the contribution of semiotics to education has been tackled. In order to maximize the efficiency of foreign language teaching, the teacher should acquaint his students with the semiotic signs to facilitate learning. The importance of using semiotics in education can be attributed to the fact that culture and society play an effective role in the learning environment as many scholars and researchers in this field have stressed.

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Towards an Understanding of Ecological Challenges of Second Language Teaching: A Critical Review

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***Abstract*—In an attempt to explore the ecological aspects of Second Language Teaching (SLT) Dilemma (Danesi, 2003), the present study aims at addressing the ecological challenges pervading in the realm of second/foreign language teaching over the last decades. To this end, the study seeks to trace the major theoretical reactions dealing with ecological challenges in the rich historiography of language teaching during the last two decades. In this regard, this article outlines a classified overview of the three perceptible trends to highlight the prevailing issues of contention and come up with some insights accordingly. The three scholastic trends are: (a) Post-Method approach; (b) 'In-Method' approach; and (c) Complexity approach. To elucidate the above trend-setting reactions, the researcher delves into their underpinning principles and assumptions to be able to juxtapose and compare them in a more meticulous fashion. The article also encompasses some concluding remarks which may shed light on the ecological panorama of second language pedagogy.**

***Index Terms*—ecological challenges of second language teaching (SLT), SLT dilemma, ELT methodology**

I. Introduction

A. Ecological Aspects of Second Language Teaching (SLT) Dilemma

Within the domain of second language pedagogy, a host of methods and approaches have been proposed over the last decades which have in large part contributed to the development of second language teaching. Nevertheless, in practice, they have not been sufficiently prosperous from a methodological perspective. In principle, doubt has always been cast on the pedagogical effectiveness of teaching practices, learning materials, and language syllabuses. In fact, as such methods and approaches have been launched into implementing their assumptions in the given teaching contexts; the vast majority of them have virtually failed to meet the expectations and satisfaction of their target language learners. This may indicate that the reality in all likelihood is still far from the ideal (Danesi, 2003; Mahmoodzadeh, 2011, 2012).

Given such language teaching crisis termed "*Second language Teaching (SLT) Dilemma*" by Danesi (2003), seemingly the socio-cultural forces sometimes accompanied by somewhat ideological changes, have played a pivotal role in the global landscape of English language teaching (ELT), since the central impacts of ecological constraints have almost pervaded in language teaching. To the author's knowledge, increasingly growing ethno-cultural and ecological challenges in the application of teaching methods and approaches can significantly account for the emergence of the SLT Dilemma as well as the neurolinguistically-oriented methodological challenges (see Danesi, 2003 for the neurolinguistically-based methodological explanation). By definition, in this study *ecology* generally refers to the study of biological organisms within the environment. At the innermost level of ecological factors, are the socio-cultural variables in which the participants and contexts are inextricably linked. In this sense, an ecological perspective on language teaching "focuses attention on the subjective reality which various aspects of the teaching–learning process assume for participants, and on the dynamic interaction between methodology and context" (Tudor, 2003, p. 1).

B. The Advent of Ecological Challenges in the Domain of ELT Methodology

In the circle of ELT, the infancy of methodological failures constrained by socio-contextual influences was not principally stressed until the predominant inception of communicative language teaching (CLT) which was established as a reaction to grammar-based teaching realized in the teaching materials, syllabi, and methods prevalent in the 1960s. Almost one decade after the heyday of CLT, however, researchers around the world began to observe and report the indication of socio-cultural barriers which adversely contrasted with the ideological underpinning of CLT methodology and thus significantly impeded the implementation of CLT in the given teaching contexts. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006a), one of the central claims of CLT as well as its offshoot, namely, task based language teaching (TBLT) is that it can be contextualized to meet various learning and teaching needs, wants, and situations. But advocates of both CLT and TBLT have been using the term *context* mainly to refer to linguistic and pragmatic features excluding the broader social, cultural, political, and historical particularities.

However, the vestige of these methodological challenges has been widely tracked down in various EFL settings around the world (e.g. Breen, 2006; Butler, 2005; Chowdhury, 2003; Savignon & Wang, 2003; Shamim, 1996). To

exemplify the materialized incongruities of methodologies with teaching contexts, some related to CLT are consider in the following: From South Korea, Li (1998) points to the difficulties in adopting CLT and attributes the source of the difficulty to the differences between the underlying educational theories of South Korea and Western countries. From China, Yu (2001) and Hu (2005) report considerable resistance to CLT both from teachers and learners. Likewise, Ellis (1994) questions the relevance of CLT in English language teaching by Australian teachers in Vietnam. He describes CLT as socially constructed with Western values such as *individualism* (versus what he calls *collectivism* in Vietnam) and, as such, not culturally attuned to Asian conditions.

Given the orthodox syndrome of the above ecological obstacles identified in ELT literature, some researchers, however, have embarked on delineating some possible resourceful remedies to confront these seemingly pedagogical challenges or constraints surfacing in different educational environments (see Bax, 2003; Bjorning-Gyde, Doogan, & East, 2008; Ellis, 2005; Fenton & Terasawa, 2006; Johnson, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001, 2003a; Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Pishghadam, 2011; Pishghadam & Zabihi, in press). Nevertheless, note further that the widespread ecological constraints might have germinated in some of the feasible solutions as well. For instance, Howard and Millar (2009) investigated the applicability of Ellis's (2005) *principles for successful instructed second language learning* in South Korea and concluded that some ecological factors can hinder the effective implementation of these principles.

II. The Classification of Approaches towards Ecological Challenges of Second Language Teaching

To establish a sufficiently relevant background, the present study attempts to review the ecological aspects of SLT Dilemma over the last two decades. In doing so, the researcher surveys the three perceptible trends which have endeavored to tackle the ecological impediments: (a) *Post-method approach* (b) '*In-method' approach* (c) *Complexity approach*. The study, then, gives some suggestions which might bring into language teaching research some insights.

A. Post-method Approach

Around the early 1990s, second language pedagogy witnessed some fundamental changes and innovations which led to the decline of the long-established method era. In this respect, Pennycook (1989), Prabhu (1990), Stern (1991), Richards (1990), and Kumaravadivelu (1994) were among the first iconoclasts who called the conceptual coherence and validity of method into question and upheld an *anti-method* position instead. In essence, this was a decade during which the supremacy of one method over another came to an end and the *post method era* emerged with a focus on how teachers could develop and explore their own teaching through *reflective teaching* and *action research* (Richards, 2002). As Richards and Lockhart (1994) note, the emergence of post-method pedagogy led to the revitalization of teaching from the inside rather than by trying to make teachers and teaching to conform to an external model.

In this approach, different frameworks and guiding principles have been tendered so far to provide support for teachers as they determine the microstrategies and teaching practices that are most appropriate for their individual contexts (see Allwright, 2003; Ellis, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2003a, 2006b; Lightbown, 2000; Richards, 2001). Given below is a brief account of the underlying tenets of Kumaravadivelu's (1994) *post-method pedagogy* as the most widely recognized pedagogical framework put forward for ELT teachers and practitioners.

Post-Method Pedagogy

Post-method pedagogy was perhaps one of the early attempts to resolve the ubiquitous spread of ecological challenges and constraints proliferating in the realm of second language pedagogy. According to post-method pedagogy, the pervious language teaching methods have been developed and prescribed for use based on a set of over-generalized methodological tenets. Therefore, they have failed to fulfill teachers and learners' needs and demands to a great extent due to the fact that they are not context-specific and can not be applied and implemented in all local teaching contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). In this way, Kumaravadivelu underemphasizes the pedagogical values associated with the individual methods in the broad context of language teaching and asserts that the method era has come to an end and the search for an alternative method is of no avail. In the same vein, some other researchers (e.g., Bax, 2003; Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004) have likewise endorsed the inadequacy of CLT and TBLT in addressing broad contextual issues and have called for a *context approach* to language teaching. In this regard, three decades ago, Richards (1987) rightly believes that language teaching profession should go beyond teaching methodologies and focus on exploring the nature and conditions of effective teaching and learning. This crucial suggestion was later germinated and crystallized in the framework of post-method pedagogy.

According to Kumaravadivelu (2001), teaching beyond methods has led to a focus on the process of learning and teaching, rather than ascribing a central role to methods as the key to successful teaching. To elucidate the underpinning tenets of post-method pedagogy, Kumaravadivelu discusses that

Post-method pedagogy must a) facilitate the advancement of a context-sensitive language education based on a true understanding of local linguistic, sociocultural, and political particularities; (b) rupture the reified role relationship between theorists and practitioners by enabling teachers to construct their own theory of practice; and (c) also tap the sociopolitical consciousness that participants bring with them (p. 537).

Kumaravadivelu (2003b) maintains that post-method pedagogy comprises a three-dimensional system including three pedagogical parameters of *particularity, practicality, and possibility*. These parameters "interact with each other in a synergic relationship where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" (p. 545). At its core, any post-method

pedagogy has to be pedagogy of particularity. That is to say, it must be "sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu … all pedagogy, like all politics, is local. To ignore local exigencies is to ignore lived experiences" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 538). To phrase in another word, such pedagogy is "responsive to and responsible for local individual, institutional, social, and cultural contexts in which learning and teaching take place" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, p. 544). In summary, pedagogy of practicality aims for a teacher-generated theory of practice. This assertion hinges on a rather simple and straightforward proposition: No theory of practice can be useful and usable unless it is generated through practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). And, the parameter of possibility "seeks to empower classroom participants so that they can critically reflect on the social and historical conditions contributing to create the cultural forms and interested knowledge they encounter in their lives" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, p. 544).

Additionally, there seems to be another perceptible vexing ecological perspective within this approach which can substantially influence or even constrain the implementation of ELT methodology. In this regard, methodologies and teaching materials, especially those originating in the West, have been severely criticized for embodying politically and culturally imperialist stance which has permeated in the domain of second language pedagogy and has dramatically undermined the process of language learning and teaching accordingly (see Pennycook, 1989; Phillipson, 1992, 2009 for further details and also see Pishghadam & Zabihi, 2012 for some recent innovations). In this sense, Sampson (1984) points to the fallacious assumption of *technocratic imperialism*. Through the biased lens of this imperialism, everything exported from developed countries to developing countries is superior and intellectual goods such as teaching methods and materials are value-free and therefore universally appropriate. In this respect, Holliday (1994, p. 175), for example, asserts that "learner-centeredness carries with it a set of perhaps naive ideas which belong to the BANA (British, Australian, North American) professional-academic culture which provide a banner for the moral superiority of the communicative approach" (as cited in Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

In a similar vein of argument, Kumaravadivelu (2003b) addresses the emergences of *colonialism* in the prevailing language teaching methods and argues that "the methods used in different parts of the world, however modified they are, still basically adhere to the colonial concept of method"(p. 541). In view of such colonial phenomenon, Kumaravadivelu maintains that the concept of method can be viewed from its four inter-related dimensions, that is, scholastic, linguistic, cultural, and economic perspectives. In an effort to deal with this postcolonial crisis, Kumaravadivelu proposes a bottom-up processing framework called *macrostrategic framework*. This framework consists of both macrostrategies and microstrategies derived from theoretical, empirical and experimental insights to second/foreign language learning and teaching. It is a broad guideline based on which teachers are able to generate their own situation-specific or need-based classroom techniques (see Kumaravadivelu, 2003b for description of the 10 micro/macrostrategies). Within this postcolonial project, practitioners of post-method pedagogy are cautioned against two deleterious dimensions of the *post-method predicament*, namely *the process of marginalization* and *the practice of self-marginalization* (see also Kumaravadivelu, 2003b for subtle influence of these two domination-subordination agents). However, in terms of the critiques of post-method paradigm, Tajeddin (2005) contends that "while being a consequence of the general trend of paradigm shift, the post-method paradigm is founded on a number of premises still prevalent in the method era" (p. 1). There are also further similar dissenting voices; for instance, Larsen-Freeman (2005) and Liu (1995) argue that post-method is not an alternative to 'method' but only an addition to 'method'.

B. 'In-method' Approach

Given the well-documented studies which have indicated the observed mismatches between CLT principles and the practical applicability of its methodology in different teaching contexts, researchers began to focus on the cultural appropriateness of the methodologies in the given contexts. Within this approach, the notion of ethno-methodological appropriateness is mainly emphasized, whereas the steadfast pedagogical values of ELT methods are still recognized. As such, methods are valuable when they are used sensitively, sensibly, and inquiringly (Holliday, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Furthermore, Larsen-Freeman (2000) questions the position of *absolutism* in ELT methodology which claims that one single method is best in the area of language pedagogy. As an alternative to this position, she advocates two other related positions, namely, *relativism* and *pluralism*. The former position states that methods have their own weaknesses and strengths and thus are not equally suited for all teaching contexts. The latter position calls for the synthesis of different methods and contends that there is still some value to each method. In this sense, "rather than adopting or rejecting methods in their entirety as being suitable or unsuitable for a particular context, different methods, or parts of methods should be practiced in the same teaching context" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 182).

Furthermore, a growing body of criticisms have drawn attention to these methodology-related problems during the last two decades, claiming that there can be no one best method (e.g. Bartolome, 1994) because a method which is suitable in one part of the world is not necessarily appropriate for all parts of the world. In view of this methodological crisis, some research studies have yielded similar confirming insights for CLT approaches (e.g. Chowdhury, 2003; Ellis, 1994; Hu, 2002; Nishino, 2008; Savignon & Wang, 2003; Stapleton, 1995; Wu & Fang, 2002). In effect, the methodological challenges reported within CLT approaches indicate that although CLT is perceived as progressive and efficient in some parts of the world, it is not seen as an appropriate way to teach languages everywhere, since many of its underpinning values conflict with those of other cultures (Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

The Reconciliation of Language Pedagogy with ELT Methods

One of the main proponents of the 'In-method' approach who has attempted to raise the reconciliation of language pedagogy with ELT methods is Larsen-Freeman (1999). In fact, she revitalizes the intrinsic value of 'method' itself and disapproves of the emergence of post-method era in second language teaching. In defense of the overlooked aspects of ELT methods, Larsen-Freeman argues that discarding the crucial merits of methods is only a misconception and it is a pity that post-method teaching is the final response to the SLT Dilemma. On the contrary, she truly believes that methods can still serve language teaching substantially. In attempting to be culturally appropriate, Larsen-Freeman (1999) asserts that methods must not be considered *a priori* as appropriate or inappropriate to any given teaching contexts, since they can contribute to the de-skilling of language teachers. Indeed, she believes that "assuming that teachers are helpless victims of ideological imposition and disregarding their agency in the teaching/learning process seems just as much an affront as assuming that new methodologies are superior to traditional ones" (p. 26). According to Larsen-Freeman, the main reason for methodological failures lies in the fact the proposed methods have been imposed on teachers by others and are not going to be shaped by teachers' own knowledge, beliefs, and expertise.

Given the ecological challenges in the landscape of ELT methodology, Larsen-Freeman (1999) discusses that the key to resolve these constrains is moving beyond *ideology* to *inquiry*, a way which can avoid the inappropriate uses of methods, while benefiting from them at the same time. To elaborate on her proposal, then she introduces the notion of *seven "I's"*— moving beyond *Ideology to Inquiry* while challenging the methodological myths of *Inclusive generalizations, Intactness* and *Immutability*, and the false assumption that *Imposition* leads to *Implementation.*. In line with Larsen-Freeman's reaction to the ecological constraints in question, Holliday (1999) stresses the significance of individual differences and similarly argues that a *large culture approach* (by large he means ethnic and national entities) results in reductionist overgeneralizations of foreign educators, students, and societies. According to Holliday, one can not determine the appropriateness of a particular methodology on the basis of cultural stereotypes. Instead, it must be decided by politically and individually-sensitive local educators.

According to Prabhu (1990), methods are not just empty vehicles delivering language content. That is, by inquiring into their practice via interacting with other ideologies, it helps keep teachers' teaching alive and prevent it from becoming stale and overly routinized. In fact, methods are by no means superimposed on language teaching and can be crystallized differently nonetheless due to both contextual differences and teachers' stage of development (Larsen-Freeman, 1999). According to Larsen-Freeman, teachers can borrow the techniques of a method ad hoc, without its accompanying values because teachers must not only develop their thoughts about teaching, but also their actions or techniques. To meet the aims of the study, the researcher here manifests how ecological constraints of language pedagogy are viewed and dealt with within another related groundbreaking approach called *Complexity approach*.

C. Complexity Approach

Generally what makes Complexity approach so attractive and useful for scientists is attributable to its ways of unraveling the mystery of what appears to be pure randomness. As such, it gives a new perspective demonstrating the existence of deeper explanation for the multi-faceted world in which we live. In this approach, the questions related to natural systems that have been discarded because of appearing to be unsolvable have also begun to be answered. By definition, *complex systems* are composed of multiple agents that interact with and adapt to one another and the environment while co-evolving and self-organizing without any central control (Kauffman, 1993, 1995). However, in applied linguistics, researchers usually do not draw a distinction between chaos and complexity referring to them as chaos/complexity (see Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron 2008a). As Mallows (2002) remarks, "chaos is understood in an interestingly paradoxical way as order without predictability. We cannot predict individual moments in the life of a system, but the end results of its seemingly random movement are discernable order" (p. 3).

According to Larsen-Freeman (1997), chaos/complexity scientists have identified a number of describing features of complex systems. The main features of these complex systems are known to be "*dynamic, nonlinear, chaotic, unpredictable, sensitive to initial conditions, open, self-organizing, feedback sensitive* and *adaptive*" (p. 142). Within this approach, Larsen-Freeman considers ecology as a complex network of interacting organisms which leads to theory building that learns from complexity science and chaos theory. To clarify the characteristics of chaos in this theory, McAndrew (1997) also assigns three features to this concept: "a) chaos is characterized by a sensitive dependence on initial conditions or what has become known as the *butterfly effect*; b) chaotic system is aperiodic or never undergoes a regular repetition of values: no repeat system; c) *strange attractors* (attract and repel)" (p. 39). However, the present study does not intend to overview all aspects of chaos/complexity paradigm in its entirety. Instead, it focuses on its ecological aspects to illustrate how the ecological challenges of language teaching are dealt with within this approach.

Complexity and Second Language Teaching (SLT)

By virtue of this approach, ecological challenges of language teaching are addressed in a more broad sense which is virtually beyond the scope of the Post-method and 'In-method' approach. Drawing on the prevailing emergence of complexity paradigm in some social sciences, there seems to be a relatively recent line of research acknowledging the multidimensional aspects of non-linearity and complexity sustaining in SLA and SLT (Cameron, 1999; De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2005; Hadidi Tamjid, 2008; Hodge, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 1997, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008b). However, Larsen-Freeman (1997) was the first SLA researcher who pointed out the emergence of complexity paradigm in SLA and ushered in new directions in thinking about language learning processes. Larsen-Freeman (2002) argues that the chaos/ complexity theory advocates a social participation view of SLA without excluding the

psycholinguistic perspective. In holding learner and context as inseparable, one of the visible discrepancies between this approach and the Post-method and 'In-method' approach is that this approach emphasizes the importance of adopting an 'all-inclusive perspective'. That is, viewing language learner and complex teaching context as unpredictably co-evolving and co-adaptive dynamic (sub) systems nested within other interacting complex systems.

In terms of second language pedagogy, several researchers have also concluded that classroom practices can be manifested in a relatively predictable manner as far as only linear teaching methods are involved. That is, when unforeseen and unidentified factors have an unpredictable impact, the classrooms and the participants in them are in a state of flux and thus linear cause and effect descriptions cannot comprehensively account for the possible pedagogical constraints in the classrooms (see Burns & Knox, 2011; Finch, 2001; Hodge, 2003; Tudor, 2001). In this sense, a live language learning acquisition system seems to be always in flux and never reaches equilibrium, although it undergoes period of stagnation and anarchy called *the edge of chaos* (see Waldrop, 1993 for further characteristics of the edge of chaos) in which maximum learning can occur. In fact, these periods are considered as phases of maximum creativity where the systems operate between order and chaos/ randomness and attempt to bring them into a special kind of balance via the emergence of new *attractors*. Attractors refer to "states or particular modes of behaviors, which the system prefers" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, p. 49). Considering the teaching context as the initial condition of second language teaching, it can also be argued that ecological challenges faced by teachers and learners such as the examples of the ecologically-oriented constrains of ELT methodology mentioned earlier may lead to the creation of the edge of chaos in the learning systems of learners, exhibiting a new linguistic behavior or attractor accordingly.

By the same token, other researchers have likewise examined language classrooms from ecological perspectives within this approach, (see Kramsch, 2002; Van Lier, 1997, 2000, 2004). For example, Van Lier (1997) argues that by adopting an ecological perspective on observation of learning, we can focus on the complex processes of interactions and unravel them from the inside out, in all their complexity. However, given the ecological challenges of second language teaching, the influential studies of Tudor (1998, 2003) are perhaps among the exceptions.

With respect to resolving these ecological challenges, first Tudor (1998) proposes the concept of *rationality* and cautions against the vexing perception of rationality in language teaching in which it is fallaciously treated as a discrete set of principles used to guide decision making in an objective, linear and generally applicable manner. According to Tudor, this view ignores the reality that language teaching is construed as the dynamic interaction of different rationalities involved in the given teaching contexts which is unique to each classroom and can rarely be predicted in advance. In this sense, Tudor also introduces the idea of *contextual negotiation* to deal with the possible ecological constrains. The idea of contextual negotiation incorporates the ideologies from student rationality, teacher rationality, methodological rationality, and socio-cultural rationality. Considering language teaching as contextual negotiation, Tudor (2002) asserts that context is a complex phenomenon which entails the negotiation of its two main components, namely, *pragmatic* and *mental*. "The pragmatic context of teaching relates to the objectively observable features of the language teaching situation …The mental context of teaching arises out of the attitudes, beliefs, behavioral expectations, goals and aspirations which participants bring with them to the classroom" (pp. 1-2).

On the other hand, however, a few critics of the complex view of language learning (see, for instance, Benson & Hunter, 1993) have purported that since learning is so chaotic and unpredictable; teaching can not be sufficiently sustained and must therefore be of no avail. In response to this fallacious assumption, Harshbarger (2007) argues that complex system behaviors are not entirely random and unfathomable. In the light of such idea, Harshbarger considers the natural phenomenon of hurricane as a metaphorical example to explain this issue. He states that "a hurricane is a complex system that can't be directly controlled, but contextual influences such as prevailing winds and temperature differentials over land and water produce tendencies that guide these storms to move and develop in roughly predictable ways" (p. 12). In defense of the complexity paradigm in the area of second language teaching, he also asserts that the complexity perspective is not inimical to any method or approach. In this respect, he also maintains that

Language learning and teaching is complex enough that learners may (at times) benefit from deductive, drill-based learning as well as inductive, task-based activities. Learning and learners are not amenable to a best method, a best book, a best test, or a best curriculum. Learners are most amenable to influences that recognize, respond to, and nurture their truly complex and dynamic learning processes (p. 14).

However, it is safe to mention that despite the fact that a few clear-cut fledging schemes and models of language learning and teaching based on complexity paradigm have been formulated (e.g. Burn & Knox, 2011; Harshbarger, 2007; Kymes, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008b), seemingly the lack of a well-established model derived from a complexity paradigm including some practical organizing principles for ELT practitioners to resolve the ecological challenges in a sufficiently systematic manner is still evident in the area of second language pedagogy.

III. Discussion

In the current study, a quick state-of-the-art overview of the classified theoretical trends in relation to ecological challenges of language teaching suggests that, on the one hand, there seems to be certain symmetry in the rationales behind the approaches under study. To epitomize metaphorically this perceptible commonality, it can be argued that these evolving alternatives have called for a more tentatively localized remedy rather than a spoon-fed panacea which at once fits all teaching contexts. In principle, over the last few decades, these approaches have unanimously underscored

the significance of localness and context-sensitivity of language teaching. Thus, it can be implied that these approaches ought to be regarded as complementing each other, rather than as competing with each other for absolute supremacy. Yet what distinguishes these approaches can be found in their scope of viewing and settling the subject of dispute.

In short, Post-method approach devalues the pedagogical effectiveness of ELT methods and necessitates the open-ended pedagogy beyond the restricted boundary of alternative ELT methods in which the ecological constraints of specific teaching contexts can thus be identified and resolved. In this approach, it is posited that since the pervious methods have been developed based on a set of generalized tenets, they are not context-specific and can not be applied and implemented in all local teaching contexts. In contrast to this approach, 'In-method' approach revalidates the neglected merits of ELT methods and attempts to reconcile language pedagogy with ELT methods. Overall, the notion of ethno-methodological appropriateness is emphasized in this approach, and the socio-cultural constraints are also considered and tackled within the domain of 'method' itself.

The final voice emanates from Complexity approach in which the ecological challenges are seen beyond the scope of the Post-method and 'In-method' approach, since it is assumed the proposed solutions can not thoroughly resolve this contentious issue. In the light of such approach, it is also believed that the pursuit of settling the ecological challenges of SLT Dilemma must not be considered pointless. Instead, it is suggested that the other two developed approaches discussed here are not only mutually exclusive, but also have complemented each other to come up with a deeper understanding of the various ecological aspects of language learning and teaching. As a result, they can both contribute to diminish the vexing ecological impediments surrounding individual teaching contexts with which the involved participants are dynamically interacted. However, the Complexity approach also argues that the Post-method and 'In-method' approach have not been able to thoroughly resolve the ecological challenges of SLT Dilemma due to the fact that they have virtually not paid sufficient attention to the complexity of language learning and teaching and have not approached the ecological aspects of SLT Dilemma from within the avenue of complexity paradigm.

IV. Conclusion

In conclusion, to broaden our horizons towards understanding the genesis and causes of the widespread ecological challenges of SLT Dilemma, the author, however, truly approves of Complexity approach more than the other two alternatives because the intricate effects of ecological variables can be discerned and studied in a more optimal manner. Nevertheless, to approach and disentangle the enigma of ecological barriers in a sufficiently systematic manner within this approach seems to entail a well-established feasible model of second language teaching. This realizable model will need to comply with the complexity paradigm and also include some practical guiding principles for ELT teachers. Until such well-established model is proposed, the author calls for a 'relativism perspective' to solve the ecological challenges at the present time. This perspective explains that there is almost little gain in adopting exclusively only one of the three approaches because some of their premises are notably interdependent while none of the current approaches is also pedagogically self-contained now and can not individually tackle the ecological challenges. For example, the pedagogical premises and practical guidelines visualized in the Post-method and 'In-method' approach are not clearly seen in the Complexity approach. In the light of this perspective, ecological challenges of language teaching might be envisaged from a vantage point in which they can be alleviated to a varying degree depending on the given teaching contexts. But they can not be avoided entirely due to the dynamic ecologies of interrelated and interdependent complex systems which can be partially or temporarily controlled and predicted. All in all, henceforth what seems to lie ahead is the essentials of learning to co-exist with these ever-evolving ecological challenges, rather than merely attempt to find a way to dispense with them. By learning to live within the realm of these challenges, it is perhaps more likely that our research-based pedagogical enterprise will ultimately yield some promising inbuilt solutions.

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The Relationship between Trait Emotional Intelligence and Self-efficacy among Iranian EFL Teachers

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***Abstract*—The current study examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' trait EI (trait EI) and Self-efficacy. To this end, 336 teachers were asked to complete "Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue–SF)" (Petrides and Furnham, 2006) and "Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Pearson product-moment correlation showed a significant relationship between trait EI and self-efficacy. Trait EI subconstructs also showed significant relationship with Self-efficacy subconstructs as well as total self-efficacy. To investigate which subconstructs of trait emotional intelligence might have more predictive power in predicting teacher's self-efficacy, regression analysis was run. Results revealed all subconstructs of trait EI to be moderate predictors of Self-efficacy. In addition, the ANOVA were employed to investigate the influence of teachers' age, gender, and years of teaching experience on EI and Self-efficacy. Results showed teachers with more years of teaching experience to have achieved higher levels in both trait EI and self-efficacy. However no effect of EFL teachers' age, gender and their interactions on teachers' trait EI and Self-efficacy were observed.**

***Index Terms*—trait emotional intelligence (trait EI), emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, Iranian EFL teachers**

I. Introduction

Since its introduction in 1990 by Salovey and Mayer, Emotional intelligence (EI) has made such a strong heat in the last two decades which pushed aside many classical concepts of psychology. Proposing different theoretical models to describe EI, many scales to measure it and studies to investigate its relationship with other concepts and variables in various fields show the importance of EI in modern psychology (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006). Besides, since teachers dealing with human beings and their emotions have rarely been probed in terms of EI and its position in diverse aspects of teaching profession, a new trend of studies focused on EI and different aspects of teaching profession(Chan, 2004; Rastegar and Memarpour,2009; Moafian and Ghanizadeh 2009; Gürol, Özercan, and Yalçın ,2010). Herein, the current study investigates the relationship between teachers' trait EI and their Self-efficacy and the influence of their age, gender, and years of teaching experience on these two.

Trait Emotional intelligence (trait EI)

In the last century, the success and failure in life and career was believed to be mainly dependent on IQ which was believed to contain social and emotional aspects beside cognitive ones (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987; Sternberg, 1985; Thorndike, 1920; Wechsler, 1943). However in the last two decades, after its first introduction by Salovey & Mayer (1990) and thanks to *Emotional Intelligence* (Goleman, 1995), many mainly in the lay, believed another concept; emotional intelligence (EI), to be the most important determiner of success and failure. Whether IQ or EI is considered as the main determiner of success and failure, the new concept of EI has proved to be a legitimate area in new psychology (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006) in such a way that different theoretical models to its investigation have been proposed and used in different studies during the last two decades.

The origins of emotional intelligence (EI), goes back to Thorndike's (1920) idea of 'social intelligence' and Gardner's (1983) 'intrapersonal' and 'interpersonal' intelligences. EI could be divided into two main trends based on the measurement method used in operationalization, ability EI and trait EI (Petrides et al., 2000, 2001, 2003). Ability EI is defined as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate

feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer and Salovey,1997,p. 10). Ability EI is viewed as a cognitive ability and operationalized via maximal performance IQ-like tests, however it has proven problematic (Brody, 2004) mainly due to objectification of an inherently subjective construct in a way similar to IQ (Robinson & Clore, 2002). There are other models which are to a great extend based on EI ability model by Mayer et, al. (1997). Bar-On's Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) model (Bar-On, 1997) which uses "competence", "skill" to refer to a self perceived concept through a self report questionnaire, and the emotional competencies model focused on the workplace (Goleman, 1998, 2001) with an unclear background and terminology. Beside the above theoretical model and measurement instruments of EI there exist other measurement devices and scales such as Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998) which are based on the above models and inherit their measurement and psychometric drawbacks(Brody, 2004; Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2005, 2007).

The most newly developed model of EI is trait EI (Petrides et al., 2001) which is defined as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies and measured via the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). During its short life, trait EI proved the following advantages ; recognizing subjectivity of emotional experience (Robinson & Clore, 2002), integrating the construct of EI into mainstream theories of differential psychology (e.g. Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004; Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, & Bakker, 2007; Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006;Villanueva & Sanchez, 2007; Sevdalis, Petrides, & Harvey, 2007; Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008; Smith, Heaven, & Ciarrochi,2008; Johnson, Batey,&Holdsworth, 2009; Quoidbach & Hansenne,2009;), potentials to interpret data from other questionnaires of EI and extending to original area of its development(Petrides, 2010).

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue–SF) (Petrides et al., 2006) measuring trait EI is the EI measurement device based on Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-long form (Petrides, 2001) containing 153 items in 15 facets distributed in four subconstructs; wellbeing(Self-esteem, Trait happiness, Trait optimism), self control (Impulsiveness(low), Stress management, Emotion regulation), emotionality(Emotion expression, Relationship skills, Trait empathy, Emotion perception (self and others)), sociability(Assertiveness, Emotion management, Social competence) beside global trait EI(Self-motivation, Adaptability). Cooper & Petrides, 2010 showed TEIQue to have better psychometric properties in comparison to other EI measurement scales.

Teacher self-efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy rooted in the social cognitive theory is defined by Bandura (1986) as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required managing prospective situations".

Bandura (2006) believed peoples' perceptions of environmental opportunities and impediments; choice of activities, amount of efforts expended on an activity and duration of perseverance confronting obstacles (Pajares, 2002) is determined by their efficacy beliefs.

In educational context, teacher efficacy has been defined as ''a teacher's judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Bandura, 1977; Tschannen- Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001, p. 783) which may have a positive or negative effect on teachers' attitudes and behaviors (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Henson, Stephens & Grant 1999; Palmer, 2006).

Many researchers showed teacher self-efficacy to be an essential subconstruct in improving teacher education (e.g., Scharmann & Hampton, 1995; Ross, 1998; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001), while having association with their students' academic achievements (Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman,1976; Gibson & Dembo,1984; Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988; Ross, 1992,1998; Bandura,1993; Goddard, et al., 2000; Chambers and Hardy, 2005), motivation (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989), and their own sense of efficacy (Anderson et al., 1988), as well as to different teacher classroom behaviors influencing the teacher's attempt in teaching, and his or her resilience to deal with difficult students (Gibson et al., 1984; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Meijer & Foster, 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1993). Good and Brophy (2003) also stated teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy perception maintained higher levels of student participation.

Although many studies on EI have been done during the last two decades (Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera, 2006), a few of them have dealt with interrelationship between EI and Self-efficacy especially in foreign language learning situations. Regarding the interrelation between EI and Self-efficacy; Chan (2004) found significant relationship between EI and perceived Self-efficacy using EIS (Schutte et al., 1998) and Schwarzer (1993) respectively. Using EIS and TSES, Rastegar and Memarpour (2009); Gürol, Özercan, and Yalçın (2010) found a positive significant correlation between perceived EI and self-efficacy of English teachers and pre-service teachers respectively; however, no significant differences among teachers with different genders, ages and teaching experiences were reported.

In another study Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) studied 89 Iranian EFL teachers using TSES and ''Bar-On EI test" (1997), which showed a significant relationship between the teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy. Three subscales of emotional intelligence were found to be good predictors of teacher self-efficacy.

Various studies focused on investigating EI (Mayer et al., 1997; Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 2001), while each one assessed this construct from a separate perspective. Due to the drawbacks of such studies Brody (2004), Cooper et al., (2010) considered trait EI which is more operationalized than the previous ones. The rationale behind using trait EI in

this study was its privileges as a more reliable and valid research instrument. Regarding teachers Self-efficacy, TSES proved to be one of the most reliable and widely used research instruments (e.g. Klassen, Bong, Usher, Chong, Huan, Wong, & Georgiou, 2009; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001).

II. Method

Participants

The participants of this study were 336 EFL teachers teaching at different language institutes in Tehran who were selected based on the availability and consent of institutes' officials. There were 102 male and 228 female teachers from different socioeconomic background (Table 1). Their ages and years of teaching experiences range from19 to 60 (M=28.60, SD=6.86) and 1-27 years (M=6.04, SD=4.99) respectively.

Instruments

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue–SF): Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (Petrides et al., 2006) contains 30 items in 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1(completely disagree) to 7(completely agree). It's based on Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-long form (Petrides, 2001) containing 153 items in 15 facets due to four subconstructs; wellbeing, self control, emotionality, sociability beside global trait EI. Cooper et al., 2010 showed TEIQue to have better psychometric properties in comparison to other EI measurement scales. The Cronbach's alpha for the Persian version of TEIQue–SF was .85.The second instrument, Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) long –form (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001) as one of the most widely used scales of teachers self-efficacy contains 24 items in 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1(nothing) to 9(a great deal). TSES long-form comprises three subscales: Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Strategies, and Efficacy in Classroom Management. Persian versions of the TSES long–form showed high reliabilities of α =.89.

Procedure

Participants were given 30 minutes to answer the items in the questionnaires while researchers provided needed help and instructions. Each questionnaire helped the researchers to elicit three types of information, namely, factual, attitudinal, and behavioral. Before participants take part in the study, the researchers convinced them to express their ideas honestly and ensured them that the information would be used for research purposes only.

III. Data Analysis and Results

Participants' Information

Tables 2, 3 present the descriptive statistics about participants age, and years of teaching experience.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION ABOUT GENDER OF THE PARTICIPANTS.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	male	102	30.4
	female	228	67.9
	Total	330	98.2

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION ABOUT AGE OF THE PARTICIPANTS.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	25 AND BELOW	118	35.1
	26 TO 30	143	42.6
	31 and above	75	22.3
	Total	336	100.0

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION ABOUT YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF THE PARTICIPANTS.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	1 to 3	94	28.0
	4 to 7	98	29.2
	8 and above	71	21.1
	Total	263	78.3

The relationship between trait EI and its subconstructs with self-efficacy and its subconstructs

Using SPSS, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was run to explore the relationship between teachers' trait EI and their Self-efficacy. The results showed a significant correlation (r =0.54; p<0.05) between teachers trait EI and their Self-efficacy (Table 5).

Table 4 indicates the descriptive statistics of the participants' total trait EI (M=111.97) and total self-efficacy (M= 86.61). As it is clear in Table 5,a Pearson product-moment correlation was employed o explore the relationship between

teachers' trait EI and their self-efficacy which revealed a significant positive correlation between total trait EI and total Self-efficacy (r = 0.54, p <0.05).

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TRAIT EI AND SELF-EFFICACY.

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Total Trait EI	336	72.00	150.00	111.97	14.06198
Total self-efficacy	336	52.00	120.00	86.61	10.97565

TABLE 5.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' TRAIT EI AND SELF-EFFICACY

		Total Self-efficacy
Total Trait EI	Pearson Correlation	.549**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	336
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Table 6 shows moderate to strong correlation between EFL Iranian teachers Trait EI subconstructs and self-efficacy subconstructs. Well being shows the highest correlation with Efficacy in Classroom Management (r= 0.39), Self control with Efficacy in Classroom Management (r= 0.37), Sociality with Efficacy in Student Engagement (r= 0.34), Emotionality with Efficacy in Instructional Strategies (r= 0.34), and Global Trait EI with Efficacy in Classroom Management (r= 0.34). However, Self control shows the lowest correlation with Efficacy in Student Engagement (r= 0.22) (p<0.05). Moreover, Trait EI subconstructs' moderate to strong correlation with total Self-efficacy is presented in table 7. Well beings correlation with self- efficacy is (r= 0.42), self control with self- efficacy (r= 0.39), sociality with self- efficacy (r= 0.40), emotionality with self-efficacy (r= 0.40), and global trait EI with self- efficacy (r= 0.38) (p<0.05).

TABLE 6.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' TRAIT EI SUBCONSTRUCTS AND SELF-EFFICACY SUBCONSTRUCTS

		EIS	ESE	ECM
Well Being	Pearson Correlation	.307**	.357**	.396**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	336	336	336
Self Control	Pearson Correlation	.331**	.227**	.373**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	336	336	336
Sociability	Pearson Correlation	.315**	.349**	.326**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	336	336	336
Emotionality	Pearson Correlation	.344**	.325**	.313**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	336	336	336
Global Trait EI	Pearson Correlation	.305**	.335**	.341**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	336	336	336
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

TABLE 7.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' TRAIT EI SUBCONSTRUCTS AND TOTAL SELF-EFFICACY

		Self-efficacy
Well Being	Pearson Correlation	.421**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	336
Self Control	Pearson Correlation	.391**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	336
Sociability	Pearson Correlation	.403**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	336
Emotionality	Pearson Correlation	.409**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	336
Global Trait EI	Pearson Correlation	.389**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	336
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

A regression analysis was also run to investigate each of trait EI subconstructs' predictive power in predicting teachers' Self-efficacy (Table 9).

Model summery statistics, Table 8 shows the R value of 0.55 for multiple correlation coefficients between teachers' self-efficacy and the components of the trait EI. Its square value is 0.30 which means that the independent variable, trait EI, can predict and explain for 30% of variation in the dependent variable, teachers' Self-efficacy. Table 9 shows the result of regression analysis for trait EI and Self-efficacy. All subconstructs of trait EI are positive predictors of Self-efficacy with weak to moderate predictive power.

The Beta value is a measure of how strongly each predicator (independent) variable influences the criterion (dependent) variable. The Beta is measured in units of standard deviations. For example, a Beta value of 0.145 indicates that a change of one standard deviation in well being will result in a change of 0.145 standard deviations in the teachers Self-efficacy. Thus, the higher the Beta value, the greater the impact of the predictor variable on the criterion variable. In table 9, sociality as a subconstructs of trait EI has the most impact on the teachers' Self-efficacy (β=0.197)

TABLE 8.
R^2 TABLE FOR TRAIT EI AS THE PREDICTOR OF TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY.

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	SD
1	.555[a]	.308	.298	9.19585
a. Predictors: (Constant), global trait EI, sociability, self control, emotionality, wellbeing				

TABLE 9.
REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR TEACHERS' TRAIT EI AND THEIR SELF-EFFICACY.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	37.982	4.061		9.354	.000
	Well Being	.386	.156	.145	2.470	.014
	Self Control	.429	.165	.142	2.593	.010
	Emotionality	.431	.166	.144	2.594	.010
	Sociality	.587	.158	.197	3.719	.000
	Global Trait EI	.342	.139	.137	2.465	.014
a. Dependent Variable: total Self-efficacy						

Differences in trait EI and self-efficacy according to gender, age, and years of teaching experience

To investigate possible effect of gender, age, years of experience and their interactions on Iranian teachers' trait EI and Self-efficacy, three way ANOVA with trait EI and Self-efficacy as dependent variables was run.

The ANOVA analysis showed a strong effect of teaching experience on teachers trait EI ($F_{(2,243)}=4.62$, $p<0.05$, $\eta^2=0.037$)(Table 10),as teachers with 1-3 years of teaching experience have the lowest levels of trait EI (M=107.76, SD=2.08); teachers of 4-7 years of teaching experience take the next level in trait EI (M=113.98, SD=1.77) and those with 8 and above years of teaching experience have the highest level of trait EI (M=118.08, SD=3.03) (Table 11). A Scheffe Post-hoc test revealed that teachers with1-3 years of teaching experience and teachers of 4-7 years of teaching experience are very similar in terms of emotional intelligent ($p>0.05$). However, teachers of 1-3 and 4-7 years of teaching experience and teachers found to be significantly less emotionally intelligent than teachers of 8 and above years of teaching experience ($p<0.05$). (Table 12)

Moreover, no strong effect for gender ($F_{(1,243)}= 1.78$, $p=0.18>0.05$, $\eta^2=0.007$); age ($F_{(2,243)}= 1.05$, $p=0.35>0.05$, $\eta^2=0.009$); gender and age interaction ($F_{(2,243)}= 0.58$, $p=0.55>0.05$, $\eta^2= 0.005$); gender and years of teaching experience and teachers interaction ($F_{(2,243)}= 1.02$, $p= 0.35>0.05$, $\eta^2=0.008$); age and years of teaching experience and teachers interaction ($F_{(4,243)}= 0.17$, $p=0.95>0.05$, $\eta^2=0.003$); and gender, age and years of teaching experience and teachers interaction ($F_{(4,243)}= 0.44$, $p=0.77>0.05$, $\eta^2=0.007$) were observed.(Table 10)

TABLE 10.
ANOVA ANALYSIS- TRAIT EI AND YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: trait EI					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GENDER	327.356	1	327.356	1.786	.183
AGE	386.839	2	193.420	1.055	.350
YEXP	1693.775	2	846.887	4.621	.011
GENDER * AGE	215.997	2	107.999	.589	.556
GENDER * years of teaching experience	377.284	2	188.642	1.029	.359
AGE * years of teaching experience	128.591	4	32.148	.175	.951
GENDER * AGE * years of teaching experience	327.356	4	81.839	.447	.775
Error	44537.441	243	183.282		
Total	3389545.000	261			

TABLE 11.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE FOR TRAIT EI

				95% Confidence Interval	
Years of teaching experience	N	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 to 3	94	107.762	2.083	103.660	111.865
4 to 7	98	113.982	1.777	110.481	117.483
8 and above	71	118.080	3.039	112.095	124.066

TABLE 12.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS FOR TRAIT EI

(I) years of teaching experience	(J) years of teaching experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 to 3	4 to 7	-4.7644	1.96476	.055	-9.6035	.0746
	8 and above	-10.5376*	2.13359	.000	-15.7925	-5.2828
4 to 7	8 and above	-5.7732*	2.11446	.025	-10.9809	-.5655

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

The ANOVA analysis also revealed a strong effect of teaching experience on teachers Self-efficacy ($F_{(2,243)}$ =7.17, $p<0.05$, $\eta^2=0.056$)(Table 13), as teachers with8 and above years of teaching experience and teachers have the highest level of Self-efficacy (M=94.48, SD=2.2) fallowed by teachers of 4-7 years of teaching experience and teachers (M=87.67, SD=1.28) and next teachers with 1-3 years of teaching experience and teachers (M=84.37, SD=1.5) (Table 14). A Scheffe Post-hoc test revealed that teachers with1-3 years of teaching experience and teachers to be significantly less emotionally intelligent than teachers of 4-7 years of teaching experience and teachers who themselves found to be significantly less emotionally intelligent than teachers of 8 and above years of teaching experience and teachers (ps<0.05). (Table 15)

Moreover, no strong effect for gender ($F_{(1,243)}$= 0.71, p=0.398>0.05, $\eta^2=0.003$); age ($F_{(2,243)}$ =0.02, p=0.97>0.05, $\eta^2=0.000$); gender and age interaction ($F_{(2,243)}$= 0.7, p=0.55>0.05, $\eta^2=0.003$); gender and years of teaching experience and teachers interaction ($F_{(2,243)}$= 1.16, p=0.31>0.05, $\eta^2=0.009$); age and years of teaching experience and teachers interaction ($F_{(4,243)}$= 0.47, p=0.95>0.05, $\eta^2=0.014$); and gender, age and years of teaching experience and teachers interaction ($F_{(4,243)}$= 1.12, p=0.31>0.05, $\eta^2=0.019$) were observed.(Table 13)

TABLE 13.
ANOVA ANALYSIS- SELF-EFFICACY AND YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: Self-efficacy					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GENDER	69.080	1	69.080	.718	.398
years of teaching experience	1380.911	2	690.456	7.178	.001
AGE	5.105	2	2.552	.027	.974
GENDER * years of teaching experience	223.244	2	111.622	1.160	.315
GENDER * AGE	66.460	2	33.230	.345	.708
years of teaching experience * AGE	342.905	4	85.726	.891	.470
GENDER * years of teaching experience * AGE	455.899	4	113.975	1.185	.318
Error	23373.945	243	96.189		
Total	2050555.000	261			

TABLE 14.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE FOR SELF-EFFICACY

				95% Confidence Interval	
Years of teaching experience	N	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 to 3	94	84.375	1.509	81.402	87.347
4 to 7	98	87.674	1.288	85.138	90.210
8 and above	71	94.486	2.201	90.150	98.822

TABLE 15.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS FOR SELF-EFFICACY

(I) years of teaching experience	(J) years of teaching experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 to 3	4 to 7	-4.7201*	1.42335	.005	-8.2257	-1.2145
	8 and above	-9.9976*	1.54566	.000	-13.8044	-6.1907
4 to 7	8 and above	-5.2775*	1.53180	.003	-9.0502	-1.5048

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

IV. DISCUSSION

The current study aims to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' trait EI and their Self-efficacy in English language programs. Nonetheless, it supports the literature in the sense that there is a significant positive correlation between teachers' trait EI and their Self-efficacy (Chan, 2004; Rastegar et al., 2009; Moafian et al., 2009; Gürol et al., 2010). Also, trait EI subconstructs show significant positive correlation with self- efficacy and Self-efficacy subconstructs which may be due to moderating role of trait EI's underlying facets.

There was no difference in terms of trait EI among teachers of different different gender and age. These findings support previous studies' results such as Chan, 2004; Rastegar et al., 2009; Moafian et al., 2009; Gürol et al., 2010 which found no significant difference between teachers' EI and their age and gender. However, while contrasting with previous studies, results revealed strong relationship between teachers' trait EI with different years of teaching experience. As more experienced teachers were found to be more emotionally intelligent.

Regarding teachers' gender, age, years of teaching experiences, and their interrelationship effects on Self-efficacy, no effect were observed but for years of teaching experience. In line with previous studies (Chan, 2004; Rastegar et al., 2009; Moafian et al., 2009; Gürol et al., 2010) male and female teachers of different ages were very similar in terms of their Self-efficacy. Moreover, in contradiction of previous studies, teachers with different years of teaching experience were found to be different in terms of their perceived self-efficacy as more experienced teachers were more self efficacious.

It can be claimed that the ability to recognize and handle emotions has direct relationship with higher sense of efficacy which would have powerful effects on teachers' control orientations and control behaviors; their use of classroom discussions and innovative teaching practices; their responses to learners who are difficult to teach; their levels of stress and their satisfaction with the teaching profession (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Perched at lower levels of personality hierarchies and similar to them, trait EI necessitates matching individual's profiles to specific jobs which need individuals with specific profile and characteristics. This helps teacher education programs by choosing candidates with higher levels in trait EI which may directly lead to their higher levels of self-efficacy in classrooms.

Due to the positive correlation between the two main constructs in general and their subconstructs in particular, it might be interpreted that these two main variables have much in common. Therefore, the trait EI as the predictor variable can influence the teachers Self-efficacy which is a very important factor in improving teachers' professional behavior. Pedagogically speaking, teachers' Self-efficacy can be improved while the condition for its enhancement is provided. This could be explained since teaching mainly deals with learners and their emotions, teaching experience may moderate teachers' EI and Self-efficacy through improving their understanding of learners' needs and emotions. Such aspects which might help develop teachers' Self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are to be investigated and analyzed meticulously to see what they are exactly, what their mechanisms are, what sorts of interactions or interrelationships they have in order to be transferred to novice teachers to improve their professional behaviors. In further replications, other factors such as teachers' motivation, personality type, career orientation, sense of plausibility, teaching style, thinking style, etc. are recommended to be studied.

Among trait EI subconstructs *well being* showed the most significant correlation with *total Self-efficacy* and *Efficacy in Classroom Management*. This could be explained due to underlying facets of *well being*, *self-esteem*, *trait happiness* and *trait optimism*, which make teachers perceive their self- efficacy more optimistically. This signifies how teachers' having a positive view toward their job and life could increase their achievements in class. *Global trait EI* made the lowest correlation among trait EI subconstructs with *total Self-efficacy* and *Efficacy in Instructional Strategies* which may be due to situation in Iranian language institutes' dictated by institutes officials which make teachers to follow them.

Teachers' trait EI is not so simple to be assessed by the available research tools. It is a complicated, multifaceted variable for which some more replications are required. Therefore, when the interaction between this variable with another complex trait, that is, teachers' Self-efficacy is of investigation, more cautions should be taken into account. Teachers, especially in EFL situations in which learning is intermingled with emotions, can improve their trait EI and consequently their Self-efficacy through seeking help from more experienced teachers.

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The Flow of Information in English and Persian Academic Texts

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***Abstract*—The present paper focused on the status of thematic progression patterns in academic texts between English and Persian languages. To this end, following McCabe (1999) and North (2005), the first three pages of the first chapter of 8 books in terms of Linguistics (4 in English, as source texts and 4 in Persian, as translated texts) were selected and analyzed regarding thematic progression patterns. The obtained results showed that there were significant differences between the languages in focus concerning how information are introduced in texts especially in case of linear and constant patterns. The main concluding remark taken from this study is that not only authors but also translators should be vigilant of such cohesive devices as thematic progression in creating more cohesive text since, as Hatim and Mason (1990) mentions, we know little about what patterns there are and how equivalence could be achieved between different languages. This is an aspect of texture which should be of crucial importance to the translator (p. 220).**

***Index Terms*—theme, rheme, thematic progression, translation**

I. Introduction

Indeed, one way of achieving cohesion in text and even translated texts is through thematic patterning, which involves the relationship between clauses based on the information contained in their theme (Belmonte & McCabe, 1998). Ventola (1995) states that there is no question about the usefulness of the analytical devices --thematic structures-- for applied linguistics, but these tools are not expected to function in the same way in various languages. Contrastive linguistics has paid some attention to these differences. But an area that is relatively unexplored is what happens to the texts' thematic progression when the text goes through a translation process (p. 85).

She adds that sometimes readers may find texts fuzzy since they consider some odd thematic structures that are not typical of the target language. The fault in these texts is very often placed on the author's failures of argumentation and rhetorical skills; it is presumed that the author's logic is not functioning well and his/her argumentation and rhetorics are seen to fail. But often the original argumentation is clear and well-structured rhetorically in the source text; it is the translation that fails and distorts the argumentative and rhetorical patterns (p. 91).

This area is a fruitful one if investigated extensively. Ventola (1995) suggests that "what is needed by is a more thorough investigation of the theme/rheme issues and the role they play in creating textuality and cohesion in translation of texts" (p. 102).

Newmark (1988) argues that a quick glance in fairly recent handbooks on translation theory shows that thematic progression issues are not extensively covered. The focus tends to be on a clause, not on the textual motivation for thematic patterning (p. 60).

Taking thematic progression into account, Baker (1992 as cited in Munday, 2001) points out that translators are forced with two possibilities. The first one is, if the elements placed in thematic position in the source text can easily be placed in theme position in the target language, then the method of development of the two texts will be the same. The second possibility says, if the thematic patterning of the source text cannot easily and naturally be accommodated in the theme, then the translator must abandon it, bearing in mind that the target version should have a method of development and continuity in its own right. Therefore, one of the main flaws that inexperienced translators make is trying to impose the thematic patterning of one language on the structure of the other (128).

She also asserts that thematic structures are realized differently in different languages. She emphasizes that, as with the thematic structure, density and progression of cohesive ties play an important role throughout a text. This web of relationships may have to differ between source text and target text because of the different networks of lexical cohesion across languages (p. 97).

In agreement with Baker's (1992) viewpoint, Hatim and Mason (1990) mention that there is a need for analysis of thematic progression in different languages over a range of text types. We know little about what patterns there are and how equivalence could be achieved between them. This is an aspect of texture which should be of crucial importance to

the translator (p. 220).

Furthermore, Fries (1995) also states that systemic theory predicts that every language will have some grammatical function which serves to mark the point of departure for the clause (or other grammatical units) as message. Moreover, one would predict that although there will be a general similarity across languages in the functions of thematic material, the specific uses to which that material is put in the various languages of the world will differ (p. 1).

Also, Ventola (1995) mentions that the translation choices by translator do not follow and display the same rhetorical principles and effects as the author's original text. The translator changes the thematic structure of the clauses. Consequently, he/she will succeed, to some extent, in displaying the unfolding of the global structure of the text in the translated version (p. 98).

The notion of thematicity in translation has been discussed widely in linguistic literature, especially within Prague School of linguistics and systemic-functional theory. Various scholars have in recent years contributed to the study of textuality of texts by analyzing their theme, thematic structure, and thematic progression in text across different languages (Belmonte & McCabe, 2001; Green, et al 2000; Jia-po & Bin, 2006; Khedri, 2008; McCabe, 1999; Ventola, 1995; Williams; 2005) to find out how academic texts unfold thematically.

Ventola (1995) carried out a study in which she compared the role of thematic structure in German philosophy texts produced by German authors and their parallel texts in English, their translation. McCabe (1999) compared the thematic patterning in both English and Spanish history textbooks. Williams (2005) performed the analysis of thematic items referring to research and researchers in the discussion section of Spanish Biomedical articles and English-Spanish translation. And applying Halliday's (1994) thematic organization and McCabe's (1999) thematic progression, Khedri (2008) scrutinized thematic development and progression in English academic texts and their translations in Persian.

In one extreme, taking the importance of thematic progression patterning in creating a more cohesive text into account, it requires shedding more light on the role of thematic progression patterns, but in translation. This means that to see what happens to them and how they are tackled by translators when the text goes through a translation process. And in the other extreme, even though many studies have been done on the role and function of thematicity in translation, work on the status of theme between/among different languages is still extremely low. The gap is felt more when this scarcity comes to the status of thematic progression in English and Persian languages. Therefore, this study aims at scrutinizing how patterns are thematically progressed in English academic texts and their parallel in Persian.

II. Methodology

A. Unit of Analysis

Different researchers have selected different grammatical units to study theme, according to their purposes. For Halliday, the basic unit for thematic analysis is the clause, for Whittaker, orthographic sentences, for McCabe, independent conjoinable clause complex or T-unit. For the purpose of this research, the T-unit was adopted as the unit of analysis. Fries (1994) defined T-unit as "an independent clause together with all hypotactically related clauses which are dependent on it" (p. 229).

To Fries and Francis (1992 as cited in North, 2005, p. 6), analyzing theme at the level of the T-unit rather than the individual clause makes it easier to focus on patterns of thematic development in a large amount of text, and can also be justified on the grounds that the thematic structure of a dependant clause is often constrained by comparing features. Following McCabe (1999), in order to make the analysis possible, the researcher adopted T-unit as the unit of analysis since as McCabe (1999) mentions, it is recognized as optimal unit for textual analysis regarding thematic progression (p. 73).

B. Text Selection

The corpus used in this study limited to sample academic texts that were selected from the first three pages of the first chapters of 8 linguistics books (4 in English and 4 in Persian). The selection was done with the aim of building a corpus representative of linguistics books taught in the Iranian universities at BA and MA levels and translated into Persian. The corpus was divided into two subcorpora: sample academic texts in English and sample academic texts in Persian. The Persian texts were the translated versions of the same English texts. The obtained corpus contained 9955 words (4802 for English and 5153 for Persian). There were some reasons behind this selection. The first reason was that the first chapter of a book is usually its point of departure. The second one was to maintain the consistency of thematic progression among paragraphs in each text and avoid invalid judgment of thematicity. The third reason was that the texts chosen represented a variety of authors and translators. And the last one was, it appeared that this quantity was enough to allow the researcher to arrive at valid generalizations.

C. Instruments

In order to achieve a well-organized study, complete models are required for analyzing the data. The theoretical framework was the revised Danes' (1974) model of thematic progression patterns suggested by McCabe (1999) and used for determining thematic progression. The practical frameworks to analyze the data were those proposed by McCabe (1999) and North (2005).

Danes (1974, as cited in Downing, 2001, p. 5) proposed a number of thematic progression patterns that manifest

differently in different genres as follows: linear pattern, constant pattern (or thematic iteration), split rheme, and split theme pattern.

1. Linear pattern: Danes (1974, as cited in Downing, 2001, p. 5) refers to this as the most elementary or basic thematic progression pattern, where the item in the rheme of the first clause becomes the theme of the subsequent clause.

2. Constant pattern: In this pattern, the item in the theme of the first clause is also selected as the theme of the following clause, though not necessarily with identical wording.

3. Split rhematic pattern: In this pattern, the rheme of the first clause is split into two items, each in turn being taken as a theme element in subsequent clauses.

4. Split theme pattern: To Danes's patterns of thematic progression one has been added. In this kind of thematic progression which was proposed by McCabe (1999, p. 175), the theme of the first clause is split into two or more ideas, and these ideas are developed in the themes of subsequent clauses.

Adopting the Danes' thematic progression patterns, McCabe (1999, p. 176) considered a revised model of Danes' thematic progression patterns. She categorized these patterns into 2 overall types: a) theme progression including constant theme and split theme and b) rheme progression including simple linear and split rheme. McCabe (1999) did not consider derived theme as a different sort of thematic progression, since it may be related to proceeding themes and rhemes through some types of inference involved in simple linear or constant theme (p. 171). According to McCabe (1999), there are a rather large percentage of clauses which do not fit into any of the patterns proposed by Danes, since it appears that Danes employed a standard for theme specification which accords more with the notion of "given". Therefore, it is necessary to modify Danes' model in order to apply it in other analyses which use a different standard for theme specification (p. 270). What's more is that, Danes' model was only tested on English texts and a few other languages. So, more evidence is needed from other languages to see whether other systematic patterns emerge in texts in other languages.

The major rationale behind the selection of the above models was twofold: 1) As Martinez (2003, p. 108) mentions, these models provide plausible and attestable mechanisms for determining the thematic structures of the texts correctly; 2) They are practical, reliable, and up-to-date models. Most of the studies that have been done in terms of thematic analysis have resorted to these models.

D. Procedure

The procedure applied in this study was firstly, the selection of sample texts from the first three pages of the first chapters of 8 linguistics books. These sample texts were in English and their translations in Persian. Secondly, the texts, both original and translated versions, were compared and contrasted according to the above mentioned models to determine their thematic progression patterns. Finally, the data was analyzed to scrutinize the possible similarities and differences that would exist in English and Persian languages in terms of thematic progression.

One problem with textual analysis of texts is that there is always the danger of making mistakes in interpretation. To avoid the threat of reliability in the analysis, the first three pages of two applied linguistics books in both languages from the corpus were also analyzed by an experienced researcher in applied linguistics field and agreement was made on the method of analysis.

E. Data Analysis

To analyze the texts in the present study quantitatively, the frequency of different patterns of thematic progression was calculated. Next, Chi-square as a significance test was employed to compare and contrast the obtained frequencies to see the statistically significant differences. In sum, the data were analyzed using the statistics software SPSS (Statistics Package for Social Sciences).

III. Result and Discussion

The data were analyzed using McCabe (1999) to investigate the different types of thematic progression patterns including linear, constant, split rheme, and split theme This study followed North's (2005) procedure to identify links by looking for the first most constituent that has a topical link with the proceeding main clause. If the left most item identified as a link was a modifier then the whole constituent was examined for link to preceding text.

It deserves to point out that in this study, some T-units were found with no theme in initial position being started by verb. These verb-initial T-units were analyzed and put into simple linear progression chain. Doing so was supported by North (2005). To her, these constructions have come from the previous rhemes, so they have linear progression provided that the subject for the verb is the same and the verbs have the same reflection for the tense.

The other worthy issue is in case of miscellaneous patterns. As mentioned by McCabe (1999), the themes for which the reader has to go back more than three clauses to find previously mentioned concept were not realized as part of thematic progression patterns. So, they were fallen into a separate group namely miscellaneous themes.

The corpus was analyzed to identify the frequency of different patterns of thematic progression. The results are illustrated in the table below.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY ANALYSIS OF THEMATIC PROGRESSION PATTERNS IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN TEXTS

	Linear (%)	Constant (%)	Split rheme (%)	Split theme (%)	Miscellaneous (%)
English	104 (41.10)	49 (19.36)	1 (0.41)	0	99 (39.13)
Persian	153 (56.66)	25 (9.25)	1 (0.39)	0	91 (33.70)

Based on the results illustrated in table 1, while linear pattern utilized more frequent by translators in target texts, authors in original texts disposed more to use constant pattern. This over-use of constant pattern resulted in texts composed of more simplistic, repetitive, and redundant paragraphs by continuous application of the same topic. In Wang's (2007) mind, constant patterns make a text be more static and also narration and description are featured by constant progression while in an argumentative text the "cross-referential" links from the rheme of one clause to the theme of the next clause affect the dynamicity of the text more (p. 7). Furthermore, in a text in which constant patterns are used frequently, the text often reads like a list with a little development of information presented in the rheme (p. 6).

But, over-using of linear pattern in target texts might reflect the argumentative nature of translated texts and this could be one of Persian propensities. This finding is compatible with McCabe's (1999) results. She declares that in using simple linear pattern, writers can ensure that the readers are constantly "with them" with regards to point of departure, thus elaborating on concepts in a way which allows readers to optimally build up the conceptual framework.

Comparing these two patterns in both text types together, linear (104 cases in English and 153 cases in Persian) outrun constant (49 cases and 25 cases in respective languages). Such a result is the same as what gained by McCabe (1999). She found more linear chains over constant chains in history texts. She related this to the analytical or explicit nature of history texts, and this was because of the pedagogical goal of the texts and asymmetric links between the writer and the reader (p. 23). McCabe (1999) expresses that linear links set up relationships implying cause and effect, develop ideas, and improve cohesion between sentences in a paragraph (p. 211). So, it can be taken out as concluding remark that one of the principles of argumentative texts is the use of linear patterns but in high proportion.

Concerning the other two patterns, split rheme and split theme, the former was underestimated and the latter was neglected by both authors and translators in source and target texts. And, in case of miscellaneous pattern, 99 cases and 91 cases of the total patterns progressed in English and Persian were put in this category. Dealing with miscellaneous pattern, there are contradictory ideas among researchers. Wang (2007) believes that employing miscellaneous pattern leads to creating text which lacks the expansion of discourse (p. 6). Contrary to Wang's (2007), McCabe (1999) asserts that:

In no way are all of the themes in the corpus chained to a previous theme or rheme in close proximity. However, this does not necessarily mean that they are difficult to process, only that they are difficult to analyze in terms of linking them to one previous point in the discourse in order to say that they belong to one or another chain. These themes are important to the organization of the discourse; they are only labeled as peripheral in that they are peripheral to the thematic progression patterns (p. 180).

Patterns that did not fit into any of the thematic progression patterns proposed by McCabe (1999) were categorized into a separate group, namely miscellaneous. Miscellaneous bonds play a key role in information development. Due to the accessibility of their references to the reader, they can equip the text with thematic continuity. Sometimes the reader goes back to more than 3 clauses to link concepts together even though the clauses are far from the thematic rules. Sometimes, based on the contextual clues, context compensates for the distance between the clauses providing the opportunity for the reader to create a relationship between ideas and link them together. And, sometimes a new idea is introduced not connected to the preceding clauses. However, their analyses require great efforts on the part of the readers.

To compare the total frequency of thematic progression patterns in both languages, the *Chi-square* analysis was applied. The results are showed in the following table.

TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF THEMATIC PROGRESSION PATTERNS IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN TEXTS

	English	Persian	X2	Df	P
Linear	104	153	9.342	1	0.022
Constant	49	25	7.784	1	0.053
Split rheme	1	1	0.000	1	1.000
Split theme	0	0	*	*	*
Miscellaneous	99	91	0.337	1	0.5617

The result of Chi-square revealed that there were significant differences between English texts and their Persian counterparts in terms of linear and constant patterns.

IV. Conclusion

As gained from this study and to that pointed out by Ventola (1995), the translation choices by translator do not follow and display the same rhetorical principles and effects as the author’s original text. The translator changes the thematic structure of the clauses. Consequently, he/she will succeed, to some extent, in displaying the unfolding of the global structure of the text in the translated version (p. 98). As far as significant differences between English academic

texts and their counterpart in Persian in light of linear and constant patterns shown by the obtained results, at least in this study, it can be concluded that making any unmotivated and unreasonable change into them may cause difficulties in conveying the intended meaning of source text's author and then getting readers into great troubles since thematic progression may be quite different among various languages.

In sum, this study has theoretical and pedagogical implications. From theoretical viewpoint, this study sheds light on the thematic progression in both Persian and English languages which could be eventually useful in understanding the thematic structure of human language. From educational perspective, translators and those who are interested in translation profession can apply the findings of this study in translating any text type from English to Persian. Being conscious of grammatical structure of each language at least at the level of thematization especially thematic progression can be a useful device for selecting suitable theme in initial position and convey the intended message uttered by source texts' writers. All in all, doing so may lead to creating smoother translated texts and also may help the reader to follow the flow of information in a clear way.

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The Effect of Teaching Reading Strategies Explicitly on Students' Understanding of Cohesion in Reading

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***Abstract*—Research for finding the most effective way of teaching reading is not a new area of interest in SLA; yet, it is still controversial and draws the attention of a lot of researchers and so makes it a state of art knowledge. One of the most appealing sub areas in teaching reading is instructing reading strategies and whether to teach them explicitly or implicitly. This study examined the effect of explicitly instructing reading strategies on learners' perceptions of cohesive ties in reading. These cohesive ties include reference, substitution, lexical cohesion, conjunction, and ellipses. Results suggested that this method can help improve learners' ability to perceive two aspects of cohesiveness: reference and ellipses. The three other aspects, namely conjunction, lexical cohesiveness, and substitution, have been improved as well, although not as much as they were expected to.**

***Index Terms*—reading strategies, explicit, cohesion, learning, teaching**

I. Introduction

The literature of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA) shows a growing interest to investigate ways for improving students' reading skills. These skills are generally called reading strategies. Reading strategies are defined as mental operations relating to how readers perceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they are reading, and what to do when they do not understand. Strategies, therefore, are readers' resources for understanding and learning (Rao *et al*., 2007). Since the 1970s, many language learning theorists have emphasized the importance of learning strategies in successful language learning and some have even advocated teaching students a variety of reading strategies in order to help them to read better (Cohen, 1998).

While there seems to be no arguments on implementing reading strategies to enhance readers' skills in reading, the best way to teach those skills is controversial. Some researchers believe students' attention should be drawn directly to those techniques and strategies by, say, separating the strategies from the body of readings, telling the student what those strategies are and when and where to use them; while others believe that students should learn how to use strategies by actually using them; and it's not necessary nor useful to give specific, overt instructions. The former approach is called explicit and the latter is named implicit strategy teaching (Brown, 2005).

Cohesion is one aspect of every well organized passage; and it is defined as a close relationship, based on grammar or meaning, between two parts of a sentence or a larger piece of writing (Mayor, 2009). According to Halliday and Hassan (1994) "cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in a text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it." They mention that there are five kinds of cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. The term *reference* refers to specific items within a text/discourse which are impossible to be "interpreted semantically in their own right", but "make reference to something else", i.e. some other item within the text/discourse "for their interpretation". *Substitution* as another type of cohesive relation, or cohesive tie, is the process in which one item within a text or discourse is replaced by another. *Ellipsis*, also, as a type of cohesive relation is very similar to substitution. While substitution refers to the replacement of one textual element by another, ellipsis is simply characterized by "the omission of an item". The process can, therefore, be "interpreted as that form of substitution in which [an] item is replaced by nothing" or as "substitution by zero". "Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse". Lexical cohesion is the fifth and last type of the cohesive relations in English. It is generally understood as "the cohesive effect [that is] achieved by the selection of vocabulary".

It is of crucial importance for every reader to be able to distinguish and identify the connections that are made to unify a reading passage if he/she wants to fully understand it. Inability to integrate the words and sentences into a coherent understanding of the text is called *decoding problem*. A lot of ways have been suggested to help get over this problem some of which indicate that both young and adult skilled readers make more inferences while reading (Long, et al., 1994; McNamara & McDaniel, 2004; Oakhill &Yuill, 1996). One very likely possibility is that poor readers somehow fail to perceive elements of cohesion of the text and subsequently cannot build over the sentences to make sense of it. This has led researchers to the conclusion that reading instruction that centers on providing guidance and training to make better inferences in reading can help readers improve their abilities (McNamara et al., 2006)

The aim of the present paper is to integrate and investigate these two important aspects of reading and their influence on one another: the effect of explicitly instructing reading strategies on learners' ability to distinguish and make sense of cohesion elements of texts. All cohesive ties have been considered and tested.

II. Background

Pani (2003) in a qualitative study used mental modeling technique through which the teacher tells students what mental processes a "superior" readers use while they try to understand the text, to examine its effects on developing strategy and in turn, on students' reading comprehension. She found that this model can be effective to motivate the learners to enhance reading strategies.

Griffiths (2003) studied patterns of language strategy use and found a significant relationship between strategy use and course level according to nationality. Skilled readers turned out to use without looking up new words, avoid translating word by word, guessing the meaning through the context, and skimming respectively more than less skilled readers. Lau and Chan (2003) compared 83 good readers and 76 poor ones to study the reading strategy they use. They found that poor readers scored lower than good ones in using all those strategies, especially sophisticated cognitive and metacognitive ones.

In a research conducted by McNawara et al. (2006), an automated reading trainer called iSTART was used to investigate the effect of reading strategy training on adolescent readers' comprehension of science text. The results revealed that training students' strategies significantly leads to a better reading comprehension. Of course, students who didn't have prior knowledge of strategy use performed better on tasks which were different from the ones that students with prior knowledge of strategies did better

In another study by Boulware-Gooden et al. (2007) the effect of teaching Meta cognitive strategies was examined and through these experiments, it was revealed that metacognitive reading comprehension instruction significantly enhanced students' academic attainment. The participants of this study were children.

Another research by Rao et al. (2007) revealed that the assumption that skilled readers use reading strategies more is true for bilingual primary school students. They realized that successful learners exploited deep level processing strategies (e.g. inference, prediction, reconstruction); While less successful students used surface level processing strategies (e.g. paraphrasing, re-reading, questioning). They also suggested that teachers should teach deep level reading strategies into their reading instruction. Yet another interesting article that aimed to see whether reading skills moderate the effect of strategy training for learning with hypertext, Naumann et al. (2008) found that strategy learning affects skilled readers positively but less skilled readers negatively.

In a descriptive study, Klinger et al. (2010) observed some 124 sessions of 41 teachers. They found that in most lessons there was no comprehension instruction, or it was restricted to very simple strategies that prompt students to self-monitor and reflect before, during, and after reading. They went on to conclude that teachers should provide explicit instruction instead of just providing comments about thinking. They also cited that metacognitive strategies are the most important ones to be learnt.

Tsai et al. (2010) compared strategy use between Chinese students when reading in both their native and foreign language. They found despite the fact that students' use of strategy doesn't differ significantly between skilled and less skilled readers in their first language, it showed a significant difference in favor of skilled readers when reading texts in the foreign language. Their findings supported notion of Cohen (1998) that teaching strategy use can help to enhance students' performance in learning the language. In an exploratory study conducted by McNail (2010), the relationship among background knowledge, reading comprehension strategies and second language reading comprehension was investigated. He found that background knowledge is not a strong contributor to reading comprehension, instead self-questioning is important.

III. Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between explicit reading strategies instruction and learners' understanding of reference in readings?

2. Is there a relationship between explicit reading strategies instruction and learners' understanding of conjunction in readings?

3. Is there a relationship between explicit reading strategies instruction and learners' understanding of lexical cohesion in readings?

4. Is there a relationship between explicit reading strategies instruction and learners' understanding of ellipsis in readings?

5. Is there a relationship between explicit reading strategies instruction and learners' understanding of substitution in readings?

IV. Methodology

A. Participants

40 Persian learners of English participated in the study. It was assumed that students' proficiency level might affect the results of the study; so, the learners of intermediate level were selected. They had just started book three (=the green book) of Interchange series written by Jack C. Richards. Both males (= 18) and females (=22) attended the study. All the participants were adults between 21 and 27 years of age who were either university students or university graduates. They were assigned to two groups: one control (=21 participants) and one experimental (=19). Both groups' sessions were held in the same class room at the same time; so, extraneous variables were controlled. Control group's classes were held on even days, from 6 until 9:15 p.m. and Experimental groups' classes were held on odd days, from 6 to 9:15 p.m. Again, to reduce the effect of extraneous elements, the teacher of both classes was the same (the researcher). The researcher did his best to keep everything the same in both classes; except for the independent variable.

B. Material

The third volume of the Interchange series (the green book) was used for the method of the classroom. Every aspect of the teaching, including the time devoted to each task, was held as constant as possible. No other material was used in the experimental group more than what was used in the control group. The only difference was at the instruction of the reading comprehension part which was at the end of each lesson. In order to measure students' performance in our area of interest, two tests were developed that each contained 50 items; 10 items for each subcategory. Items were selected carefully from TOEFL exams to enhance the reliability and validity of the tests.

Three highly experienced English teachers and test developers were asked to review and judge the items to eliminate inappropriate items. Then, items were pooled and 10 of them were selected for each subcategory of each of the two tests. Two tests were piloted and the same time was given to some 30 students with similar characteristics of our groups (intermediate Persian students of English, studying the same book, both male and female).Two tests were highly correlated. The given tests were in written mode and participants had 50 minutes (one minute for each item) to respond. 3 passages were used in each test, and the students were asked to answer 18 questions according to those passages, and the rest of the questions were asked through multiple-choice items. In order to reduce the probability of negative test effects, items in each test were assigned randomly.

C. Procedure

Every effort was made to reduce the Hawthorn effect. Two classes were managed and controlled quite alike with the exception of the reading section. In the experimental group, students were explicitly noticed the reading techniques necessary for dealing with the text. They even learnt the names of those strategies. In the control group, however, all those strategies were taught in an implicit way. For example, students in both groups were asked to silently read the passage and underline the words, phrases, or structures that they were not sure about. Then, the teacher went over the passage to clarify and answer students' questions. In the experimental group, the teacher drew students' attention to the strategy that could be used in that situation and situations alike, and named the strategy; while in the control group, the teacher just helped them to somehow figure the meaning out, probably with the strategies they already knew, or a new one but in an implicit way. The students in the control group were not informed about the name of the strategies and they were not told explicitly that each technique can be used in other contexts that are similar.

The pre-test was given to the students at the beginning of the semester. It was given to them along with some other questions that measured other aspects of learning, like listening, speaking, or writing, in order to conceal the aim of the project. The course started three days after the pre-test administration. During the course, the pre-test was not mentioned at all. In order to increase the reliability of the scores, 10 items were included to measure each subcategory. The post-test had the same categories and characteristics. It was administrated 7 days after the course finished in order to reduce instant and short term effects of the treatment. Students regarded the test as their final exam and so did their best to answer the items. All the administrations' conditions were tried to be the same or at least alike.

We used concurrent validation to check out the validity and reliability of these two tests: they were given to a population with characteristics similar to those of our target population. Some 16 students who were at the same level were picked and asked to answer all the 100 items which had appeared in the two tests. Students were exposed to 90 complete hours of instruction during which the teacher covered the third book of interchange series (the intermediate course in which the book with the green cover is taught). The course took 10 and the experiment 11 weeks to finish. About 12 hours of the whole class time, directly or indirectly, was related to reading and its related strategies.

D. Analysis

In order to investigate the amount of correlation between the two exams, Pearson correlation coefficient was used. Two sample T-test was exploited to investigate the similarity of control and experimental group and also the amount of effectiveness of the proposed method in comparison with the method used in control group. All the assumptions of using a parametric test were considered and met. The scores formed a normal distribution and they were not dependent on each others. The data were interval as well. The effect of one variable was being investigated; so, the appropriate statistical test was chosen: t-test. More information is brought in the results section.

E. Results

In order to investigate the amount of correlation between the tests, they were given to some 16 students and each of them got two scores out of 50. The results show that the correlation between two tests is 0.81 which is acceptable. The mean of the scores of the first and second test were 25.5 and 26.31 respectively. The results have been shown in the table 1 below:

TABLE 1
CORRELATIONS

		VAR00006	VAR00007
VAR00006	Pearson Correlation	1	.805**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	16	16
VAR00007	Pearson Correlation	.805**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	16	16

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

In order to find out if there is a significant difference between the students of control and experimental group; two sample T-test were used. Students were divided into two groups: one control and another experimental. The following hypothesis was defined:

$H_{0:}\ \mu_1 = \mu_2$

$H_{0:}\ \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H_0 states that there is no significant relationship between the levels of knowledge of the two groups. The results, using the two sample t-test, have been shown in table 2:

TABLE 2
GROUP STATISTICS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Sumpretest	Group1	21	24.6190	2.55883	.55838
	Group2	19	24.3158	2.13574	.48997

TABLE 3

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Sumpre test	Equal variances assumed	1.824	.185	.404	38	.688	.30326	.74972	-1.21447	1.82099
	Equal variances not assumed			.408	37.774	.685	.30326	.74288	-1.20091	1.80743

TABLE 4
GROUP STATISTICS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Test1	Group1	21	1.0952	.76842	.16768
	Group2	19	1.7368	1.14708	.26316
Test2	Group1	21	.9524	.97346	.21243
	Group2	19	1.4737	.61178	.14035
Test3	Group1	21	1.2857	1.10195	.24046
	Group2	19	1.5789	.60698	.13925
Test4	Group1	21	1.2381	.88909	.19401
	Group2	19	2.3684	1.53516	.35219
Test5	Group1	21	.9048	1.04426	.22788
	Group2	19	2.0000	1.05409	.24183

According to the acquired results, F equals 1.824 and the significance level is 0.185. Regarding the fact that the significance level is bigger than 0.05, there is no significant difference between two groups at the beginning of the study.

In order to investigate if there is a significant difference between two methods, two sample t-test was used. The differences between their students' levels have been recorded through pre and post test. Accordingly, the below hypothesis was defined:

$H_{0:}\ \mu_1 = \mu_2$

$H_{0:}\ \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H_0 hypothesis states that there is no significant difference between two methods. The results have been shown in table 4 and 5. The results show that there is a significant difference in factors one and four: significance numbers are 0.011 and 0.014, respectively. Significance value and T statistic in both above factors are 0.043 and 0.006 with the assumption of equality of means. Upper and lower limits in factor 1 are -1.261 and -0.221, respectively that shows the mean of difference of the scores in the second method is bigger than its counterpart in first method. Lower and upper limits in factor four are -1.924 and -0.337 that shows the mean of difference of the scores in the second method is bigger than its counterpart in first method.

About factor 3, despite the fact that the assumption of the equality of variances is rejected; the significance value of T statistic is 0.311 that shows there is no significant difference between two methods for the factor 3. The assumption of the equality of the variances is not rejected for factors 2 and 5. There is, however, no significant difference between two methods for these two factors.

TABLE 5
AMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Test1	Equal variances assumed	7.161	.011	-2.097	38	.043	-.64160	.30600	-1.26108	-.02213
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.056	30.987	.048	-.64160	.31204	-1.27803	-.00518
Test2	Equal variances assumed	.246	.623	-2.002	38	.052	-.52130	.26033	-1.04832	.00571
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.048	34.061	.048	-.52130	.25460	-1.03869	-.00392
Test3	Equal variances assumed	7.748	.008	-1.027	38	.311	-.29323	.28560	-.87139	.28493
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.055	31.702	.299	-.29323	.27787	-.85945	.27299
Test4	Equal variances assumed	6.608	.014	-2.884	38	.006	-1.13033	.39195	-1.92378	-.33687
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.811	28.242	.009	-1.13033	.40209	-1.95366	-.30699
Test5	Equal variances assumed	.436	.513	-3.298	38	.002	-1.09524	.33212	-1.76757	-.42291
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.296	37.528	.002	-1.09524	.33228	-1.76817	-.42230

V. Conclusions

In this study, we investigated the effect of explicitly instruction of reading strategies in comparison with implicitly instruction of reading strategies on Students' Understanding of Cohesion in Reading. We considered all of its subcategories that include: Reference, ellipsis, conjunction, substitution, and lexical cohesion. The results revealed that the proposed method was only effective for items 1 (reference) and 4 (ellipses). So, it is suggested that further researches focus on finding some ways to improve the remaining items. Also, further research could be led to investigate other aspects of reading except for cohesion. This study only included the intermediate students and the findings might not be applicable to other levels.

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A Contrastive Study of Hedging in Environmental Sciences Research Articles

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***Abstract*—Academic writers resort to hedging as one of the interpersonal metadiscourse category not only to present their findings cautiously but also to minimize the effects of Face Threatening Acts (FTAs). The purpose of the present study was to compare and contrast the frequency and types of hedges in Discussion sections of Environmental Sciences Research Articles (RAs) written by English Research Writers (ERWs), Iranian Research Writers (IRWs) who write in English, and Iranian Research Writers (IRWs) who write in Farsi. To this end, 60 RAs in the targeted field were selected from leading journals (20 for each group), and then the used hedges were analyzed based on Salager-Meyer (1994) taxonomy. With regard to the use of hedges in English, this study did not find any significant differences between English and Iranian authors' writings. However, the findings revealed significant differences between English and Farsi written articles. This discrepancy can be attributed to the nature of Farsi language which might consider less hedged texts as highly validated ones. However, this is opposed to the credibility of using hedges in this field in the international academic discourse community.**

***Index Terms*—hedges, discussion section, RAs, ERWs, IRWs**

I. Introduction

Writing is one of the channels of communication and academic writing, as one of the forms of written discourse, involves interpersonal relationship between author and addressees in an academic discourse governed by certain conventions. Academic writing is created by paying special attention to the specific constraints or conventions of a discipline. Theses conventions might ensure academic writers that their work is recognized by readers and accepted by their colleagues in their discourse community.

Therefore, in academic writing writers try to either fill a certain knowledge gap or add new information to the existing literature in a way which is consistent with the expectations of the particular community they belong to. To do so, they present their finings in Research Articles (RAs).

In other words, in writing RA for particular community and specific discipline, in addition to presenting propositional contents, authors should consider their audience and their background knowledge in the subject matter (Widdowson, 1984; Hyland, 2004). It fact a conscious awareness of the rules and conventions governing academic communication is a prerequisite for effective writing and processing of academic discourse. In line with this matter, Hyland (1999) asserts that features of discourse are always relative to a specific audience and social purposes, and the effectiveness of writers' attempts to communication relies on how much they are successful in analyzing and accommodating the needs of readers.

According to Hyland (2004) one of the important ways of representing the features of an underlying community is through the writer's use of metadisourse. Metadiscourse has been defined as writing about writing (Williams, 1981), discourse about discourse, or communication about communication (Vande Kopple, 1985). Mauranen (1993) refers to metadisourse as certain elements in the text that go beyond the propositional content.

Hyland (1998) also states that, metadiscourse dose not add to the propositional content of a text but guides or direct readers to how they should understand and evaluate that content. Crismore (1984) takes the similar stance and believes that the aim of metadiscourse is to "direct rather than inform the readers" (p. 280).

There are two main categories for metadiscourse; textual and interpersonal (Vande Kopple, 1985, 2002; Hyland, 1998; Crismore, Markkanen & Steffensen, 1993). While the former helps writers incorporate ideational materials within a text in a way which makes sense in a particular situation for readers, the later one assists writers to represent their

opinions and their evaluations of situation they are involved and shows how they hope readers will react on the ideational material (Vande Kopple, 2002). Metadiscourse can be classified through different subcategories, such as logical connectives, code glosses, emphatics, and hedges.

The focus of this study is on hedges (or hedging strategy) as a subcategory of interpersonal metadisourse. Studying hedges from an interpersonal perspective, Hyland (1996) believes that the interpersonal metadiscourse is to do with respecting the institutional constraints and expectations of the scientific community. Nikula (1997) contends that hedges are communicative strategies which enable writers soften the force of their utterances to make them more acceptable in interpersonal relationships.

As Varttala (2001) states, much of previous work on the interpersonal aspect of hedging has been based on Politeness Theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). Politeness means that "behaving or speaking in a way that is correct for the social situations you are in, and showing that you are careful to consider other people's needs and feelings" (Longman Dictionary, 2006). Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is based on the existence of participants who have something that is called Face which could be interpreted as a public self-image. They divide the term face into positive and negative ones. Positive face refers to a positive self image, a desire that self image is appreciated and approved of by others, while negative face refers a desire to have a freedom of action and rights to non-distraction (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Myers (1989) argues that in academic discourse making claims threatens the negative face of other researchers; since it restricts the freedom of the other researchers in choosing how to act upon the claims and interpret them with their own reasons. In other words, if the authors do not leave room for the readers to have their freedom of action and claim their findings with high degree of certainty, they invade the readers' realm and force them to accept what they claim, and accordingly threaten the negative face of them.

As a result, the use of hedges as one of the negative politeness strategies in addition to their interpersonal function is the necessity for mitigateing Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) involved in the social interactions between writers and readers.

Hedging as an interesting linguistic category, however, is extremely difficult to be defined. Over the years hedge and hedging have been viewed from different angles by different researchers. As a result, no common description exists about hedge and hedging in the literature (Varttala, 2001). As Hyland (1998) states, direct definition of the notions are scarce and the existing ones are used differently by different authors.

Considering the current different definitions of hedges, it is not surprising that studies of hedging are initiated with a definition of the term in a certain study. Likewise the adopted definition in this study is based on Salager-Meyer, Defives and Hamelynck's (1996) definition which consists of five dimensional concepts. They define hedging as rhetoric, semantic and pragmatic devices used in the scientific communication among specialists for:

1. Creating purposive fuzziness and vagueness (threat-minimizing strategy);
2. Reducing levels of certainty of the truth of propositions (i.e. impossibility or unwillingness of reaching absolute accuracy and of quantifying all the phenomena under observation);
3. Expressing tentativeness and flexibility;
4. Projecting modesty for achievements and politeness with the community;
5. Avoiding personal involvement.

As in the academic world there is always a sense of "uncertainties, indirectness, and non-finality" (Mauranen, 1997, p.115), academic writers and particularly RA writers need to present their claims cautiously, tentatively, diplomatically, and modestly in order to meet the expectations of the corresponding discourse community (Hyland, 1995; Salager-Meyer, 1997). For instance, instead of writing "pickles are vegetables" it would be better for the writers to put it in cautious way and write "pickles can be viewed as vegetables" (Varttalla, 2001, p. 9).

Research article authors' degree of commitment to their claims and accordingly showing their respect and politeness to their colleagues at the same time is one of the issues which has occupied the minds of researchers in the field of discourse analysis. For instance, Salager-Meyer (1994) analyzed fifteen English medical articles and identified the frequency of hedges based on her category (i.e., shields, approximators, authors' personal doubt, emotionally-charged intensifiers, and compound hedges) within two genres of written discourse; namely, case report (CR) and research paper (RP). Her research results revealed high frequency of occurrence of hedges such as shields, approximators, and compound hedges in the sample. Her study also showed that the Discussion sections in the RP and Comment section (i.e. Discussion section) contained the most hedges whereas the Methods sections were the least-hedged rhetorical sections. Salager-Meyer believed that the use of hedges is related to the general structure of the discourse community. It can be concluded that the conventions of the discourse community and obeying the rules by the researchers determined the use of hedges in this study.

Falahati (2004) investigated hedges in Introduction and Discussion sections of medicine, chemistry, and psychology RAs in two languages; English and Farsi. The findings of this study showed that the English RAs were more hedged than the Farsi RAs. The results also showed that the Discussion sections of RAs, in general, favor more hedges than the Introduction sections. The distribution of hedging devices was shown to be different across disciplines. The English psychology and Farsi medicine RAs were found to be the most heavily hedged disciplines. It can be stated that English

language as a dominant language in today's scientific world needs more hedges from the researchers, since the community is consisted of members from the whole world.

Yang (2006), focusing on a corpus of 10 texts in material science discipline, explored the use of hedging both by Chinese and English writers. The results of this study showed that RAs written by Chinese writers tend to be more direct and authoritative in tone which may be related to the nature of the language in that particular discipline.

Martin (2008) in his study analyzed hedges in English and Spanish written RAs in Clinical and Health Psychology disciplines. The results of his study revealed that there are similarities between the two languages regarding the distribution of hedges across the different sections of the RAs, although a certain degree of indetermination strategy occurs in English texts and showing English RAs in the field of Clinical and Health Psychology provide more protection to the author's face. What is gained is that nationality is less powerful than the discipline in affecting the writing style.

Jalilifar (2011) examined 90 research article Discussion sections' hedges and boosters in two disciplines of Applied Linguistics and Psychology by three groups of writers; English writer, Perlish (Iranian writers write in English), and Persian writers (Iranian writers write in Farsi). The results of analyses showed significant differences in frequency, type, and functions of these devices in the texts. Jalilifar claimed that differences might be attributed to lack of awareness of the conventional rules of English rhetoric, limited knowledge of academic English by Persian writers, and lack of explicit instruction and exposure to pragmatic and sociolinguistic rules of English by Persian researchers. It seems that Iranians researchers should be thought enough about the role of hedges in the academic community.

In spite of recent studies on hedges (e.g. Crompton, 1997; Kreutz & Harres, 1997; Namsarayer, 1997; Salager-Meyer, 1994, 1997; Wishnoff, 2000; Varttala, 2001; Hyland, 2000; Atai & Sadr, 2008; Winardi, 2009), the study of hedging has only just begun and is relatively new in discourse studies (Hyland, 2009).

To the best knowledge of the researchers of this study, the study of hedges in the field of Environmental Sciences has been neglected in the literature. Moreover, studies on hedges have been conducted in Iran are based only on interactional perspective. However, the present study has tried to look at the hedges from the concept of politeness perspective to enrich the literature. Specifically, the purpose of the present study is to compare and contrast the frequency and types of hedges used in Environmental Sciences RAs written by three groups of writers: English Research Writers (ERWs), Iranian research Writers (IRWs) (writing in English), and Iranians who write in Farsi.

Regarding what we mentioned in the previous sections and based on the purposes, the present paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between English Environmental Sciences RAs written by English Research Writers and Iranian Research Writers in terms of the number and types of hedges used in their Discussion sections?

2. Is there any significant difference between English and Farsi Environmental Sciences RAs written by English Research Writers and Iranian Research Writers in terms of the number and types of hedges used in their Discussion sections?

3. Is there any significant difference between English and Farsi Environmental Sciences RAs written by Iranian Research Writers in terms of the number and types of hedges used in their Discussion sections?

II. Methodology

Corpus

The corpus of this study was based on a set of English and Farsi data composed of 60 research articles of Environmental Sciences discipline from 2005-2009; 20 English articles written by EWRs, 20 English articles written by IRWs, and 20 Farsi articles written by IRWs. Articles by EWRs were taken from the leading journal, American Journal of Environmental Sciences, and articles by IRWs in both English and Farsi were taken from the leading journals in Iran, namely Environmental Sciences, International Journal of Environmental Sciences, and International Journal of Environmental Sciences and Technology.

Procedure

After selecting the articles, the Discussion sections of them were analyzed for the frequency and types of hedges used by the writers. The Discussion section was chosen for this study, since it is the most heavily hedged section due to the kind of information it contains (Swales, 1990; Salager-Meyer, 1994; Varttala, 2001; Hyland, 1998). The chosen section was precisely read twice word by word in order to identify and locate the hedges. Afterwards, the number of hedges was recorded in each RA and in each language separately. The hedges recorded in the sample, then, classified into the five types of hedges based on Salager-Meyer (1994) taxonomy (equivalents for Farsi articles).

1. Shields, such as *can, could, may, might, would, to appear, to seem, probably, to suggest*.

2. Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time: e.g., *approximately, roughly, about, often, occasionally*, etc.

3. Authors' personal doubt and direct involvement, expressions such as *I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that ...*

4. Emotionally-charged intensifiers, such as *extremely difficult/interesting, of particular importance, unexpectedly, surprisingly*, etc.

5. Compound hedges, the examples are: *could be suggested, would seem likely, would seem somewhat.*

III. Data Analysis

The frequency and types of hedges in Discussion section of Environmental Sciences RAs were categorized, compared and contrasted according to the writers of the articles.

To address the research questions, table 1 presents the frequency and percentage of hedges in English RAs by EWRs and IRWs, and Farsi RAs by IRWs. Tables 2, 3, and 4 indicate whether or not the significant difference exists among these groups in employing hedges in terms of the frequency.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF HEDGES IN DISCUSSION SECTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES RAS BY ERWS & IRWS IN ENGLISH AND FARSI

Hedges types	**Type 1**		**Type 2**		**Type 3**		**Type 4**		**Type 5**		**Total**	
Writers	F.	P.	F.	P.	F.	P.	F.	P.	F.	P.	F.	P.
ERWs	169	59.71	81	28.62	9	3.18	16	5.65	8	2.82	283	100
IRWs (writing in English)	110	48.67	83	36.72	6	2.65	15	6.63	12	5.30	226	100
IRWs (writing in Farsi)	123	61.19	67	33.33	0	0	5	2.5	6	2.98	201	100

As table 1 reveals the three groups of writers used type 1 (Shields) hedges as the most frequently ones. English writers employed 169 (59.71%) hedges while their Iranian counterparts in their English writings employed 110 (48.67%) hedges and other Iranians in Farsi articles used 123 (61.19%) out of the total number of 283, 226, and 201 hedges respectively. What table 1 reveals about type 2 (Approximators) hedges is that EWRs employed 81 (28.62%) out of total, IRWs utilized 83 (36.72%) in English articles, and 67 (33.33%) in Farsi articles out of their total number of hedges. The result of type 3 (Authors' personal doubt and direct involvement) hedges shows that 9 (3.18%), 6 (2.65%), and 0 hedges of this type used by ERWs, IRWs (English articles), and IRWs (Farsi articles) respectively. The 0 frequency of this type for Farsi RAs may mean that Iranians had no interest to add any personal doubt and have direct involvement in presenting the new information. The frequency of type 4 (Emotionally-charged intensifiers) hedges for ERWs was 16 (5.65%), for IRWs was 15 (6.63%), and for IRWs when they wrote in Farsi was 5 (2.5%). Type 5 (compound hedges) hedges' frequency in English texts was 8 (2.82%) for the first group, 12 (5.30%) for the second group, and 6 (2.98%) for the third group, regarding the total number of hedges for each group. The findings are supported by the chi-square procedure in table 2 to answer the first research question.

TABLE 2
CHI-SQUARE FOR THE FREQUENCY OF HEDGES FOR ENGLISH DISCUSSION SECTIONS WRITTEN BY ERWS AND IRWS

Chi-square= 7.65	**Degree of freedom= 4**			**Critical chi-square= 9.49**	
Hedging type	1	2	3	4	5
EWRs	F.169	F.81	F.9	F.16	F.8
IRWs	F.110	F.83	F.6	F.15	F.12

Since the chi-square observed value (7.65) at 4 degrees of freedom in Discussion section of English RAs written by ERWs and IRWS is lower than the critical chi-square (9.49), it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the frequencies of hedges in this two compared groups. It means that the writings of Iranians are influenced by their discipline rather than their own language and culture.

Table 3 is addresses for the second research question of this study through chi-square analysis.

TABLE 3
CHI-SQUARE FOR THE FREQUENCY OF HEDGES FOR ENGLISH AND FARSI DISCUSSION SECTIONS WRITTEN BY ERWS AND IRWS

Chi-square= 10.01	**Degree of freedom= 4**			**Critical chi-square= 9.49**	
Hedging type	1	2	3	4	5
ERWs	F.169	F.81	F.9	F.16	F.8
IRWs	F.123	F.67	F.0	F.5	F.6

As can be seen the chi-square value (10.01) at 4 degrees of freedom is higher than the critical chi-square (9.49). Therefore, what is inferred is that there is a significant difference in terms of the frequency of the use of different types of hedges in this analysis. It shows that EWRS employed more hedges than IRWs in their claims. This result indicates that IRWs are more authoritative and direct in their writing in Farsi language and this might be attributed to the nature of their language.

Table 4 provides an answer to the third question which dealts with the frequency of employed hedges by IRWs in their English and Farsi RAs.

TABLE 4
CHI-SQUARE FOR THE FREQUENCY OF HEDGES FOR ENGLISH AND FARSI DISCUSSION SECTIONS WRITTEN BY IRWS

Chi-square= 14.02	**Degree of freedom= 4**			**Critical chi-square= 9.49**	
Hedging type	1	2	3	4	5
IRWs (writing in English)	F.110	F.83	F.6	F.15	F.12
IRWs (writing in Farsi)	F.123	F.67	F.0	F.5	F.6

Again as this table demonstrates the observed value of the chi-square (14.02) at 4 degrees of freedom is higher than the critical chi-square (9.49), it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the writings of the Iranians in English and Farsi in the field of Environmental Sciences. What this finding suggests is that expressing certainty is important in Farsi language. Therefore, the hedged texts are considered as the less reliable ones in Environmental Sciences discipline when the authors write in Farsi.

IV. Discussion

The data analysis revealed that all research writers used type 1 (Shields) hedges as the most frequent ones. This finding is supported by the findings of Salager-Meyer (1994), Selinker (1979), Adam-Smith (1984), and Trimble (1985) who stated that the most frequently used hedging device in articles was shield category. Based on the first comparison, both ERWs and IRWs employed hedges almost equally in English RAs. It means that both groups of writers had the same attitude towards using hedging in this discipline while writing in English. This finding is concurrent with the findings of the previous studies, such as Winardi's (2009) and Mohammadi Khahan (2006) which showed that the equality in using hedges between native and non-native researchers seems to be related the fact that writers are more influenced by their discipline than their nationality.

In the second comparison, we found that type 3 (Authors' personal doubt and direct involvement) hedges have not been employed by Iranian writers in Farsi articles. This might be related to the nature of their language, i.e. Farsi, which may not let authors to reveal thier personal doubts and get involved directly in the issue which can stem from their culture. The other reason for this, is possibly related to the convention exists in environmental discipline in Farsi language. Namely, fewer hedges usually represent a higher acceptability of the articles in this discipline in Farsi language. Therefore, significant differences were found in the frequency of hedges in two languages by different authors. This finding can be supported by the findings of Vassileva (2001) and Yang (2003) who found that non-English research articles by their native speakers included fewer hedges than English research articles written by native speakers of English.

The third comparison between English and Farsi texts written by IRWs indicated that English texts enjoyed more hedges than Farsi texts. The difference of the frequency of hedges in two languages was significant. It seems that Iranian writers tend to be more direct in tone when they write in Farsi language. This direct tone might be attributed to the norms and conventions which govern the Environmental Sciences discipline in Farsi language. This finding is in line with Jalilifar (2011) who found that Iranian writers employed fewer hedges when they wrote in their own language than when they wrote in English.

Iranian writers' direct tone in Farsi language can be seen by the number of hedges and hedging statements which are fewer than those in English articles by English and Iranian writers. Academic English uses more hedges and fewer boosters, which means that English writers are more tactful and cautious in uttering their claims and they tend to address their readers indirectly; but Iranian writers seem to be less conservative and instead address their readers directly (Jalilifar, 2011). Jalilifar (2011) believes that the differences between Farsi and English writings in utilizing hedges might stem from the insufficient awareness of IRWs of the role of hedges and the fact that they do not usually receive explicit instruction on how to use them in Farsi academic context. A writer may use a hedge, not only to express doubt and reduce personal commitment for a statement but also to gain acceptance from the community for which he writes but reducing the force of the statements on the addresses. Iranian writers' less use of hedges in Farsi RAs might indicate that they are so certain about their results that they leave little doubt on them.

In addition to this reason which has been announced by Jalilifar (2011), it seems that another interpretation may exist. It is assumed that if researchers wish to go through the academic gateway and enter the community in Environmental Sciences discipline in Farsi language they should show their certainty about their findings, since the uncertain claims are frowned upon and not considered as the membership characteristic.

Culture can affect the style of writing as well. As Wishnoff (2000) states culture is significant in defining what we say, and how, where, and when we say it and therefore influences and shapes language and reflects by it (Deng, 2003). Iranian writers with a different cultural background from English writers may have their own understanding of appropriate formality, directness, politeness and other pragmatic rules. Hence, academic writing which the Iranian writers take in their own language seems to be purely content-based and impersonal at the same time. This kind of certainty in Farsi language seems to be in the opposite way of negative politeness. Despite the fact that IRWs observe the rules of the discipline while they write in Farsi, they leave little room for their addressees and from the international perspective of the politeness, they seem to invade the addressees' territories and threaten their negative face.

V. Conclusion

The analysis of the corpus of the present study showed that ERWs, IRWs write in English, and IRWs who write in Farsi used all types of hedges in their writings except type 3 (Authors' personal doubt and direct involvement) hedges which have not been observed in Farsi written texts. All three groups of writers used type 1 (Shields) hedges as the most frequent ones followed by type 2 (Approximators) hedges. Utilizing chi-square procedure revealed no statistically significant difference in the frequency of hedges in English Environmental Sciences RAs' Discussion sections written

by ERWs and IRWS. This fact might be related to their disciplinary backgrounds. However, by comparing ERWs' English texts with IRWs' Farsi ones and both groups of IRWs' writings with together, we realized that hedges were used more when authors wrote in English. Therefore, significant difference was found in the frequency of hedges between English texts and Farsi ones. The difference can be attributed to the writers' different cultural and linguistic backgrounds such as values, conventions, beliefs and attitudes.

The results of our study give further support to Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza, and Zambrano's (2003) claim who asserted that research reporting is cultural/language bound and that courtesy markers, solidarity and tactfulness are cultural manifestations. They are also in line with the claim that different cultures vary in their discourse preferences (Valero-Garces, 1996). This study revealed that the educational systems are not static but are dynamic and can be changed under the influence from other educational systems (Salager-Meyer, 1994).

Therefore, it can be concluded that one cannot communicate properly with people in other communities unless he has enough knowledge of the conventions of presenting and organizing ideas in those communities. Hedges provide a part of this knowledge for us.

As a pedagogical implication, this study revealed the importance of increasing students' awareness of the way native speakers of English organize their writings. English as the dominant language of scientific and academic writing in the world provides a ground for its writers to follow scientific and academic writing conventions. Therefore, familiarizing students with the rule and norms of academic writing might help them develop their understanding of hedges in their own academic discourse community.

Furthermore, the results of this study can be of special value for Iranian Environmental Sciences researchers who want to publish their writings in international journals. Observing the conventions in their RAs would make them be accepted in global community. The findings of the paper also might help ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes) instructors to raise students' awareness about using hedges appropriately.

Considering the importance of hedging devices in academic writing, prospective researchers focus on the other sections of the Environmental Sciences RAs. The present study examined only the RAs in Environmental Sciences field. It is suggested that further researches explore how Iranian writers from different disciplines differ from their native-English counterparts in utilizing hedges in their academic writings. Such studies would definitely shed light on the relationships between language and culture.

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An Accent-Plus Lesson for an English Phonetics Class: Integrating Indian English into Contrastive Analysis

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***Abstract*—Despite the diverse forms of English used and spoken around the world, most English learners tend to regard English as a homogeneous language, mistakenly believing that its linguistic variation is an error or a defect, regardless of the context where it operates for international and intranational communication. In response to Kachru and Smith's (2008) proposal of a paradigm shift towards pluralistic models of English and Larsen-Freeman's (2007) deconstructive perspective of the acquisition/participation dichotomy, this paper devised a specific accent-plus lesson on Indian English for English phonetics teachers to enhance English learners' ethnosensitivity towards diverse ways of speaking English in different countries.**

***Index Terms*—English accents, phonology, Indian English, World Englishes**

I. Introduction

Expanding-circle English (ECE) speakers[1] who only acquire Standard English (SE) for the academic purposes are usually unaware that distinct varieties of English are spoken with unique accents among different English speakers due to the worldwide spread of English as the international *lingua franca* (Filppula et al., 2009; Gimenez, 2001; Jenkins, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Wajnryb, 2008; Wolf, 2008). Therefore, English learners need to be informed that English is not merely spoken by native English (NE) speakers but also by nonnative English (NNE) speakers in various settings for different purposes (Widdowson, 1994). As Canagarajah puts it (2006, p. 229):

The changing pedagogical priorities suggest that we have to move away from a reliance on discrete-item tests on formal grammatical competence and develop instruments that are sensitive to performance and pragmatics. In effect, assessment would focus on strategies of negotiation, situated performance, communicative repertoire, and language awareness.

Given the realities of English used in different countries and international communication, limiting one's teaching of the English language to SE is inadequate and misleading. It is necessary to dispel the elitist view that General American English (GAE) and Standard British English (SBE, i.e., Received Pronunciation, RP) are the only ones worthy of study in terms of global interaction and intercultural exchange. In this respect, Kirkpatrick (2007, pp. 196-7) remarked, "Well-trained, multilingual and culturally sensitive and sophisticated teachers can best teach today's learners of English."

Unfortunately, a survey of American MA programs in TESOL indicates that very few courses were designed to train students in the use of different varieties of English. Milroy and Milroy (1999, p. 94) commented that the projection of socio-cultural identity appears to be more important than the acceptance of SE. For instance, in the use of English for international communication, Inner-Circle speakers usually do not imitate SE, although they might accommodate their speeches towards one another for effective mutual understanding. Wassink (1999) also noticed that most young Jamaican English speakers have positive feelings for their indigenous varieties of English. The claim made by Tony Tan, the former Education Minister of Singapore, also reveals the importance of local identities over SE (cited in Pennycook, 1994, p. 222),

We do not wish to be a pseudo-Western society. While we need to learn and use English to master technology and enhance our competitive edge in the international business community, we should not let the use of English override the importance of keeping our links to our cultural roots strong and healthy (*The Sunday Times*, March, 10th 1991).

Examples such as these indicate that different English speakers' positive attitudes towards their distinct language usages and accents are becoming increasingly apparent.

Nevertheless, the value system represented in Western-produced English-learning textbooks tends to be rather ethnocentric, giving little or no consideration to different national varieties of English (Gill, 2002; Nihalani et at., 2004).

[1] According to Kachru (1985), the Expanding Circle refers to the countries where English is mainly acquired to interact with foreigners, while the national language is usually the mother tongue spoken and used by the majority to interact with each other domestically, as in Taiwan and Turkey. By contrast, the Inner circle denotes such countries as Australia and Canada where English is generally spoken as the native language, whereas the Outer Circle includes the countries where English operates as an associate language alongside national languages, as in India and Singapore.

In addition to national standards, very few textbooks address English regiolects. Standard English is usually taught and used only in school (or to be more accurate, only in English classes) and have limited functions in real-world communication. Although students learn SE in school, they tend to regard such formal communication patterns as "textbook" English and rarely use them in their daily interactions. For instance, Americans learn GAE in school, but on a daily basis they tend to use local English dialects, such as African-American Vernacular English, White American English Vernaculars, and other English ethnic dialects (Rickford, 1999).

Those who insist on using standard textbook English (if indeed that were possible) are likely to be perceived as wanting to maintain a certain social distance, and might even be regarded by their colleagues as arrogant individuals who want to show off their language skills. Ironically, the inappropriate use of SE in causal social interactions with associates often results in communication breakdowns. Crosling and Ward (2002) reported that the ability to make formal presentations is by itself inadequate preparation for the workplace because most oral communication in international companies is informal in nature. They found that colleagues in the same department mostly use informal English for work-related discussions. In another study, Gill (2002) noted that standard forms of English are only used to give company presentations.

Accordingly, ECE learners need to be aware that English speakers, native and nonnative alike, *all* speak English with accents to some extent in interactions with one another. With the emergence of 'New Englishes,' the question of whether global English will be British English or American English has been dated (Graddol, 1997). The primacy of NE speakers' standards and conventions for international communication are ideologically undesirable and practically untenable (Kachru & Smith, 2008) given the facts that distinct varieties of English have evolved with their own standards (Trudgill, 2004), nonstandard/nonnative speakers have largely outnumbered native speakers (Crystal, 2003), and most significantly, the interaction among nonstandard/nonnative speakers has rapidly increased worldwide (Mattock, 2003). Commenting on the current diversity of English, Crystal (2003, p. 130) stated, "No one now can claim sole ownership of English, emphasizing that this attitude is probably the best way of defining a genuinely global language." Therefore, teachers need to sensitize their students to distinct varieties of English used in different countries.

II. Pluralistic Models of English

The above reflection on the actual use of English in the world does not mean to dichotomize the social dimension of language use with the cognitive view of language acquisition. Nor does it exclude the pedagogical norm of SE. Rather, it illustrates the need for a social and contextual orientation to the acquisition of English as a *lingua franca* for international communication, because the mainstream of English acquisition has long been constructed on such frameworks as interlanguage, performance analysis, and language transfer. From Larsen-Freeman's (2007) chaos/complexity perspective, the acquisition/participation dichotomy can be deconstructed to regard language learning as the dynamic process that emphasizes both linguistic and social competences on which language learners might draw as their identities and strategies in interaction and negotiation for different purposes.

Awareness of distinct varieties of English does not reject SE. One still needs to acquire and use SE in a formal context. It is not SE but its ideology that needs to be redressed in light of the worldwide spread of English (Bhatt, 2002; Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Jenkins, 2007). From Kachru's (1985) concept of World Englishes, English teachers need to raise English learners' awareness that SE might be defined differently in different nations and that one might learn SE but present different proficiencies and adapt it with local varieties of English to various social contexts. To help ECE learners improve their English proficiency, a teacher can contrast SE with other varieties of English in terms of their grammar, accents, and pragmatics. Unlike error analysis, however, this contrastive analysis can not only strengthen their language skills but also acknowledge other English varieties as diverse ethnic ways of speaking.

Indeed, variation is not merely the spice of life but also the essence of life. Canagarajah (2006) stressed the awareness of World Englishes because it enables a person to "shuttle between diverse communities in the postmodern world" (p. 237). As Kosslyn (2006, p. 555) remarked,

Diversity is not a luxury, but rather is essential in many walks of life. Think about why a carpenter has many different devices in his toolbox. It's impossible to know in advance what challenges the environment will produce, and what abilities will need to be marshaled…to help us negotiate future challenges.

It is time to highlight ethnosensitive, receptive competence in the classroom, in addition to linguistic competence. Hearers tend to make assumptions about SE and then use them to pass negative judgments on 'odd' accents, 'weird' expressions, and 'strange' discourse practices, thereby discriminating against speakers who use different varieties of English. Influenced by the SE ideology, NNE speakers also feel incompetent if they fail to speak and use SE (Lippi-Green, 1997). Due to the existence of distinct varieties of English that have developed in different nations as a result of the natural evolution of language, a tolerant and open-minded attitude towards diverse ways of speaking English for interethnic communication should be encouraged in the classroom.

Pedagogical approaches can do much to resolve these issues. Drawing on Kachru and Smith's (2008) pedagogical framework of World Englishes and Larsen-Freeman's (2007) chaos/complexity perspective of the dynamic language acquisition process, this paper proposes an accent-plus lesson plan for English phonetics teachers to help ECE learners become aware of distinct English accents spoken in different nations.

III. An Accent-Plus Lesson Plan

To begin with, an English phonetics teacher can analyze the sound differences between two pedagogical standards of the English language: British English (BE) and General American English (GAE). This paper demonstrates an online video to discuss BE,[2] which was filmed by Ben, a BE speaker, in his application for a job as an island caretaker to explore the Islands of the Great Barrier Reef in Queensland Australia. His well-designed video appears radiantly outstanding among a shortlist of 50 applicants from 22 countries; after the interview, he was finally offered the job from the final 16 applicants. The video was transcribed below:

Video courtesy of Youtube

Hi, I'm Ben, or otherwise known as the adventurous, crazy, energetic, one, and there's only 55 seconds left to tell you why! Ahhh! I love discovering new places. Last year I drove all around Africa. I cross deserts, climb mountains, run marathons, bungee jump, mountain bike, scuba dive, and snorkel everywhere, because…I'm practically a fish myself! As for trying new things, how about riding an ostrich? What can I say; animals love me, and I love them too, especially if they're rare; well, ok, maybe not that rare. I'm a great communicator, I love meeting people, and immersing myself in other cultures. I've written newspaper and magazine articles, given TV and radio interviews, and kept a journal and video blog on my website to share my experiences with others, and I'd love to do the same for you. We can learn about the 100 Miles of Magic Great Barrier Reef together, and all that Queensland has to offer. I'm an experienced events manager, charity fundraiser, and tour guide. I have a bachelor of science degree and a keen interest in photography. So I'm your man. If it's the best job in the world, then I'm off to the best place in the world.

After playing the video, the teacher can ask students if they notice any linguistic differences between GAE and the way Ben speaks English in the video. For instance, Ben did not pronounce the syllable-final retroflex, as illustrated in such words as *there*, *year* and *share*. Intriguingly, he said /ju/ for the nuclei in such words as *new* and *newspaper*, while GAE only utters the vowel /u/. In addition, he changed the vowel /æ/ into /ɑ/ in words, including *Africa*, *magazine*, *magic*, and *bachelor*. Furthermore, he said /ɒ/ for the vowel /ɑ/, as shown in *on*, *job*, and *ostrich*. He also underwent the diphthong shifts including the change of /aɪ/ into /ʌɪ/ and the change of /oʊ/ into /əʊ/. These sound changes occur regularly, not sporadically. Below is the summary of the prominent BE features different from GAE (adapted from Upton, 2008):

- Non-rhotic accent: the retroflex vowel /ɚ/ changes into /ɜ/, as in *word* /wɜd/.
- Insertion of /j/ between a coronal and /u/, as in such words as *news*, *students*, *tube*, *nude*, and *dew*.
- Low front vowel shift: /æ/ changes into the back vowel /ɑ/ (or /a/ or /ɐ/), as in *bath* /bɑθ/.
- Low back vowel shift: /ɑ/ changes into its round counterpart /ɒ/, as in *hot* /hɒt/.
- Diphthong shifts: /aɪ/ becomes /ʌɪ, and /oʊ/ becomes /əʊ/.

By and large, different varieties of English share a similar consonant inventory, but differ considerably in their pronunciation of vowels. The following table displays how GAE[3] differs vocalically from Standard British English (i.e., Received Pronunciation, RP).[4] The teacher can use it to raise students' awareness of how the two standard varieties of English contrast phonetically with each other.

[2] This BE video appears here: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PnosVJfDrpY. The mirror site is available here: http://teacher.yuntech.edu.tw/yanght/research/videos/BE-ben.wmv.
[3] This study employs Heinle's Newbury House Dictionary of American English for sound comparison; it is available online: http://nhd.heinle.com/Home.aspx.
[4] Upton's (2008) description of RP is used as a point of reference in this study.

TABLE 1.
THE VOWELS OF GAE AND RP ACCORDING TO WELL'S (1982) LEXICAL SET

Word	RP	GAE
Fleece	iː	i
Kit	ɪ	ɪ
Face	eɪ	eɪ
Dress	ɛ	ɛ
Trap	a	æ
Bath	ɑː ~a	æ
Strut	ʌ	ʌ
Palm	ɑː	ɑ
Lot	ɒ	ɑ
Goose	uː	u
Foot	ʊ	ʊ
Goat	əʊ	oʊ
Cloth	ɒ	ɔ
Thought	ɔː	ɔ
Price	ʌɪ	aɪ
Choice	ɔɪ	ɔɪ
Mouth	aʊ	aʊ
Near	ɪə	ɪr
Square	ɛː	ɛr
Nurse	əː	ɝ
Start	ɑː	ɑr
North	ɔː	ɔr
Force	ɔː	ɔr
Cure	ʊə ~ɔː	jʊr
Tuesday	ju	u
happY	i	i
lettER	ə	r
commA	ə	ə

Next, this paper demonstrates an accent-plus lesson plan that analyzes Indian English (IE) as an example to sensitize students towards different ways of speaking English. To this end, this paper utilizes a TV commercial available online to compare with IE with GAE. This video is a popular TV commercial released in India to promote Pepsi.[5] Its transcription is shown below:

Video courtesy of Youtube

As far as I can remember, I've always lived with elephants. Then, one day, I discovered I had power over them. So I decided to plan them to do something special—"The Elephant Tower." My elephant towers became bigger and bigger. I was famous all over India. But I was wrong about those animals. Elephants were not a good idea. I think I'm back.

After playing the video, the teacher can ask the students whether they notice any words that are pronounced differently than they are pronounced in GAE/RP. The teacher then helps the students identify and analyze such words by playing the video one sentence at a time. The teacher proceeds to explain the sound features of IE observed in the video. First, the narrator's spoken English is characterized by an r-less accent, reflecting a typical BE accent. Specifically, the syllable-final r-sound is not deleted but enunciated as schwa, as in *far, remember, power, over, tower, bigger,* and *were*. This finding is unsurprising, because India had long been a British colony before becoming a republic in 1947. In fact, beginning in the 16th century, Portugal, the Netherlands, and France also established trading posts in India.

Like RP, educated Indian English (IE) has a non-rhotic accent, but the word-final /r/ is usually pronounced when

[5] This video appears on Youtube: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dSCr-Ul6O8U&p=164B8CCA542FAFD7&playnext=1&index=56. Its mirror site is available here: http://teacher.yuntech.edu.tw/yanght/research/videos/IE.wmv.

followed by a word beginning with a vowel, as in *interaction*, *the car is coming*, and *the player insisted on his principle* (Sailaja, 2009, p. 19-20). This sound feature, however, does not appear in this video, as in such possible phrases as *power over them* and *all over India*. Although cultivated IE is non-rhotic, general IE is rhotic (Gargesh, 2008, p. 237; Sailaja, 2009, p. 20).

Another noticeable RP phonological feature is the vowel shift from /æ/ to /ɛ/, as in such words as *had*, *plan*, *animals*, and *back*. The lax epsilon /ɛ/ in turn becomes its tense counterpart /e/, as illustrated in words like *remember*, *elephant*, and *them*. The most distinctive aspect of the accent in the IE commercial is the lack of aspiration of voiceless stops, as in *power* and *tower*. The common IE features observed in the video are summarized as follows (Gargesh, 2008):

- Rhotic accent (general IE), non-rhotic accent (cultivated IE)
- Vowel shift from /æ/ to /ɛ/, as in *plan.*
- Vowel shift from /ɛ/ to /e/, as in *elephant.*
- Unaspiration of voiceless stops, as in *power*.

Additionally, IE also features the insertion of /j/ between a coronal and /u/, as in such words as *student* and *tube* (Gargesh, 2008; Nihalani *et al*., 2004). However, this feature is not observable in the commercial. Moreover, other frequent distinctive IE features do not occur in the video, including the shift of interdental fricatives to dental stops (e.g. *with, then, something, those,* and *think*), the realization of the stops /t/ and /d/ as retroflexes, and the peculiar exchange between /v/ and /w/ (Nihalani *et al*., 2004).

Additionally, the narrator's intonation sounds fairly different from the Inner-Circle varieties of English under examination. For instance, the IE speaker tends to give a falling tone (231) to the last word of the non-final sentence, as indicated below:

(1) *As far as I can remember* (a falling tone)*, I've always lived with elephants.*

(2) *Then, one day* (a falling tone), *I discovered I had power over them.*

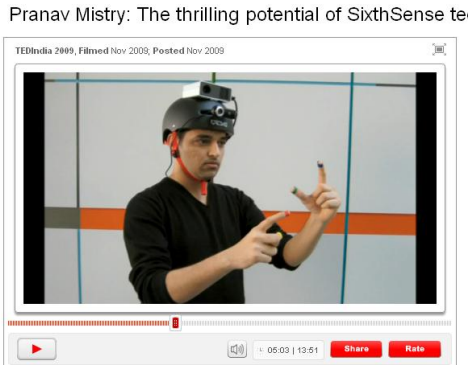
By contrast, native English speakers tend to use a slightly falling tone (232), a plain tone (22), or a curve tone (2312) for emphasis (Clark, 2009; Hughes, 2006).

After the sound analysis of the video, the teacher can give the students an assignment to analyze the way other IE speakers speak English. The teacher can provide the following table for the students to examine whether some words undergo the given sound features:

TABLE 2.
COMMON IE SOUND FEATURES

Sound changes	Examples	Exceptions The words that don't undergo the sound features
Rhotic or non-rhotic accent		
Insertion of /j/ between a coronal and /u/		
/æ/ → /ɛ/ (or /a/ or /ɑ/; which one do you perceive?)		
/ɛ/ → /e/		
Unaspiration of voiceless stops		
Interdental fricatives to dental stops		
Realization of the stops /t/ and /d/ as retroflexes		
Exchange between /v/ and /w/		
Other features that you notice		

For the assignment, the teacher can recommend the students ted.com, where they can analyze an IE speaker like Pranav Mistry.[6]



Video courtesy of TED.com

[6] Pranav Mistry, an MIT PhD candidate, talks about the thrilling potential of SixthSense technology, which helps the physical world interact with the world of data. His talk appears here: http://www.ted.com/talks/lang/en/pranav_mistry_the_thrilling_potential_of_sixthsense_technology.html. The mirror site is available here: http://teacher.yuntech.edu.tw/yanght/research/videos/IE-mistry.wmv.

The teacher can also encourage them to analyze songs sung by Indians. By integrating accent-plus lesson plans like this into an English phonetics course, the teacher can not only enhance students' awareness of the sound contrast between SE and IE, but she can also expand their listening comprehension repertoire for effective communication with IE speakers (Scales et al., 2006).

IV. Analyzing English TV Commercials

This paper has presented a TV commercial to demonstrate how IE differs phonetically from SE. Accordingly, a teacher can make use of TV commercials to discuss distinct ways of speaking English in different countries. According to Gill' (2002) research on TV commercials in Malaysia, local basilectal (broad) and mesolectal (general) varieties of English are often deployed to capture listeners' attention, because they are the varieties most Malaysians speak in daily life. This report indicates that advertisers usually employ popular colloquial varieties of English to engender a sense of friendliness and also to remind customers that their products are designed for them and for everyday use. By contrast, acrolectal (educated or cultivated) English is often utilized to present product features. Gill (2002, p. 97) observed that at the summary level, where the product is announced, advertisers tend to use acrolectal English; they prefer Standard Malaysian English for making statements about their products and services. Examples such as these reveal that business people wishing to promote their products in other nations need to understand the associations of the local English sociolects.

One approach to finding online videos suitable for the teaching of English accents is to use the search engine on the homepage of YouTube, but this can be difficult and time consuming due to the vast number of videos available on this website. One way of making the selection process more efficient is to limit the search to TV commercials available online. TV commercials are not only interesting and brief, but also demonstrate different ways of speaking, thus providing authentic data for comparing SE with other varieties of English. The following two online databases of international TV commercials are particularly useful:

http://www.adforum.com

http://www.publivores.com

The website TED.com is also helpful because it includes different speakers talking about a wide range of topics, and also provides subtitles—especially helpful for increasing intelligibility.

Additionally, the teacher can also help students analyze how the accent differs from SE and their ways of speaking. Because of growing international interaction among NNE speakers, one needs to be aware of distinct English accents. A useful website for preparing for this activity is the speech accent archive created by George Mason University: http://accent.gmu.edu/index.php. Moreover, students can listen to an online radio news broadcast spoken in English from a different nation. Worldwide Radio (http://www.live-radio.net/worldwide.shtml) provides links to thousands of radio stations worldwide. The instructor can ask students how well they can understand a piece of news and then examine the difficulty the students might encounter. For instance, general (or mesolectal) Indian English frequently misplace the stress on the second syllable of the poly-syllabic word such as *ci'ty, fami'ly* and *cha'racter* (Bansal, 1969). Moreover, Indian English speakers tend to use the dental stop /t/ in substitution for the syllable-final interdental fricative, as in such words as *with, earth, mouth*, and *death* (Sailaja, 2009). Through listening practices and sound analyses, students can familiarize themselves with IE accents (see Jenkins' books published in 2000, 2003 and 2007 for more details on the implications of World Englishes for international communication). Such familiarity, together with contrastive accent analysis, can help them interact effectively with IE speakers.

V. Conclusion

This paper has proposed an accent-plus lesson plan for English phonetics teachers to teach ECE learners IE accent in contrast to SE as an example of raising their awareness of distinct English accents spoken in different nations. Based on Kachru and Smith's (2008) pluralistic model of World Englishes and Larsen-Freeman's (2007) deconstructive perspective of the acquisition/participation dichotomy, this lesson plan has incorporated three essential components into the course: 1) developing an awareness of IE accents via linguistic exposure and contrastive analysis; 2) developing an awareness of English usage in a TV commercial; and 3) developing familiarity with IE accents. Because English has spread so pervasively that it no longer belongs exclusively to Americans and Britons, it is crucial to raise awareness of the status and functions of various forms of English used worldwide today (Kachru & Smith, 2008). As Rickford (1999, p. 151) remarks,

English is not a single entity, but, like any other living language, is something that varies considerably depending on one's regional background, social class and network, ethnicity, gender, age, and style, to name only the most salient dimensions. Understanding and recognizing such variation is essential for language arts and second and foreign language teachers.

With the use of English as a *lingua franca* in the world, English teachers need to help ECE learners understand how English is actually used in the world. They should not merely stress language skills but also discuss different varieties of English in a global context. The accent-plus lesson plan presented above has emphasized that ECE learners need to understand IE accents and develop receptive competence of other English accents as well. Such receptive competence

can help students make an educated guess at the ethnic origins of their future interlocutors, enabling them to employ appropriate discourse practices (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Smith, 1992; Wajnryb, 2008).

By familiarizing students with different English accents in the concept of World Englishes, English teachers can well prepare them to live with diversity and to cooperate with others in a global society—two of the core capacities that Bok (2006), Winner of the 2008 Frederic W. Ness Book Award for his thoughtful critique of higher education, urged teachers to integrate into their teaching materials. Canagarajah (2006, p. 238) also commented:

People use speech accommodation to inch toward each other as they modify their differences. They use interpersonal strategies such as repair, rephrasing, clarification, gestures, topic change, and other consensus-oriented and mutually supportive practices. Attitudinal resources can help. One needs patience, tolerance, and humility to negotiate differences. A lack of these attitudes might prevent even those with the same language from communicating with each other.

It is hoped that this accent-plus lesson plan will inspire English phonetics teachers and, by extension, English language educators to design their own accent awareness lessons for their students in preparation for actual English use in international interaction.

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Higher Task-induced Involvement Load Enhances Students' EFL Vocabulary Learning

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***Abstract*—Foreign or second language researchers and teachers have been trying for hundreds of years to develop effective instructional tasks so that they can facilitate and enhance students' vocabulary learning. Accordingly, many claims have been made in this regard. For instance, the Involvement Load Hypothesis proposed by Hulstijn and Laufer suggests that higher task-induced involvement load leads to better vocabulary learning. This study was an attempt to test and substantiate this Hypothesis. Experiments were conducted with two classes of non-English major students who were assigned tasks with different involvement loads of reading comprehension passages. Scores of vocabulary tests were collected before and after the treatment. The reliability of the test was estimated 0.70 through KR-21 formula. Independent samples t-test was used to compare the possible differences between the means of the experimental and control groups based on the gain scores from the pretest and posttest. The final result of the independent samples t-test for the comparison of the mean increment between the two groups after treatment indicated that the experimental group who received the task with higher involvement load had a better performance than the control group who didn't. Thus, the findings suggest that vocabulary learning in the fill in the blanks and sentence writing condition is significantly higher than the true or false and multiple-choice comprehension questions condition. Since the task with higher involvement load seems to have facilitated the process of vocabulary learning, the Hypothesis is supported and its application is suggested to reinforce the word retention in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts.**

***Index Terms*—EFL vocabulary learning, involvement load hypothesis, task, reading comprehension**

I. Introduction

Vocabulary as a core component of language proficiency is the basis of reading, writing, listening, and speaking ability. Learning words and how to use them is quite challenging and EFL learners cannot achieve their potential without an extensive vocabulary. One of their main problems with vocabulary learning is that it is here today, gone tomorrow. There are many theories regarding vocabulary learning. Many researchers believe that modeling vocabulary development is a difficult task. Despite more than a century of research on this multi-faceted phenomenon, researchers and theorists are still coming up with new models to help teachers figure out the best ways of instruction that might foster EFL vocabulary learning. Teachers, in turn, have been applying these models to help students increase their vocabulary and ensure better retention. Many authors suggest that effective tasks require a deeper level of processing of new words. One of the most commonly accepted views of vocabulary learning is that tasks with higher involvement load lead to better vocabulary retention.

Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) proposed the Involvement Load Hypothesis which involves three factors (need, search, evaluation), where absence of a factor is marked as 0 (-), a moderate presence of a factor as 1 (+), and strong presence as 2 (+ +). The notion of involvement load includes both motivational and cognitive components. Need is the motivational component which is present if the unknown word is needed to complete the task. Search is the cognitive component which is present if the learner needs to search for or retrieve the meaning or form of a particular word. Evaluation is the cognitive component which is present if the task involves having to compare the form or meaning with other possible words or meanings to choose the most suitable one for the context. The involvement load of the task equals the sum of the strengths of the three factors. The greater the involvement load, the better the learning.

Some researchers state that task-induced involvement entails the type of processing crucial for learning. They suggest that effective tasks require a deeper level of processing of new words. However, more empirical evidence is needed to support this hypothesis. One of the major ways of researching vocabulary teaching techniques is doing experimental comparisons of vocabulary learning activities (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001). Learning new words as a by-product of a non-vocabulary activity can happen when students do reading, listening, speaking and even writing tasks. This study is an attempt to explore if tasks with higher involvement load lead to better EFL vocabulary learning. It investigates the effect of two tasks with different degrees of involvement load on EFL vocabulary learning through reading.

II. Literature Review

According to Kim (2011), teachers are well aware of the fact that second language learners need to acquire so many words to become fluent, but they probably do not know how best to help their students in this regard. Therefore, identifying learning tasks which provide and lead to optimal vocabulary learning opportunities is pedagogically justified.

Many studies have been conducted in recent years regarding the enhancement of vocabulary learning through text-based tasks. According to Hulstijn (1992), if the meanings of unfamiliar words are correctly inferred during a reading task, they are remembered better than words which have been explained by their synonyms. According to Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996), if words are looked up in a dictionary during a reading task, they are remembered better than words that are glossed in text margin. Newton (1995) in a case study of task-based interaction found that negotiated words are retained better than non negotiated words during communicative activities. Joe (1995) discovered that tasks demanding higher levels of attention, retrieval, and generation led to a significantly higher level of vocabulary learning. In addition, Paribakht and Wesche (1997) underlined that task demands, learner attention, and learning outcome are closely related. In their study, they found that words are better retained if they are practiced after a reading task. That is, vocabulary retention in such exercises will be better than words that receive additional exposure in texts. Almost all of these authors focus on tasks that require a deeper level of processing.

In the cognitive psychology field, Craik and Lockhart (1972) stated that remembering information depends on not only attention and rehearsal but also on the levels of processing. They propose that if the information is processed at a deeper level, it will stay in memory for a longer period of time. That is, long retention depends on the depth of the processed information. Their focus was simply on orthographical, acoustic, and semantic information. This theory was expanded by Craik and Tulving (1975) by adding the notion of elaboration. They asserted that if new information is connected to the old information, it will lead to more robust memory traces. Baddeley (1999) referred to the term "richness" and argued that if a word is enriched by a variety of properties (denotation, connotation, association, use, usage, and general meaning), it will be remembered better.

This concept was applied to the EFL/ESL field by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) who proposed the Involvement Load Hypothesis as an operationalization for the construct of depth of processing. According to Craik (2002), depth of processing is recently viewed to be related to elaboration and high degree of consciousness. This view is similar to the notion of levels of awareness proposed by Schmidt (1990; 1995; 2001) at two levels – noticing and understanding. Noticing needs attention and is necessary for intake, while understanding results in deeper learning.

According to Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), the notion of involvement includes three task-specific components – need, search, and evaluation. Need is a motivational component which is defined as "the drive to comply with task requirements" (p. 14). If the task requirements are externally imposed, need is moderate (+N), and if they are self-imposed, it is strong (++N). Search and evaluation are two cognitive components related to form-meaning relationships. Martinez-Fernandez, (2008) defines the search component as "the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown word when the meaning is not provided" which "may include a variety of strategies, such as contextual guessing, consulting a dictionary, or asking the teacher" (p. 211). According to Laufer and Hulstijn, (2001, p. 14), the evaluation component involves "a comparison of a given word with other words, a comparison of a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or combining the word with others in order to assess whether a word (i.e. a form-meaning pair) does or does not fit its context". They use moderate evaluation (+E) for evaluating words that must fit in a given context and strong evaluation (++E) for words that must be combined with additional words in an original context. They suggest that vocabulary retention is influenced by the degree of the learner's involvement which, in turn, depends on the presence or absence of the three components. The following table clearly indicates the degrees of the components in the involvement load hypothesis.

The Degrees of the Components in the Involvement Load Hypothesis

Components	Degrees of the Involvement Load	Explanations
Need	Index 0 (None)	The learner does not feel the need to learn the word.
	Index 1 (Moderate)	The learner is required to learn the word.
	Index 2 (Strong)	The learner decides to learn the word.
Search	Index 0 (None)	They do not need to learn the meanings or forms of the word.
	Index 1 (Moderate)	The meaning of the word is found.
	Index 2 (Strong)	The form of the word is found.
Evaluation	Index 0 (None)	The word is not compared with other words.
	Index 1 (Moderate)	The word is compared with other words in the provided context.
	Index 2 (Strong)	The word is compared with other words in self-provided context.

From The Involvement Load Hypothesis: An Inquiry into Vocabulary Learning, by Mayumi Tsubaki, as it appeared in http://cicero.u-bunkyo.ac.jp/lib/kiyo/fsell2006/EIBUN175_184.pdf

Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) conducted two parallel studies in the Netherlands and Israel to test their hypothesis. They randomly assigned three intact classes of advanced university foreign language learners to one of three conditions (gloss, fill-in, and writing) which varied in terms of task-induced involvement load. In the first condition [+N, -S, -E], subjects read a text with marginal glosses in their first language for ten targeted words. Then, they answered ten multiple-choice comprehension questions. In the second condition [+N, -S, +E], subjects read the same text and answered the same questions, they had to fill in ten blanks choosing the words from a list of 15 words with their first language translations and target language explanations. In the third condition [+N, -S, ++E], subjects wrote a composition using the targeted words. They were provided with grammatical categories, target language explanations, examples, and first language translation. Immediate and delayed posttests, in which the subjects provided a translation in their first language or an explanation in the target language, were administered to measure the targeted words. The targeted words had not been instructed. The results of their study showed that vocabulary retention in the writing condition was significantly higher than the fill-in and gloss conditions in both studies. They concluded that the hypothesis was fully supported in Israel and partially supported in the Netherlands. This study was designed to test the effectiveness of the involvement load hypothesis in an EEL setting.

III. Method

A. Research Design

Since random assignment was not possible, the nonequivalent group, pretest-posttest design was employed in this study. That is, subjects were tested in existing groups. The following diagram summarizes this quasi-experimental design in which the dotted line represents non-equivalent groups. Both groups are measured before and after treatment. Only one group receives the treatment. In this diagram GA and GB stand for experimental and control groups respectively. O1 and O3 stand for the tests before applying the treatment. O2 and O4 stand for the tests after the treatment and X stands for treatment.

GA	O1	X	O2
GB	O3		O4

B. Subjects

Sixty Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners participated in this study. All subjects were female non-English major students at girls' professional-technical institute in Neishaboor. Two intact classes of third-semester students were selected for the experiment. There were 30 students in each class, majoring in computer field and food science. Originally, the two classes consisted of 69 students but 9 were excluded because of their prior knowledge and outside exposure to the targeted words as well as their failure to attend all sessions. A coin was tossed to choose the experimental and control groups. The computer class was considered as experimental group and the food science class as control group. A pre-test was administered to capture the initial differences between the two groups before starting the treatment. The age range of students was between 19 to 21 years old.

C. Instrument

The input passages were selected from pre-intermediate level “Select Readings” by Lee and Gunderson (2001). The subjects were asked to choose unknown words from a list of 100 words from the reading material. A total of 45 target words that were unfamiliar to both groups were chosen for the study. The target words consisted of 18 verbs, 14 adjectives, and 8 nouns.

A 40-item multiple-choice vocabulary pre-test was developed by the researchers. The items were designed based on the reading texts and the supplementary quizzes of the above mention book. The pre-test was administered to capture the initial differences between the two groups before commencing the main study. Since the time interval between the pre-test and post-test was long enough (about 7 weeks), the same pre-test with some changes in its arrangement was administered to the subjects as the post-test. For the pilot test, a class similar to those of this study responded to the items and helped the researcher establish the reliability of the test which was estimated 0.70 through KR-21 formula.

$$k_R = \frac{N}{N-1}\left(1-\frac{M(N-M)}{NV}\right) = \frac{40}{39}\left(1-\frac{9.033(40-9.033)}{40*22.440}\right) = 0.70601$$

D. Procedure

After administering the pre-test to capture the initial differences between the two groups, the experiment was carried out in seven sessions. Each group attended the class for a period of one and a half hours each week. One week after the last session, the participants completed the 40-item post-test. The degree of task involvement load in each group is described below.

In line with the Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001) research, this study randomly assigned the two intact classes of learners to two different conditions which varied in terms of task-induced involvement load. In the first condition [-N, -S, -E], the subjects in the control group read a text with marginal glosses in the target language irrelevant to the questions. Then, they answered the true or false and multiple-choice comprehension questions. In the second condition [+N, +S, ++E], the subjects in the experimental group read the same text with marginal glosses in the target language relevant to

the questions and answered the fill in the blanks items by choosing the words from a given list and wrote a sentence using the targeted words.

The need component, which is operationally defined as “the drive to comply with task requirements" (Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001, p. 14), is moderate (+N) in the experimental group and zero (-N) in the control group in this study. The search component is operationally defined as "the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown word when the meaning is not provided" (Martinez-Fernandez, 2008, p. 211) in this study. Based on this definition, it is moderate (+S) in the experimental group and zero (-S) in the control group. The evaluation component involves “a comparison of a given word with other words, a comparison of a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or combining the word with others in order to assess whether a word (i.e. a form-meaning pair) does or does not fit its context” (Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001, p. 14). According to this definition, the evaluation component in this study is zero (-E) for the control group but strong (++E) for the experimental group because the words are combined with additional words in an original context.

After introducing the topic and giving the students clear instructions on what they will have to do for their task, the teacher read the passage aloud once for both groups. In the control group class, the learners were asked to read and work on the passage in groups and were given enough time to do the true or false and multiple-choice comprehension questions. The involvement load was zero because all the questions could be answered without referring to the marginal glosses. That is, the task induced no need (the subjects did not need the target words to answer questions). It induced no search (the target words had already been glossed for them). And it induced no evaluation (the subjects did not have any chance to make comparisons).

As to the experimental group, the learners were asked to read and work on the passage in groups and were given enough time to do the fill in the blanks and sentence writing exercises which could only be correctly answered with the understanding of the unknown words. The involvement load was high because the questions could only be answered with referring to the marginal glosses. That is, the need component was moderate because it was imposed by the task. The search component was moderate because the target words had only been glossed in the target language for students. And the evaluation component was strong because learners had to use additional words in combination with the new word in a sentence.

IV. Statistical Analysis and Results

Before analyzing the data, a few preliminary steps were taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the results. To answer the research question, the raw scores taken from the pre-test and post-tests were submitted to the computer software Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS version 15), using t-test. Paired-samples t-test was used to see whether there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for Time 1 (prior to the intervention) and Time 2 (after the intervention) of the same group. Independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the possible differences between the means of the experimental and control groups based on the gain scores from the pretest and posttest. The following tables indicate the summary of t-tests.

TABLE 1.
THE T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS (PRE-TEST)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Control	30	5.30	2.61	58	2.47	0.016*
Experimental	30	3.81	1.98			

*Sig. p < .05

Table 1 shows a significant difference between the means of the two groups.

TABLE 2.
THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE CONTROL GROUP (PRE-TEST & POST-TEST)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Pre-test	30	5.30	2.61	29	8.17	0.000*
Post-test	30	8.80	3.63			

*Sig. p < .05

Table 2 shows that there is a significant difference between the means of the control group before and after the treatment.

TABLE 3.
THE T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS (POST-TEST)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Control	30	8.80	3.63	58	0.46	0.64*
Experimental	30	9.21	3.31			

*Sig. p < .05

Table 3 shows that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups in the post-test.

TABLE 4.
THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (PRE-TEST & POST-TEST)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Pre-test	30	3.81	1.98	29	9.27	0.000*
Post-test	30	9.21	3.31			

*Sig. p < .05

Table 4 shows that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group in pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 5.
THE T-TEST FOR THE COMPARISON OF THE MEAN INCREMENT BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS AFTER TREATMENT (POST-TEST)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Control	30	3.50	2.34	2.58	2.63	0.011*
Experimental	30	5.40	3.18			

*Sig. p < .05

As indicated in Table 5, there is a significant difference between the gain scores for the experimental group ($M = 5.40$, $SD = 3.18$) and the gain scores for the control group ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 2.34$; t (2.58) = 12.00, $p < .05$). This final result shows that the mean increment of the experimental group after treatment is more than the control group. That is, the participants who received the task with higher involvement load learned significantly more vocabulary than others. Since there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups, the null hypothesis (tasks with higher involvement load do not lead to better EFL vocabulary learning) is rejected. Accordingly, the results of this study show that vocabulary learning in the fill in the blanks and sentence writing condition is significantly higher than the true or false and multiple-choice comprehension questions condition. Therefore, the involvement load hypothesis is supported.

Since the focus of this research like the first study by Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) and the similar study by Kim (2011) was on word meaning, its findings regarding the effects of task-induced involvement cannot be generalized to other aspects of vocabulary learning(e.g. word-form learning). The results of this study generally confirm Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001) findings. However, the current study was not as strict as the above mentioned two studies due to the limitations concerning subject selection and test characteristics. Since the involvement construct can be operationally defined and investigated in different ways, devising tasks with different involvement loads will shed more light on its application.

V. CONCLUSION

The final result of the independent samples t-test for the comparison of the mean increment between the two groups after treatment from the posttest administration indicated that the experimental group who received the task with higher involvement load had a better performance than the control group who didn't. Thus, the findings suggest that vocabulary learning in the fill in the blanks and sentence writing condition is significantly higher than the true or false and multiple-choice comprehension questions condition. This result is in line with Hustijn and Laufer's (2001) research done among adult EFL learners in Israel and the Netherlands. Since the task with higher involvement load seems to have facilitated the process of vocabulary learning, its application can be suggested to reinforce the word retention in EFL/ESL contexts.

While this study was being conducted, higher involvement load tasks turned to be time-consuming. Therefore, if there is not enough time for doing such tasks, they won't probably produce desirable retention effects. Due to the fact that the same amount of time was allocated to two groups with different tasks, the application of the Involvement Load Hypothesis was not as rigorous as the original study by Hustijn and Laufer's (2001). Therefore, the results should be interpreted cautiously. In fact, the application of such tasks in the classroom is worth further research.

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A Study on the Impact of Using Multimedia to Improve the Quality of English Language Teaching

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***Abstract*—One of the most important uses of technology is that it makes it easy for instructors to incorporate multimedia into their teaching. There are different multimedia tools. Three of the most popular ones are visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic in which students take in information. Some students are visual learners, while others are auditory or kinaesthetic learners. While students use all of their senses to take in information, they seem to have preferences in how they learn best. In order to help students learn, teachers need to teach as many of these preferences as possible. Therefore, teachers can incorporate these multimedia tools in their curriculum activities so that students are able to succeed in their classes. This study is an analysis of multimedia tools for Iranian EFL students. Over 100 students complete a questionnaire to determine if their multimedia tools are auditory, visual, or kinaesthetic. The purpose of this study is to increase faculty awareness and understanding of the impact of multimedia tools on the teaching process. A review of the literature along with analysis of the data will determine how multimedia tools affect the teaching process.**

***Index Terms*—multimedia, auditory, visual, kinaesthetic, effective teaching**

I. Introduction

Multimedia provides a complex multi-sensory experience in exploring our world through the presentation of information through text, graphics, images, audio and video, and there is evidence to suggest that a mixture of words and pictures increases the likelihood that people can integrate a large amount of information (Mayer, 2001). Advantages of multimedia design compared to using a single medium might result from the ability to choose among media to present well-structured information (Larkin & Simon, 1987), using more than one representation to improve memory (Penney, 1989), encouraging active processing (Ainsworth, 1999), and presenting more information at once (Sweller, 1999). Students learn best by seeing the value and importance of the information presented in the classroom. If the students are not interested in the material presented, they will not learn it. In order to achieve the ultimate goal of student learning it is important to use a combination of teaching methods and to make the classroom environment as stimulating and interactive as possible. Students learn in many different ways. Some students are visual learners, while others are auditory or kinaesthetic learners. Visual learners learn visually by means of charts, graphs, and pictures. Auditory learners learn by listening to lectures and reading. Kinaesthetic learners learn by doing. Students can prefer one, two, or three learning styles.

Because of these different learning styles, it is important for teachers to incorporate in their curriculum activities related to each of these learning styles so that all students are able to succeed in their classes. While we use all of our senses to take in information, we each seem to have preferences in how we learn best. In order to help all students learn, we need to teach to as many of these preferences as possible (Cuaresma, 2008). When we think about a typical university course, it is rare to find all three of these approaches to learning incorporated into a class. While it may seem impossible to do this, it can be done through thoughtful planning and preparation. It does force us to conceptualize the class differently—with a focus on the variety of ways in which students learn. The various inventories on learning styles allow teachers to gain insight into which areas they can use further development in and which are already well developed. It is dangerous to apply only one learning theory to teaching. If teachers do this, they are not allowing students to develop their skills in other learning styles that are applicable to real-life situations. In this paper, the researchers discuss the definition of multimedia, multimedia and learning, analysis towards visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic learning styles, the usefulness of multimedia-based education, teachers and their roles in multimedia environment, and situation of multimedia tools in Iran.

II. The Definition of Multimedia

Multimedia may be defined in multiple ways, depending upon one's perspective. Typical definitions include the following:

1) Multimedia is the "use of multiple forms of media in a presentation" (Schwartz & Beichner, 1999, p. 8).

2) Multimedia is "information in the form of graphics, audio, video, or movies. A multimedia document contains a media element other than plain text" (Greenlaw & Hepp, 1999, p. 44).

3) Multimedia comprises a computer program that includes "text along with at least one of the following: audio or sophisticated sound, music, video, photographs, 3-D graphics, animation, or high-resolution graphics" (Maddux, Johnson, & Willis, 2001, p. 253).

III. Multimedia and Learning

Multimedia has been successfully applied to many courses in order to provide a wide variety of learning styles or modalities. Learning styles are defined as characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Learners are more comfortable learning in an environment which reflects their predominant learning style (Sankey, 2006). Learners have a preferred learning modality, namely, visual, aural, read/write or kinaesthetic, while many learners are multimodal (use a combination of these modalities). Multimedia can be used to develop a more inclusive curriculum that appeals to visual, aural and kinaesthetic learners and overcome differences in student performance that may result from different learning styles. Presenting material in a variety of modes has been used to encourage students to develop a more versatile approach to learning (Morrison, Sweeney, & Heffernan, 2003).

Moving from the book to the computer is the opportunity for greater interactivity and novel ways to think about a learning activity. Technology provides more ways to represent concepts through different media formats. Such advances in technology ask for pedagogical enquiries to confirm the usefulness of such new activities in facilitating learning. Learners who have access to multiple representations enhance their comprehension, learning, memory, communication and inference (Rogers & Scaife, 1996). Kozma (1991) argues that learners will benefit more if the instructional methods provide, perform or model cognitive operations that are important to the task and the situation. Learners will also benefit more if they can perform or provide for themselves the operations provided by these representational media (Kozma, 1991). Providing the learner with a sound structure and content is more important than providing them with interactivity and animation afforded by new media. Comprehension and learning require a sound content and structure of instructional material, and not new media or types of representation. The combination of text and image is effective when the information provided is complementary and adapted to each presentation. Making connections from multiple representations depend not only on the presentation mode and the construction of the interrelations between the multimodal items but also on the characteristics of the task (Dubois & Vial, 2000).

IV. Analysis towards Multimedia Tools: Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic

According to Dunn and Dunn (1978), only 20-30% of school age children appear to be auditory learners, 40% are visual learners, and 30-40% are tactile/kinaesthetic or visual/tactile learners. Barbe and Milone (1981) stated that for grade school children the most frequent modality strengths are visual (30%) or mixed (30%), followed by auditory (25%), and then by kinaesthetic (15%). Barbe and Milone (1981) stated that primary grade children learn better via auditory (verbal) means and are least well developed kinaesthetically, however between kindergarten and sixth grade a modality shift occurs and vision becomes the dominant modality and kinaesthesia overtakes audition (Barbe & Milone, 1981). Barbe and Milone (1981) also wrote that adults are more likely to have mixed modality strengths than children. In addition, it has been found that modality strengths differ with regard to achievement level. Price, Dunn, and Sanders (1980) found that very young children are the most tactile/kinesthetic, that there is a gradual development of visual strengths through the elementary grades, and that only in fifth or sixth grade can most youngsters learn and retain information through the auditory sense. Carbo (1983), investigating the perceptual styles of readers, found that good readers prefer to learn through their visual and auditory senses, while poor readers have a stronger preference for tactile and kinesthetic learning.

Previous studies into the learning styles of EFL students have generally reported that they favor Kinesthetic and Tactile styles, and disfavor Group styles. Reid (1987) reports that Chinese university students (N = 90) studying in the USA favored Kinesthetic and Tactile styles, and disfavored Group styles. Melton (1990) found that Chinese (PRC) university students (N = 331) favored Kinesthetic, Tactile and Individual styles, and disfavored Group styles. Jones (1997) states that his Chinese (Taiwan) university students (N = 81) favored Kinesthetic and Tactile styles, and disfavored Individual styles. The Singapore university students in Chu, Kitchen and Chew's 1997 study (N = 318) favored Kinesthetic and Tactile styles, and did not disfavor any styles. Two empirical studies that investigated non-Chinese EFL students based on Reid's typology are Rossi-Le (1995) and Hyland (1993). Rossi-Le surveyed adult L2 immigrants in the US. They favored Kinesthetic and Tactile styles and did not disfavor any styles. Hyland's Japanese learners favored Auditory and Tactile styles, and disfavored Visual and Group styles (1993). Hyland also reports that senior students favored kinesthetic styles.

In a classroom environment students with limited English proficiency rely heavily on visual clues for the comprehension and acquisition of learning content (Olmeda, 2003). In a study on perceptual learning styles and achievement in a university level foreign language course, Renou (2004) found out that there is no significant difference between the predominant learning style groups and course graders. In other words, whether one is a visual, auditory, or

kinesthetic learner, this has no significant bearing on achievement in school as measured by grades. In their research, Kia, Alipour, and Ghaderi (2001) found that among students in Payame Noor University in Iran, those with visual learning style have the greatest academic achievement. Peacock (2001) has examined the learning style preferences of EFL and ESL students. The results of these studies show that students prefer kinesthetic learning styles above others, whereas the teaching methods mostly suit auditory learners.

V. The Usefulness of Multimedia Instruction

Multimedia-based education when used only in certain situations would maximize the returns. Using it in every circumstance would not give the desired results and also require huge amounts in infrastructure costs. We will discuss three main situations when using multimedia instruction would be appropriate.

A. When the Students Have Low Prior Domain Knowledge or Spatial Learning Aptitude.

When multimedia is used with students who have low prior domain knowledge or spatial aptitude, it helps the students in developing mental models and connect to the new knowledge domain. They are better able to visualize the activities in the knowledge domain and learn from them. On the other hand a student with high prior domain knowledge or high spatial aptitude would be able to create mental models of the knowledge domain without any external help and not gain anything from the use of multimedia (Mayer & Moreno, 2003).

B. When Students Have Low Motivation.

When dealing with students with low learning motivation, it is very important to keep them interested in learning. Interesting lessons would keep the students interested and enable them to do their own self-directed learning and research. Use of pictures, animations and sounds can help in keeping the students interested in learning about a new domain. The interactivity generated by the use of multimedia instruction would also help in motivating the students towards learning. On the other hand highly motivated students might not need these audio-visual aids and be able to understand the instructions given in text format itself (Tan & Leong, 2003).

C. When Effectively Designed Multimedia Content is Available.

This is indeed the most difficult aspect to deal with in the use of multimedia-based instruction. Unless we have properly designed multimedia content, there is no point in using it. Mayer and Mareno (2002) suggest few key design principles in the creation multimedia instruction. They are as follows:

1) Multimedia Representation Principle: It is better to present an explanation in words and text rather than text alone.

2) Contiguity Principle: Present the words and text contiguously rather than separately.

3) Split Attention Principle: When giving explanation, present words as auditory narration rather than as visual on screen text.

4) Coherence Principle: Wherever possible, it is better to use fewer words and pictures than using too many of them.

VI. Teachers and Their Roles in Multimedia Environment

There is an increasing awareness amongst educationalists, researchers and administrators that the introduction of the multimedia into educational institutions calls for a change in learning and teaching patterns. For example, 73% of the experts polled for the *Delphi Study* (Vollstädt – forthcoming publication) conducted for the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research over a period of two years and culminating in a symposium in February 2002, believe that the multimedia will lead to a major change in the culture of learning and teaching. They believe that teachers have some important roles in multimedia. They are as follows:

A. Facilitator and Guide

As facilitators, teachers must know more than they would as directive givers of information. Facilitators must be aware of a variety of materials available for improving students' language skill, not just one or two texts. The language textbook is no longer the sole source of information. Multimedia programs offer sound and vision, showing how native speakers interact; electronic dictionaries and encyclopedias are available for instant reference; online newspapers provide up-to-date information on current affairs in the countries of the target language; (official) websites offer background information on policy, tourism, political views. Teachers need to know how to teach learners to use all this material effectively. As facilitators, teachers have to be flexible, responding to the needs that students have, not just what has been set up ahead of time based on a curriculum developer's idea of who will be in the classroom (Vollstädt, 2002).

B. Integrator

Teachers must not only know and understand the functions of different media available in a media-rich environment, they should also know when best to deploy them. In the construction of projects with their learners, they need to guide learners in the use of word-processing, graphics and presentation programs. Integration of audio-visual elements will

bring home to learners the fact that the foreign language environment of the target language is as vibrant and multi-faceted as the society in which they live (Vollstädt, 2002).

C. Researcher

Teachers need to know how and where they can access information for their own and for their learners' use. Knowledge and competent use of search engines and reliable information sources are essential. For those concerned with mainstream education, the propriety and reliability of information sources must figure as one of the main criteria for the selection of background material. Familiarity with the use of electronic tools for language analysis will enable teachers to develop their own linguistic and professional competence and increase their confidence in the use of the language (Vollstädt, 2002).

D. Designer

In order to organize successful learning situation, teachers need to learn how to put together tasks and materials to guide their learners to successful execution and conclusion of their projects. The design of learning situation is much more complex, requiring higher order skills involving researching and evaluating source materials, setting overall aims and objectives and breaking down tasks into meaningful and manageable sequences. Encouragement, help and advice is needed in terms of examples of good practice which may be emulated or serve as sources of inspiration for similar undertakings. If this new role of language teachers is accepted and encouraged by educational authorities, the implications in terms of duties and responsibilities need to be considered (Vollstädt, 2002).

E. Collaborator

Collaboration with colleagues will lighten the burden and make the efforts more fruitful and rewarding. Obviously, co-operation within a specific teaching institution will prove more efficient, producing tailor-made responses to the local situation, but the new media provide possibilities for exchange between institutions and beyond (national) borders. Teachers of the less widely taught and used languages could well profit from such internet exchanges, helping them to overcome the sense of isolation many experience in their teaching situation (Vollstädt, 2002).

VII. Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic Learning Styles among Iranian Learners

In order to understand the learning preferences of Iranian EFL learners, VAK learning style model was used (Chislett & Chapman, 2005). The VAK learning styles model suggests that most people can be divided into one of three preferred styles of learning. These three styles are as follows, (and there is no right or wrong learning style): Someone with a visual learning style has a preference for seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films, flip-chart, etc. Someone with an auditory learning style has a preference for the transfer of information through listening: to the spoken word, of self or others, of sounds and noises. Someone with a kinaesthetic learning style has a preference for physical experience - touching, feeling, holding, doing, practical hands-on experiences. People commonly have a main preferred learning style, but this will be part of a blend of all three. Some people have a very strong preference; other people have a more even mixture of two or less commonly, three styles. There is no right or wrong learning style. The point is that there are types of learning that are right for our own preferred learning style.

The participants of this study were 100 students of English majoring in translation. They were 35 male and 65 female students between 21 and 25 years of age. They were studying in English Translation at the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran. Thirty questions with three alternatives were distributed to students. Through the processes of test administration, it was indicated that about 55% of the students preferred visual learning style, 35% of the students preferred auditory learning style, and only 10% of the students preferred kinaesthetic style for their learning. Based on the above finding, it can be concluded that the prevalent learning style among EFL students in Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran was visual one and students with this type of learning style had the greatest academic achievement in their educational major. It is the responsibility of the instructor and the student to be aware of learning style preferences to improve their teaching and learning. As instructors, we need to assess and understand how to reach all students by understanding how to present information in multiple modes. We can help students more effectively both in and out of the classroom, if we are aware of their learning style and can assist them in determining their preferences. As a student, it is vital to be self-aware of preferences to adjust study techniques to best fit each individual, even when the information and instruction provided does not match the preferred style.

VIII. Conclusion

Multimedia instruction creates the opportunity for learners to improve their learning effectively. Only under the background of effective education we can use advanced educational theory and fulfill the target of English teaching by utilizing modern education technology reasonably. We must understand teachers' use of multimedia tools and relate this to the university context. It is very important to understand and explore each individual's learning style. Analyzing one's own particular learning style can be very helpful and beneficial to the student by aiding them in becoming more focused on an attentive learner, which ultimately will increase educational success. Discovering this learning style will

allow the student to determine his or her own personal strengths and weaknesses and learn from them. Teachers can incorporate learning styles into their classroom by identifying the learning styles of each of their students, matching teaching style to learning style for difficult tasks, strengthening weaker learning styles through easier tasks and drill, and teaching students, learning-style selection strategies It is important for students to have multiple learning opportunities and "learning style-shift" and teachers should achieve a match between teaching strategies and the students' unique learning styles. Accommodating teaching to learning styles improves students' overall learning results, increases both motivation and efficiency and enables a positive attitude towards the language being learned. Teachers should have the time to develop and reinforce their expertise as well as the opportunity within the university context to spread their information, ideas, findings, and experience. Teachers should know the needs of their students as well as their necessary requirements - this is vital if multimedia are to be used in universities effectively. Multimedia that's effective in learning and teaching doesn't simply consist of using multiple media together, but combining media mindfully in ways that capitalize on the characteristics of each individual medium and extend the learning and teaching experiences. Teachers should first determine what outcomes they are trying to achieve and then select elements well suited for these outcomes. Then they need to make sure that the multimedia elements are designed well and work well together. Determining when to use multimedia and designing good multimedia require real consideration and benefits from a team of people with instructional design, graphic arts, information architecture, and usability skills. Although multimedia offers teachers enormous opportunities for making learning and teaching environments meaningful and effective, multimedia by itself does not assure a good learning and teaching environment. Multimedia cannot provide *the* answer to the problems of resourcing, motivation, and standards in education. Technology is not a proxy for time and money - it needs to work effectively. The purpose of using multimedia tools in universities is to find the best ways for both students to learn effectively and teachers to teach efficiently. Depending on the type of course and class size, some of the following teaching strategies can be used by teachers in a class in order to encourage the learning processes:

1) Provide challenging and novel problems to students
2) Use examples that require analysis and synthesis
3) Require application of information and concepts
4) Encourage questions and discussion
5) Assign collaborative group projects
6) Combine visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic techniques
7) Assign open-ended activities encouraging creativity
8) Encourage use of technology and alternative multimedia

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APPENDIX VAK LEARNING STYLES SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (CHISLETT & CHAPMAN, 2005)

Circle or tick the answer that most represents how you generally behave.

1. When I operate new equipment I generally:
a) read the instructions first b) listen to an explanation from someone who has used it before
c) go ahead and have a go, I can figure it out as I use it

2. When I need directions for travelling I usually:
a) look at a map b) ask for spoken directions c) follow my nose and maybe use a compass

3. When I cook a new dish, I like to:
a) follow a written recipe b) call a friend for an explanation
c) follow my instincts, testing as I cook

4. If I am teaching someone something new, I tend to:
a) write instructions down for them b) give them a verbal explanation
c) demonstrate first and then let them have a go

5. I tend to say:
a) watch how I do it b) listen to me explain c) you have a go

6. During my free time I most enjoy:
a) going to museums and galleries b) listening to music and talking to my friends
c) playing sport or doing DIY

7. When I go shopping for clothes, I tend to:
a) imagine what they would look like on b) discuss them with the shop staff
c) try them on and test them out

8. When I am choosing a holiday I usually:
a) read lots of brochures b) listen to recommendations from friends
c) imagine what it would be like to be there

9. If I was buying a new car, I would:

a) read reviews in newspapers and magazines b) discuss what I need with my friends
c) test-drive lots of different types

10. When I am learning a new skill, I am most comfortable:
a) watching what the teacher is doing
b) talking through with the teacher exactly what I'm supposed to do
c) giving it a try myself and work it out as I go

11. If I am choosing food off a menu, I tend to:
a) imagine what the food will look like
b) talk through the options in my head or with my partner
c) imagine what the food will taste like

12. When I listen to a band, I can't help:
a) watching the band members and other people in the audience
b) listening to the lyrics and the beats
c) moving in time with the music

13. When I concentrate, I most often:
a) focus on the words or the pictures in front of me
b) discuss the problem and the possible solutions in my head
c) move around a lot, fiddle with pens and pencils and touch things

14. I choose household furnishings because I like:
a) their colours and how they look b) the descriptions the sales-people give me
c) their textures and what it feels like to touch them

15. My first memory is of:
a) looking at something b) being spoken to c) doing something

16. When I am anxious, I:
a) visualise the worst-case scenarios b) talk over in my head what worries me most
c) can't sit still, fiddle and move around constantly

17. I feel especially connected to other people because of:
a) how they look b) what they say to me c) how they make me feel

18. When I have to revise for an exam, I generally:
a) write lots of revision notes and diagrams
b) talk over my notes, alone or with other people
c) imagine making the movement or creating the formula

19. If I am explaining to someone I tend to:
a) show them what I mean
b) explain to them in different ways until they understand
c) encourage them to try and talk them through my idea as they do it

20. I really love:
a) watching films, photography, looking at art or people watching
b) listening to music, the radio or talking to friends
c) taking part in sporting activities, eating fine foods and wines or dancing

21. Most of my free time is spent:
a) watching television b) talking to friends c) doing physical activity or making things

22. When I first contact a new person, I usually:
a) arrange a face to face meeting b) talk to them on the telephone
c) try to get together whilst doing something else, such as an activity or a meal

23. I first notice how people:
a) look and dress b) sound and speak c) stand and move

24. If I am angry, I tend to:
a) keep replaying in my mind what it is that has upset me
b) raise my voice and tell people how I feel
c) stamp about, slam doors and physically demonstrate my anger

25. I find it easiest to remember:
a) faces b) names c) things I have done

26. I think that you can tell if someone is lying if:
a) they avoid looking at you b) their voices changes c) they give me funny vibes

27. When I meet an old friend:
a) I say "it's great to see you!" b) I say "it's great to hear from you!"
c) I give them a hug or a handshake

28. I remember things best by:
a) writing notes or keeping printed details

b) saying them aloud or repeating words and key points in my head
c) doing and practising the activity or imagining it being done

29. If I have to complain about faulty goods, I am most comfortable:

a) writing a letter b) complaining over the phone
c) taking the item back to the store or posting it to head office

30. I tend to say:

a) I see what you mean b) I hear what you are saying c) I know how you feel

Good Luck

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A Study of Self-repair Markers in Conversation by Chinese English Learners*

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***Abstract*—The present study examines the differences in the use of three self-repair markers *well, I mean* and *maybe* between native speakers and Chinese English learners. The corpora of BNC (British National Corpus) and SECCL (Spoken English Corpus of Chinese Learners) are employed in the study. The research results indicate, that the Chinese English learners underuse *well* and I *mean*, but overuse *maybe*, compared with native speakers. The detailed analysis, supported by statistical tests, proves the role of "Pragmatic Fossilization" as an element to consider in second language learning and teaching.**

***Index Terms*—self-repair marker, pragmatic fossilization, corpora**

I. Introduction

One of the central findings of earlier work on repair concerned the preference for self-correction. Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977, p.361-382) noted a strong "empirical skewing" which resulted in the vastly more common occurrence of self over other-repair. Of the self-repair category, same-turn self-repair (STSR) is most common and has gained a considerable amount of attention in recent years (Fox et al., 1995; Wouk, 2005; Laakso and Sorjonen, 2010). However, research on the means for initiating this type of repair is still scarce. Often the initiators have merely been mentioned in the study and most of the mentions deal with prosodic cut-offs, whereas other means have remained unexplored (Laakso and Sorjonen, 2010). Other non-lexical initiators mentioned in prior studies are pauses, sound stretches and vocalizations such as *um\uh\er*, etc. (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 367; Levelt, 1983). A few English lexical initiators have also been mentioned in prior studies (Schegloff et al., 1977; Levelt, 1983; Laakso and Sorjonen, 2010). These include words such as *or*, *well* and *sorry* or discourse markers such as *you know* and *I mean*. In some prior studies they are commonly referred to as self-repair markers (Chen, 2005; Wang, 2007). Self-repair markers (hereafter SRMs) belong to the general category of discourse markers. The speaker utilizes them to signal to the addressee that there is trouble and he/she is going to repair it. SRMs are short in form and may convey little semantic meanings. But they may serve as discourse lubricants and ensure interactions to go smoothly. They are important interactional devices (Biber et al., 1999).

The purpose of this study is two fold. First, through a close investigation of SRMs, it aims to find how differently SRMs are used by Chinese English learners (hereafter L2 learners), compared with NSs. Second, based on the research results, it aims to examine whether or not pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English is evident in the use of SRMs by L2 learners and whether pragmatic fossilization is the fundamental cause of the differences between L2 learners and NSs in the use of SRMs. This will also foster a better understanding of appropriate ways for L2 learners to use SRMs and also help teachers develop their learners' pragmatic awareness and sensitivity of employing discourse markers, including SRMs.

II. Research Background

Among previous research on SRMs, Bois' (cited in Svartvik, 1980) discussion is insightful in that it classified SRMs into four types and used the term "editing" to mean editing terms or discourse markers: reference editing such as *that is*, nuance editing such as *rather*, mistake editing such as *I mean*, and claiming editing such as *well*. This classification describes the form-function relationship of SRMs, but there is no doubt that it may not cover the overall forms of SRMs.

According to Schiffrin (1987), virtually every discourse marker (hereafter DM) has a basic function, but in interaction it may serve a wide range of functions. A typical example is that of *well*, which has received considerable attention in recent years specifically in the area of pragmatic functions. Previous research (Svartvik, 1980; Schiffrin, 1987; Ran, 2003) substantiated that *well* was endowed with a function of self-repairing and it is used when the speaker

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feels hesitant in conversation or tries to self-repair while making statements. The previous research on *I mean* found that it had a basic function of serving as SRMs (Schiffrin, 1987; Brinton, 1996; Tree & Schrock, 2002). *I mean* can contribute to repair in at least three ways. Firstly, it explicitly forewarns upcoming adjustments to what has just been said including speaker's modification, expansion or clarification of the prior utterance. Secondly, it can also be used to substitute a pause or to avoid a break in fluency caused by the pause. Thirdly, it serves to acquire more time as the speaker completes the conversation, including planning what to say, selecting words or restarting a false-started utterance (Tree & Schrock, 2002). According to Schiffrin (1987), *I mean* encourages listeners to focus more on speakers' thoughts, and this view is in accordance with the proposal that *I mean* is more speaker-oriented. The previous research also found that Chinese English learners tended to overuse *maybe* as SRMs (Chen, et al., 2005; Wang, 2007). Validity testing should be administered to provide empirical evidence to support this claim.

Previous researchers used CIA (Comparative Interlanguage Analysis) to explore the different utilization patterns of DMs between native and non-native speakers (Weinert, 1998; Trillo, 2002; Fuller, 2003a; Li, 2004; Hellermann & Vergun, 2007; Li& Chen, 2007; Wang & Wang, 2007; Cuenca, 2008; Liao, 2009). The research showed, in general, non-native speakers (hereafter L2 learners) tended to underuse *well* and *I mean* as SRMs. The previous studies did find some general patterns of SRMs, yet there is still a lack of detailed investigation on the patterns of SRMs. And comparative studies of the patterns of SRMs between NSs and L2 learners are even fewer. So it is difficult to generalize whether judgments such as "underuse" or "overuse" are ubiquitous and universal among L2 learners. And if the findings are evidently proved, what then would be the underlying causes of them?

Based on the previous research, the current study will compare the different use of three SRMs—*well*, *I mean* and *maybe* in conversation between NSs and L2 learners. The following research questions will be addressed:

(1) In general, what is the difference in patterns of SRM use when comparing L2 learners and NSs?

(2) What is the difference in patterns of the sub-categories of SRM use when comparing L2 learners and NSs?

III. Research Methodology

A. Data Collection

The L2 learner data is obtained from the Spoken English Corpus of Chinese Learners (SECCL) (Wen, etc., 2005). SECCL, a learner spoken English corpus in China, has been developed by a team headed by Professor Qiufang Wen from The Foreign Language Education Research Center in China. The corpus sample size is designed to encompass more than 1 million tokens and expected to provide researchers with valuable and authentic data on Chinese College learners' spoken English. The samples are randomly selected from the TEM (Test for English Majors, which is a nationwide oral test for English majors) and the period of time for the selected tests ranges from 1996 to 2006. By doing so, the corpus developers wish to ensure the representativeness of the samples in the corpus. In SECCL, there are three kinds of oral activities: story retelling, monologue and role-play. In the present study, we only utilized the transcribed data of role-play since our intention is to observe the utilization patterns of SRMs in conversation. We select the data composed of about 93,000 tokens from SECCL. The data of NSs are from BNC (British National Corpus), and the texts from the TV interviews are randomly chosen with the total token of 93, 131. In this case, the observed corpus and the reference corpus have almost the same number of tokens. The fact that the sizes of two corpora are the same enhances the validity of measurement in the study. As for the topics, the two corpora share some similar topics, such as family life, sports and mass media.

B. Data Coding

TABLE 1
THE CATEGORIZATION AND EXEMPLIFICATION OF SRMS

Categories		**Examples**
Repetition marker	Syllabic R	well *th well there* is two of them involved at the time, but they…… (BNC-fl6-Eating disorders.txt)
	One-word R	you know temptation you just *I well I* I've found that that's where my faith comes in…… (BNC-hmp-Jonathan Cowap Morning Show.txt)
	Two-word R	*There's a, well there's a* thin line between it, being a very positive experience, and……(BNC-fl6-Eating disorders.txt)
	Multi-word R	They cannot pay all the tuitions *for their children, maybe for their children*, they, they will still, still (SECCL-04-128-13A.txt)
Information RM	Information supply/replacement	Social experience is a good thing. But you know, *I mean* the study is, is, er, I think is more important for us now. (SECCL-04-199-08A.txt)
Error RM	Lexical R	*I can't well I don't know I I don't think* you did. (BNC-d8y-Museum society meeting. Txt)
	Morphological R	*He didn't er... he, I mean, he wasn't* responsible for their children. (SECCL-04-128-16B.txt)
	Syntactic R	*What did you I, well I just didn't realize* it was anything like that. (BNC-flf-Mental health.txt)
Appropriate RM	replacement	*You can't... er, concentrate, I mean you can't focus on* the black side. (SECCL-05-005-30B.txt)
	insertion	But if you find a proper job, *I mean, a proper part- time job*,…… (SECCL-05-005-30B.txt)

Considering the categories of self-repair, we follow both Levelt's model (1983) and van Hest's model (1996a, 1996b), of which the former was developed for NSs and the latter for L2 learners. We modify them for the fulfillment of the purpose of the present study (see table 1). We divided self-repair into four general types: self-repetition, error repair, information repair and appropriate repair. Self-repetition is sub-divided into 4 sub-categories: syllabic repetition, one-word repetition, two-word repetition and multi-word repetition. Under this category, a wrong syllable, an erroneous word or an inappropriate syntactic structure is selected. Information repair is related with the speaker's problem in conveying information (Under Levelt's system of classification, it was called different repair since the current message was replaced by a different one). We sub-divided it into information supply and information replacement. Error repair concerns repair on lexical, morphological and syntactic levels. The last category is appropriate repair, which concerns the manner of repair. This type of repair aims to make utterances more appropriate under the condition that the previous information is not changed. It is further divided into insertion and replacement in this study. Following the above categorization, We separate SRMs into four categories accordingly: self-repetition marker (It was sub-divided into repair markers for syllabic repetition, one-word repetition, two-word repetition and multi-word repetition), error repair markers (repair markers which concerns with error repair on lexical, morphological and syntactic levels) , information repair markers (repair markers which signal information supply or replacement) and appropriate repair markers (repair markers which signal insertion or replacement).

The analytical procedure was as follows: first, we used WordsSmith Tools 5.0 to calculate the frequencies of three SRMs used by both NSs and L2 learners in two corpora. Second, we examined the concordance lines closely to exclude the other uses of the three DMs, such as the use of *well* in "very *well*", and *maybe* used as an adverbial, and the use of *I mean* in "Do you know what *I mean*"and"You know what *I mean*", etc.. After doing this, we employed a foreign teacher (He holds a doctorate in English literature from a certain Canadian university, and has taught English in China for two years.) to reexamine the materials to confirm whether a discourse marker was used as an SRM or not. By doing so, we hoped to position ourselves as to most effectively understand and interpret our findings. As previous research on the use of m*aybe* as SRMs was minimal, the current study was tentative in its course. By observing the concordance lines from SECCL, We found that L2 learners used *maybe* as SRMs frequently. But this was a rare case in BNC.

IV. Results

TABLE 2
OVERALL DISTRIBUTION OF SRMS

	Well		I mean		Maybe	
	BNC	SECCL	BNC	SECCL	BNC	SECCL
Total frequency	443	273	184	47	66	388
Log likelihood	-40.51**		-86.65**		+253.37**	
Frequency	41	6	177	34	6	39
Percentage (%)	9.3	2.2	96.2	72.3	9.1	10.1
Log likelihood	-29.21**		-99.40**		+27.09*	
Result	underuse		underuse		overuse	

Table 2 showed the overall distribution of three SRMs. The results suggested that the percentages of *well* for NSs and L2 learners be 9.3% and 2.2% respectively. Log likelihood equaled -32.09($p<0.01$), which indicated there was a significant difference between NSs and L2 learners in the use of *well* as SRMs. The L2 learners tended to underuse *well* as SRMs, compared with NSs. As for *I mean*, the percentages of NSs and L2 learner were 92.3% and 72.3% respectively, with the log likelihood of -99.40 ($p<0.01$). This also indicated that there was a significant difference between NSs and L2 learners in the use of *I mean* as SRMs. Compared with NSs, L2 learners tend to underuse *I mean* as SRMs. The result also showed that the percentages of *maybe* by L2 learners and NSs are 10.1% and 9.1% respectively. Finally according to log likelihood (+ 27.09 ($p<0.05$)), there was a significant difference between NSs and L2 learners in their use of *maybe* as SRMs. L2 learners tended to overuse *maybe* as SRMs.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF SRMS BY SUB-CATEGORY

SRM		**Well**		**I mean**		**Maybe**	
		BNC	SECCL	BNC	SECCL	BNC	SECCL
Repetition RM(RRM)	Syllabic RM	3	0	0	0	0	0
	One-word RM	3	1	0	0	0	10
	Two-word RM	2	0	1	2	0	5
	Multi-word RM	1	0	2	1	0	2
Total		10	1	3	3	0	17
Information RM (IRM)	Information supply RM/replacement RM	10	2	160	12	1	2
Total		10	3	162	16	2	3
Error RM(ERM)	Lexical RM	3	0	4	3	0	6
	Morphological RM	6	0	2	1	0	1
	Syntactic RM	2	1	2	3	0	4
Total		11	1	8	7	1	11
Appropriate RM (ARM)	Replacement RM	6	1	2	7	1	4
	Insertion RM	4	0	2	1	1	4
Total		10	1	4	8	2	8
Z score		z=-2.8, p=0.005		z=-1.44, p=0.886		z=-2.52, p=0.012	

Table 3 showed the distributions of SRMs under the sub-categories. The statistic results indicated a significant difference in terms of *well*, with a z-score of -2.81(p=0.005). But the result showd no significant difference in the use of *I mean* by NSs and L2 learners under the sub-categories (z =-1.44., p=0.886). Since *maybe* tends to be overused by L2 learners, the result was diversified. *Maybe* was mainly used in repetition as SRMs with a total number of 17, in error repair with a total number of 11. The total number of *maybe* used by NSs as SRMs was only 6. Hence, the statistic results indicated a remarkable difference between NSs and L2 learners in the use of *maybe* as SRMs (z=-2.52, p=0.012).

To sum up, the present research had the following major findings while referring to the research questions: (1) In general, L2 learners and NSs used the three SRMs in a significantly different way. L2 learners tended to underuse *well* and *I mean* while overuse *maybe*; (2) Under the sub-categories, NSs and L2 learners had remarkable differences in the use of *well* and *maybe*, but no significant difference was found in the use of *I mean*. However, an interesting pattern showed that NSs tended to employ *I mean* mainly for information supplement or replacement while L2 learners used it to signal different kinds of self-repair, either for signaling self-correction or for achieving appropriateness of the utterances. (3) One more striking finding was that the NSs tended to use a "discourse marker+ *maybe*" pattern, whereas L2 learners tend to employ *maybe* directly as SRMs; (4) Further observations on the sub-categories indicate that, in BNC, *well* was almost equally deployed as RRMs (10), IRMs (10), ARMs (10) and ERMs (11), whereas, *I mean* was mostly deployed as IRMs (162). As for *maybe* in SECCL, it was deployed mainly as RRMs (especially one-word RRMs, with a total number of 17), less as ERMs (11), ARMs (8) and least as IRMs (3). Hence, the aforementioned findings may help specify the character of repair operations, for example, the ways in which an element of the prior talk ccould be self-repaired.

V. DISCUSSION

Next, we began with a closer look at the examples from two corpora which may demonstrate some striking patterns of three SRMs, which might have been exhibited in the aforementioned results. Example (1) and (2) below illustrated the practice of *well* as SRMs.

(1) It changed so much that you co committed an offence that ended up you in prison, in prison for, *well* you got a three year sentence. (BNC: hv1-Central Weekend Live.txt)

(2) After all I will try to manage it, because I think in the US, *well*, look at the things in US, when the kids gets 18 years old…… (SECCL: 04-199-31A.txt)

In example (1), the speaker replaced the previously uttered information by using *well* as an information replacement marker. In example (2), the speaker supplied more information by using *well*. The data from Table 3 further showed a strong tendency that NSs use *well* more often as DMs or SRMs than L2 learners. We would further explain this result in later sections. Example (3) and (4) illustrated the practice of *I mean* as SRMs.

(3) Right, now, what has this got to do with eating disorders? *I mean*, where do eating disorders come from? (BNC: fl6-Eating disorders.txt)

(4) Yes, I, I, read the report from the newspaper this morning. And I think, er, it's very wonderful. *I mean*, it's very competitive for them to compete for the position. (SECCL: 05-005-30B.txt)

In example (3), the speaker used *I mean* to make adjustments to what had just been said. In example (4), the speaker used *I mean* to signal the instantly upcoming self-repair for what had just been said. We found an interesting pattern that, in BNC, *I mean* was mainly used as information repair markers while in SECCL *I, mean* served, not only as information repair markers, but also as error or appropriate repair markers. In both cases, *I mean* was used to explicitly indicate what kind of repair is to follow. We would further interpret this kind of idiosyncratic usage in later sections. Example (5), (6)

and (7) illustrated the practice of *maybe* as SRMs.

(5) You can communicate with the *maybe* the guests of the hotel and just improve your abilities in some aspects. (SECCL: 05-005-03B.txt)

(6) A: Are you wealthy?
B: Wealthy? I wish I was. Er *I mean* one *maybe* one day I will if if it makes a hit eh……
(BNC: hmd-BBC Radio Nottingham.txt)

(7) A: If they're stupid enough to be homeless!
B: Well *maybe* sometimes it's not their fault. Most of the time people don't want to …
(BNC: fld-Families.txt)

In example (5), *maybe* served as SRMs to initiate the upcoming self-repair. But in example (6), speaker B first used *I mean* as an initiator of self-repair, then he/she uses *maybe* to finish the self-repair implicitly. In example (7), speaker B first used *well* as an initiator of self-repair and uses *maybe* to implicitly expressed his/her idea. In both cases, *maybe* served not as explicit SRMs, rather it was used as a supplementary part of SRMs. As we further observed the concordance lines from BNC, we found that NSs tended to use a "discourse marker+ *maybe*" pattern. But we did not discover this striking pattern in SECCL. We found L2 learners tended to use *maybe* directly as SRMs.

In interpreting the aforementioned findings, we assumed that pragmatic transfer and overgeneralization were the major causes of learners' overuse or underuse of SRMs. In recent years, there had been a convergence of SLA and pragmatics in what had been termed interlanguage pragmatics. Kasper (1992, p. 203) defined interlanguage pragmatics as "the branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers… understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge." Kasper (1992) expanded the scope of the Interlanguage Pragmatics and put forward the notion of pragmatic transfer, which refers to the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information. Some other notions, such as pragmatic fossilization in SLA have also been applied to the pragmatic aspect of language development. Trillo (2002) addressed fossilization from a pragmatic perspective and put forward the notion of pragmatic fossilization, which was defined as the phenomenon by which a non-native speaker systematically used certain forms inappropriately at the pragmatic level of communication. We would further explored how pragmatic transfer and overgeneralization exerted influence over L2 learners' use of SRMs in the following part.

As for *well* and *I mean*, some previous studies supported our findings (Wong, 2000; Tree & Schrock, 2002; Trillo, 2002; Liao, 2009). Liao (2009) found that Chinese English learners had an overall infrequent use of *well* and *I mean* in conversation. One of the possible explanations was that there were no countparts of *well* and *I mean* in Mandarin. In Mandarin, the equivalent marker to *well* as a delay device would be "um." As for *I mean*, the countpart in Mandarin was "Wo de yisi shi" (my meaning is) which contained five Chinese characters with five syllables, and thus was never regarded as DMs in Mandarin. Based on the above analysis, Liao came to a conclusion that the influence of L1 transfer might explain why these DMs were employed at a lower rate by Chinese English learners. Liao's research had another striking finding in which there was a high rate of *yeah* as SRMs. This supported Wong (2000)'s findings in which she observed the function of same-turn repair by her non-native participants whose native language was Mandarin. This usage of *yeah* had been found to be extremely rare in native discourse, yet non-native speakers used this *yeah* to resolve what was problematic or troublesome about the utterance. The studies mentioned above gave solid evidence to the present findings. The discrepancy between NSs and L2 learners in the use of *I mean* under the sub-categories demonstrated that L2 learners had not yet acquired the meaning of this SRM. They might overgeneralize its usage.

As for *maybe*, the previous studies also supported our findings (Wu, 2009; Hu, 2010). Wu's corpus-driven study, which compared the usage of two adverbs –*probably* and *maybe* by NSs and L2 learners, showed that NSs tended to use a "discourse marker+*maybe*" pattern to initiate self-repair, whereas Chinese L2 learners tended to use *maybe* directly as SRMs. Similarly, Hu's study found that Chinese English learners tended to overuse *maybe* when they tried to express epistemic possibility in English and he further suggested that *maybe* is perhaps entrenched in learners' cognitive system. Our possible explanation of this idiosyncratic usage was that the counterpart of *maybe* in Mandarin was "ye xu" or "da gai", which were frequently employed in oral Mandarin. As the present research results showed, L2 learners had not yet acquired the use of *I mean* and *well* as SRMs. Instead they tended to use *maybe* as SRMs in resolving what was problematic or troublesome about the utterance. Finally, we postulated that L2 learners in the study were reserved in making use of lexical items. When they were hesitant in choosing lexical items, they preferred to use some semantically familiar items like *maybe* as vocalized fillers to stall for time in speech organization processes.

As for the last aforementioned finding, we attempted to have the following interpretations. Previous studies indicated that sprinkling *I mean* into speech had been thought to provide three types of interpersonal information: information about the speaker, information about the situation, such as its formality or intimacy and information about the level of politeness (Tree & Schrock, 2002). Hence, *I mean* can be used as information management displays. This was in accordance with the present finding that *I mean* was mostly deployed as IRMs (In this study the total number is 162) by NSs. As for *may* (*maybe* is utilized mainly as RRMs (17) and ERMs (11), less as ARMs (8) and IRMs (3) by L2 learners in the present study), the finding may partly be a sign of L2 learners' language proficiency. Due to the limited language proficiency, L2 learners tended to focus on the accuracy of lower-level linguistic forms, such as lexical,

morphological and syntactical items rather than on the appropriateness of language expressions. There could be another interpretation for this. Repair is a speech activity during which speakers locate and replace a prior information unit. Because they focus on prior information, repairs achieve information transitions—forcing speakers to adjust their orientation to what has just been said before they respond to it in upcoming talk (Scheffrin, 1987). In this kind of repairing process, SRMs tended to be utilized to fulfill the information management tasks. Hence, the aforementioned findings may also show L2 learners' lack of the awareness of SRMs as information management displays. Further validity testing is needed to provide empirical evidence to support this claim.

Next, we attempted to further explore the reasons behind these remarkable differences between NSs and L2 learners in the use of SRMs. According to Painter (1999), NSs followed what was called a "function-to-form" developmental process, where the needed to communicate precedes the use of form; whereas non-native speakers follow a "form-to-function process", based on the learning of certain items which are usually contextualized at different subsequent stages. Based on this statement, Trillo (2002) believed that "the form-to-function language development process that was characteristic of non-native speakers was the key factor in the appearance of certain aspects of language fossilization". Trillo (2002) further postulated that non-native speakers may find the learning process of form-to-function problematic because of the de-contextualized nature of L2 learning environments. In most cases L2 learners acquire some simplified and context-free register of the target language with no explicit relationship between form and function. Therefore, he suggested that it is essential to teach the pragmatic function of language items of a target language, ranging from lexicalized phenomena to the functions of DMs in conversation. Similarly, Weinert's (1998) findings of L2 learners' incompetence of using DMs led her to question whether L2 language learning materials may be biased toward written language, whether naturalistic language development and classroom teaching are separated and whether oral discourse coherence devices like DMs might be explicitly taught.

Based on the above arguments, we assumed that the fundamental cause of pragmatic fossilization was that L2 learners could not acquire the target language through natural language contact, but in most cases they followed a "form-to-function" learning process in which the learning materials are de-contextualized. As was stated by Trillo (2002, p. 770-783), "pragmatic fossilization appeared in L2 learners not because of a lack of competence in other linguistic areas such lexis, grammar, etc., but because there was delay in the presentation of the pragmatic variation that existed with respect to the way communication competence is acquired in the mother tongue". The lack of this communicative competence may lead to pragmatic fossilization, and in many cases, to pragmatic failure. Considering pragmatic failure, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) made the important point that pragmatic failure may also occur between NSs, but there was a good chance that the speaker would recognize the failure and the reason for it, and would therefore perform suitable repair. Non-native speakers, however, might be completely unaware of the reason for the failure and therefore unable to repair the interaction.

VI. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

A. Conclusion

The present study was a corpus-based study on the use of three SRMs: *well*, *I mean* and *maybe* by NSs and L2 learners. The availability of two representative corpora guaranteed the objectivity of the results and also might shed light on future research where variables of the corpora might be different. The findings indicated L2 learners overused *maybe* and underused *we*ll and *I mean* as SRMs, compared with NSs. The study then explored the fundamental reasons for the differences and postulated that these SRMs might be fossilized both in the quantity and the diversity of usage. The study also has its own contributions to the present literature of interlanguage pragmatics in that it not only examined pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English was evident in L2 learners' use of SRMs, but also verified that the cause of pragmatic fossilization in L2 was due to the "form-to-function" learning process, in which the learning materials are de-contextualized.

B. Pedagogical Implications

First, regarding the phenomenon of pragmatic fossilization, we conclude if DMs, including SRMs, are retained and used as part of L2 learners' interlanguage system, then L2 learners must obtain repeated exposure to and rehearsal of those markers through conversational interaction either inside or outside of the classroom. Since L2 learners do not always have the opportunities to be immersed in an English-speaking environment outside of the foreign language classroom, pedagogical factors, including textbooks, teachers' roles and learner factors, exert much influence on this aspect. As pointed out in many studies, textbooks play a crucial role in syllabus design and lesson planning. Textbooks constitute the bread and butter of L2 learners' language learning experience (Lam, 2009). As is often the case, the descriptions of DMs in textbooks are far from satisfactory and many examples are invented and decontextualized (Wang, 2007; Lam, 2009; Quan, 2010). The learners may be denied access to these useful DMs in their learning processes. In order to present a more comprehensive picture to learners concerning how DMs are used in real-life contexts, textbook writers can introduce corpus evidence into textbooks using authentic examples. In this respect, a corpus-based and data-driven learning approach to learning DMs with the use of concordancers may be useful (Lam, 2009).

Next, direct teaching of DMs on the part of teachers may increase the usage by L2 learners. Teachers may not spend

much of their class time teaching DMs, but they can make learners aware of these markers and their pragmatic functions by giving language samples from everyday conversation between native speakers. Also, teachers can give learners structured time for pair work and small group interaction in class after giving learners' input of the use of DMs through video or movie watching. Such increased awareness and classroom practice may provide learners with gradual access to DMs in appropriate situations inside and outside of the classroom.

Finally, as for learner factors, we think L2 learners' acquisition of appropriate pragmatic forms depend much on learners' conscious learning. According to Gass and Houck (1999), one reason for the difficulty in obtaining appropriate knowledge of the pragmatics of L2 may be a human assumption about learning a L2, namely, what needs to be learned is the phonology, lexicon, and syntax of a L2. Pragmatics, speech acts or even more specific, DMs, are initially perceived to be universal. Therefore, L2 learners are not aware of those pragmatic aspects and they are unlikely to notice the subtle differences between target language and their native language. As such, noticing mismatches between L1 and L2 is a major driving force in L2 learning. How to raise L2 learners' awareness on pragmatic forms concerns the roles of attention and awareness in L2 learning. This needs further discussion in future research.

This study was not without its limitations. The major weakness of the study was that the sizes of two corpora were limited. Future research which employs large- scaled corpora is needed to give more supporting evidence for the present study.

NOTES

1. The following example is an instance of a cut-off as repair initiators in English:

[Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977: 366]

Naomi: But c'd we- c'd I stay u: p?

Here, Naomi stops her utterance by cutting it off after the word we, marked with a dash at the end of the word. This cut-off functions as repair initiator. After that, she recycles the verb form c'd in her prior talk and then replaces we with I.

2. Although terms such as "editing terms or expressions (Levelt, 1983: 41-104; 1989), discourse markers or particles; (Schiffrin, 1987: 31-40; Aijmer, 2002), cue phrases (Heeman & Allen, 1999), and repair markers (Chen, 2005; Wang, 2007) are preferred by some researchers, we think the term SRMs can display the functions of those discourse markers more explicitly, and we will therefore use the term "self-repair markers" in this article.

3. In table 1, the italicized parts indicate the whole self-repair segments: trouble sources, SRMs and repair outcomes. By doing so, we intend to show the ongoing self-repairing processes clearly. For instance: *You can't... er, concentrate, I mean you can't focus on* the black side. In this sentence, "concentrate" is the trouble source, *I mean* serve as SRMs, and the repair outcome is "focus on." In this sentence, the speaker traced back to the trouble source by repeating "*You can't.*"

4. In the present study, if there is significant difference between NSs and L2 learners in their use of SRMs ($p<0.05$), then we use "+" to signal the state of "overuse" and "- "to signal the state of "underuse."

5. In BNC, *I mean* is mainly used as information repair markers, whereas in SECCL, *I mean* serves, not only as information repair markers, but also as error or appropriate repair markers.

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A Comparative Study of Greeting Forms Common among Native Male and Female Speakers of Persian

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***Abstract*—This study aimed at discovering the most frequent verbal behaviors associated with Persian greetings. It tried to investigate whether these behaviors vary according to relationships between interlocutors and speakers sex. The results shows that greeting forms used by Persian males and females show great differences in terms of the linguistic forms used in different situations reveling the fact that men prefer using more informal expressions and feel a greater power face in comparison to female speakers. Women mostly tend to talk about private subjects and prefer to show how they feel about the subject matter.**

***Index Terms*—greeting forms, socio-pragmatic, interpersonal communication, formulaic and non-formulaic patterns**

I. Introduction

It is stated by Hudson (1996) that sex is a social variable affecting one's speech, in this study this statement is tested in an Iranian context to see if it applies to Persian greeting forms or not. In so doing a sociopragmatic approach was detected to contrast greeting forms. Therefore some naturalistic contexts are used to support this hypothesis that greeting forms differ in terms of the speaker's sex. In this case two major factors of politeness and solidarity -power are taken into account to see if the forms vary in different situations or not. The results and pedagogical implications of the study are discussed.

II. Review of Literature

Sociopragmatics refers to the way conditions of language use derive from the social situation. In other words, it involves the study of both the forms and functions of language in the given social context. The term linguistic form refers to the abstract phonological and/or grammatical characterization of language. Social functions, however, refers to the role language plays in the context of the society or the individual. For instance language is used (or functions in such a way as) to communicate ideas, express attitudes and so forth. It may also be used to identify specific sociolinguistic situations, such as informi8ty, or varieties of language, such as science or law. The term situation is generally used to refer to extra-linguistic setting in which an utterance takes place. It refers to such notions as number of participants, level of formality, nature of the on-going activities and so.

In any sociopragmatic study, therefore, two sets of categories are to be contrasted: a linguistic category and a sociological category. Grimshaw (1973) maintains that there exists a set of underlying social conventions that every speaker fallows them. One such convention is the rule that tells the speaker of a language to greet each other at the first meeting in a given social context for politeness purposes. Here the linguistic criteria are Grice's Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975) and Leech's Politeness Maxims (Leech, 1983)

Grice's Cooperative Principle (CP) includes:

- Quality (QL): tell the truth.
- Quantity (QN): Give the right amount of information.
- Relevance (R): Be relevant.
- Manner (M): Be clear and brief.

Leech's Politeness Maxims (PM) includes:

- Tact Maxim (TM): Minimize the cost to the other.
- Generosity Maxim (GM): Minimize the benefit to self.
- Approbation Maxim (APM): Maximize the praise of other.
- Agreement Maxim (AGM): Maximize agreement between self and other.
- Sympathy Maxim (SM): Maximize sympathy between self and other.

Closely connected to the notion of sociopragmatics is the notion of Speech Act. Speech Act is a term derived from the work of the philosopher of language, Austin, it refers to a theory which analyzes the role of utterance in relation to the behavior of the speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication. It is a community activity defined with reference to the intentions of the speaker while speaking. Several categories of speech acts have been proposed:

- directives,
- commissives,
- expressives,
- declarations,
- Representatives.

Once we begin to look at utterances from the point of view of what they do (or the speech act view point) it is possible to see any utterance as a speech act of one kind or other (that is, as having some functional value which might be quiet independent of the actual words used or their grammatical arrangements). These acts may not be as explicit or direct as out! , I do, or we leave here by seek leave to appeal, but there can be little dispute that even to say something like I saw John this morning is an act; at the simplest level it is an act of telling truth or not. There is also no reason to assume that every language has the same performatives.

We can now return to the expressions like: Nice day! How do you do? And you are looking smart today. These comprise a special kind of speech that is called "phatic communion". According to Malinowski (1923) phatic communion is a type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words. In such a communion words do not convey meaning. Instead, they fulfill a social function and that is their principle aim. What, for instance, is the function of apparently aimless gossip? Malinowski (1923) answers as follows:

- It consists in just this atmosphere off sociability and in the fact of the personal communion of these people. But this is in fact achieved by speech and the situation in all such cases is created by the exchange of words, by the specific feelings which form convivial gregariousness, by the give and take of utterances which make up ordinary gossip. The whole situation consists in what happens linguistically. Each utterance is an act of serving the direct binding of hearer to speaker by the tie of some social sentiment or other. Once more, language appears to us in this function not as an instrument of reflection but as a mode of action.

The verbs which are used to indicate speech act intended by the speaker are sometimes referred to as per formative verbs. The criteria which have to be satisfied in order for a speech act to be successful are known as felicity conditions. The speech event is the basic unit of analysis of spoken interaction, i.e. the emphasis is on the role of participants in constructing a discourse of verbal exchanges.

A conversation may be viewed as a series of speech act-greetings, inquiries, congratulations, comments, etc. to accomplish the work of these speech acts some organization is essential: we take turns at speaking, answer questions, mark beginning and end of a conversation and corrections when they are needed.

Hymes (1974) recommends that for every speech act there be an ethnographic frame work which takes into account the various factors that are involved in speaking. An ethnography of a communicative event is a description of all the factors that are relevant to understanding how that particular communicative event achieves its objectives. For convenience Hymes uses the acronym SPEAKING for the various factors he believes to be relevant. each of these factors will now be considered briefly:

- Setting (S): the setting or scene refers to the time and place in which speech takes place.
- Participants (P): the participants include different combination of speaker-listener, addresser- addressee, or sender-receiver.
- Ends or purposes (E): end refers to the conventionally recognized and expected outcomes of an exchange as well as the personal goals that participants seek to accomplish on a particular occasion. Hymes observes that the purpose of an event from a community standpoint may not be identical to the purposes of those engaged in it. At every level of language individuals can exploit the system for personal and/or social reasons or artistic effect.

Irvine (1974) describes a speech event among the Wolof (a Congo language of Senegambia), the greeting which is a necessary opening to every encounter and in fact can be used as a definition of when an encounter occurs. Relative rank determines who greets whom-it is customary for the lower ranking party to greet the higher ranking party and there is a proverb when two people greet each other, one has shame, the other has glory. However, individuals do not always wish

to take the higher status because along with prestige goes the obligation to contribute to the support of the low status person.

- Keys (K): by the term key Hymes (1974) means the tone, manner, or sprit in which a particular message is conveyed: light-hearted, serious, precise, pedantic, sarcastic, pompous, etc. the signaling of the key may be non-verbal, by a wink, a smile, gesture, or posture, but may be equally well achieved by conventional units of speech like the aspiration and vowel length used to signal emphasis in English. (Note this factor beside other ones such as Act sequence, instrumentalities, norms, etc. won't be discussed in this study as a limitation of DCT instrument).

Conversation openers (e.g., greeting) are often highly ritualized. The definition proposed here for a greeting illocution simply claims that a speaker communications thereby his awareness that the addressee is present at a potential interactant. The greet act fulfills three functions:

- Speaker wishes hearer to know that speaker has taken cognizance of hearer presence.
- In recognizing hearer's presence via a greet, speaker ratifies hearer social standing with himself and implies a readiness on his part for social interaction.
- It is intended that the greet covers somewhat more ground that the every day term greeting. Further specification is, therefore, possible.

So greeting indicates continuity of personal relation signals the recognition of the other participant as a potential agent in some activity.

A laboratory study of greeting was conducted by Krivonos and Knapp (1975) to discover most frequent verbal and non-verbal associated with them and to investigate whether these behaviors varied according to relationship between interlocutors. 64 college-age men were selected for the study and all greetings collected were videotaped and transcribed. The outcome of the study illustrated the fact that verbal greetings were less common among strangers. While the authors regard greeting as ritualized behavior, Krivonos and Knapp point out that their results could have been specific situation in which they conducted their study.

That this may indeed be the case is suggested by a preliminary study of non-formulaic greetings conducted by Marsha Wesler at the University of Pennsylvania. Basing her findings on an ethnography of her own speech community, Wesler discovered that in interaction among status equals who were well acquainted, conversations were typically initiated not by a formulaic greeting but by a comment or question related to information shared by the participants. While the study was preliminary in nature, a considerable amount of data was collected and analyzed, leading into strong indication that distance and amount of shared knowledge about one another's lives have a strong influence on the frequency with which non-formulaic greetings are used.

Greeting forms are classified in ways other than the verbal-nonverbal dichotomy proposed by Krivonos and Knapp (1975). Halliday (1973) classifies greeting as time-free and time-bound. English hello and its Persian counterpart Salaam are time free and English good morning and its Persian counterpart "*Sobh bekheir*" are time bound.

Sacks (MS) maintains that there are two important features about greetings. Firstly, they occur at the very beginning of the conversation; secondly, they allow all the speakers a turn, right at the beginning of the conversation.

e.g. Hello there, you two.
Hi.
Hi there …

There are two major occasions in which a conversation does not start with a greeting. Firstly, conversation between people who do not consider themselves co-conversationalists (for example, strangers). They are not on greeting terms and, therefore, do not exchange a greeting (Coulthard, 1985). The speaker who opens must demonstrate in his first utterance why he is beginning the conversation.

Excuse me, could you tell me the way to ….
Or
Hey. You've dropped your book.

The other conversations which typically do not open with a greeting are telephone conversations. Schegloff argues that although the person who answers the telephone may say "Hello" this is not a greeting, it is the answer to summons from the caller embodied in the ringing of phone. Following this indication that the channel is open there is often a greeting sequence to begin the conversation properly. Sometimes if the answerer simply answers with Hello, there is first a checking sequence to make sure that the caller is talking to the right person.

III. Statement of the Study Purpose

The key to understanding Persian social and linguistic purpose lies in an understanding of the dynamics of interpersonal behavior. This is due to intricacies of face-to-face interaction that power is negotiated, alliances are made, action is made and the choices of strategy are set. Greeting exchanges involving the use of names or address terms vary enormously in such terms as who speaks first, what a suitable reply is and even what a variety of language may be employed. In one study Beeman (1986) suggested that the style of spoken Persian is intended to be asymmetrical and restricted. In addition it is stated by Hudson (1996) that some languages provide distinct forms for male and female speakers. This study is to evaluate how rules governing and restricting Persian speech on one hand and on the other hand the differences between speakers' sex may affect speech. The best area for investigating these factors was greeting

forms, as discussed before this area was considered as one affected both by formulaic and non-formulaic patterns. The present study seeks to find a pattern in greetings terms, used by each sex, in order to explain the reason for such differences.

IV. Methodology

1. participants:

This study was conducted with 40 university students that were including 20 female students and 20 male students studying in Khorasgan University. The purpose for selecting these students was to decrease the negative effect of participants' class difference and to minimize the age difference they were all between 20 and 30. the number of male/female participants was the same and they were chosen randomly in order to make the study more natural.

2. materials and data:

Material used to collect the desired data was DCT. Due to the fact that it was hard to tape record all desired situations this instrument was chosen. The corpus used in this study included 12 units of discourse commonly used among the middle class urbane society members in Iran in 10 social settings. The questions and answers were manipulated through observation of some face-to-face encounters. The questionnaire is enclosed (See appendix) and the procedure to make it is explained.

Persian greeting forms discussed in this study could be divided into two major subcategories: time-free and time-bound. The following is an attempt at manifesting the major classes of greetings in Persian:

Time- free Persian greetings:

- Salaam(aleikom) [hello, hi]
- Az molaghate shoma khoshbakhtam! [Nice to meet you!]

Time- bound Persian greetings: (daily formal greetings)

- Sobhe (shoma) bekheir. [good morning]
- Zohre (shoma) bekheir. [good noon]
- Asr (shoma) bekheir. [good evening]

When a person meets an acquaintance on the street, the most common form of greeting in Iran is Salaam. It is said in most common (in) formal occasions. More formal greetings are "*Sobhe (shoma) bekheir"*, "Zohre (shoma) bekheir", etc. the formal greeting "*az molaghate shoma khoshbakhtam*" is normally used when one is introduced to a stranger.

Quite often any greet (except "*az molaghate shoma khoshbakhtam*") is followed by one of the following questions concerning how the addressee is (which are, as far as possible, arranged hierarchically from the most formal to the least formal; this arrangement is not definite since each form might be used for different functions.):

- Ahvale/ hale jenabe ali chetore? [how is your excellency]
- Ahvale/ hale sharif chetore? [how is your excellency, less formal]
- Hale tan/ shoma chetore? [how are you with plural form of you]
- Halet chetore? [how are you with singular form of you]
- Chetori? [are you ok]
- Halo ruzegar chetore? How is it going?]

What is more interesting fact observed is that Iranian maintenance of politeness is more shown through their use of certain honorifics and phrases in informal conversations. The most common methods of maintaining politeness observed by Salmani-Nodoushan (2007) include the choice of personal pronouns and the use of honorific titles.

Personal pronouns:

The first person singular subject pronoun (I) is sparingly used in Persian face to face interaction. The use of the second person plural subject pronoun shoma is common for when reference is being made to a person of equal or higher rank. The pronoun to is used only in reference to children, intimate friends or servants. The word jenabe aali (your highness, your excellency) is used in place of shoma in reference to status equals or people of higher ranks.

Honorific titles:

The most usual honorifics are khanom (Miss. /Mrs.) and agha (Mr. /Sir). The surname of the individual being addressed will fallow the honorific title. Job titles like doctor, mohandes (engineer) and so are often used together with addressee's surname. When the individual being addressed are of a very higher rank, the job titles are used together with the general honorifics as in khanom mohandes.

Due to the collected data regarding the general greeting terms in Persian the questionnaire was made. This time another factor was taken into consideration, tat of commonality between the youth. Through observation some of the most common forms were chosen and DCT was rearranged. The degree of formality among choices decreases from a-d in order to make data analysis procedure easier.

V. Results and Discussion

A pure contrastive analysis of greeting forms used by Persian males and females shows there are significant differences between them. It seems sex becomes a very important factor contributing to speakers decision how to make an acceptable use of language and avoid failure. Though the chosen settings are the same different answers are made.

When speech takes place between two friends, though men use more informal and friendly expressions, women put more stress on their feeling and attitudes towards the speaker. It seems the higher degree of intimacy between friends is shown through emotional terms; while in the same situation men tend to use more informal expressions and slangs. Chart 2.

e.g., for male: bi marefat, baba kojaie, etc.
for female : Kheili delam barat tang shode bood.

On the other hand women feel more at ease and have greater solidarity face with their family members and relatives. More interestingly when the addressee is a female relative intimacy increases even if the speaker is a man, though still less than women. Most women's second speech act is about addressee's well-being and his/her family which may be rooted in her interest in "private" subjects. Such subjects suitable for establishing rapport termed by Tannen (1990) as "rapport-speaking" are women's area of interest. While men are more eager to talk about "public" subjects termed as "report-speaking. As it is seen in question no.8, while most men preferred to talk about monetary subjects, women asked about addressee's wellbeing and his/her family (chart.7):

e.g., for male: kar o bar chetore? Wa'ze kar o kasebi chetore?
for female: khanom bacheha khooban?

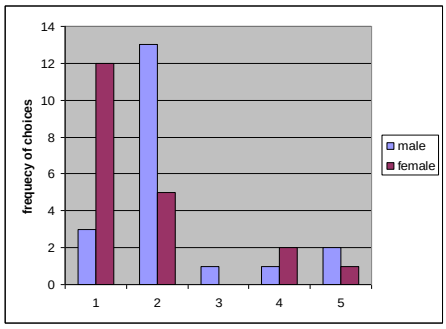


Chart.2

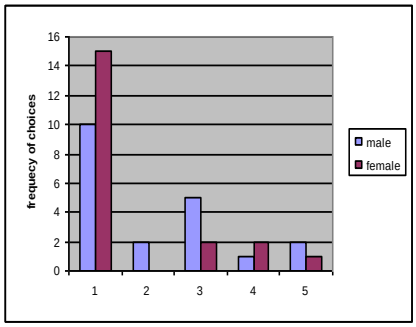


chart.7

As intimacy decreases the difference becomes less significant. While in both cases solidarity face little by little fades away and is replaced by power face, the pattern to respect the addressee's power face differs. It seems women are more likely to use job titles or honorifics when men tend to use the more ritualized expressions. This becomes more tangible if the addressee is a man. (Illustrated in charts no. 8 and 9)

e.g., for male: salaam mitunam chand lahze vaghtetun ra begiram?
for female: salaam aghaye/khanome ……
Salaam ostad.

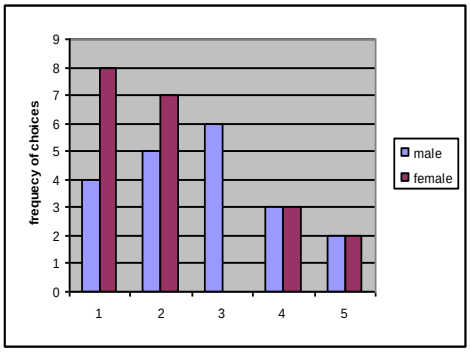


Chart.8

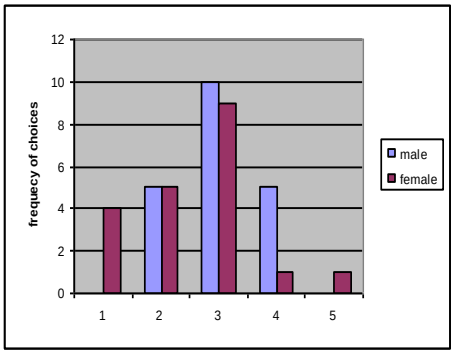


chart.9

In meeting the other sex men seem less informal and women more polite. Male speakers use Shoma (plural you) less frequent but still it is dependent on addressee's status and rank. On the other hand, in terms of using either time-bound or time-free greeting expressions usage (questioned in questions 8-12)though men tend to use time-bound greeting forms more- which may be due to their tendency to use ritualized patterns rather than others-the difference is insignificant. Both sexes prefer to use time-free greeting forms rather than more formal ones.

VI. Conclusion

The present study implies that Persian speakers of different sex vary in their use of linguistic forms. In this study greeting forms were used in as a typical linguistic pattern to compare this supposed difference. Different situations, varying in terms of either greater solidarity or power face on the part of speaker (male or female) were used to

investigate such difference affirm the hypothesis. Hudson's view discussing how man and omen talk differently in a similar situation is approved in an Iranian context.

Though it is claimed that Persian is highly ritualized, this supposed solid frame work does not apply individual differences. It is quite tangible that Iranian men prefer using more informal expressions and feel a greater power face in comparison to female speakers. Women mostly tend to talk about private subjects and prefer to show how they feel about the subject matter. The reason bringing about such variations may be found in social background of both groups. In a male-dominated society like Iran women have mostly been limited to houses and private life, thus it becomes if they try to be more interested in private topics. While men as leaders of- at least in a miniature society as their houses- feel and own a better power face.

This study could be used as a base for further investigations in sociolinguistics vast arena. Various situations and linguistic forms other than greeting expressions can form a good area of study in which sex is considered as a social variable affecting one's speech.

APPENDIX 1. CHARTS, ANALYSIS OF DATA

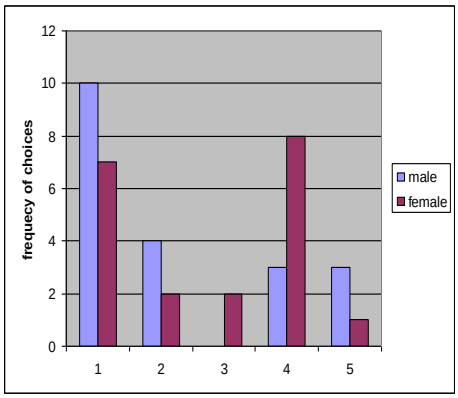


chart_1

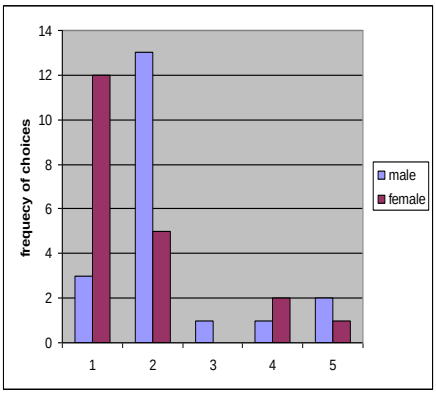


chart_2

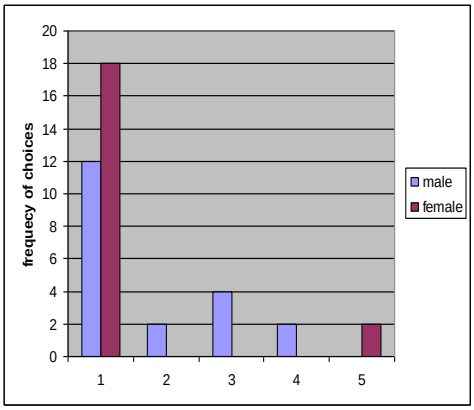


chart_3

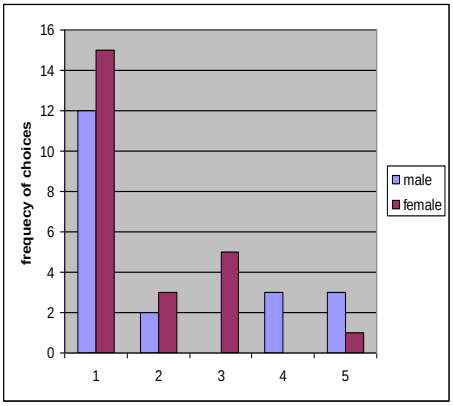
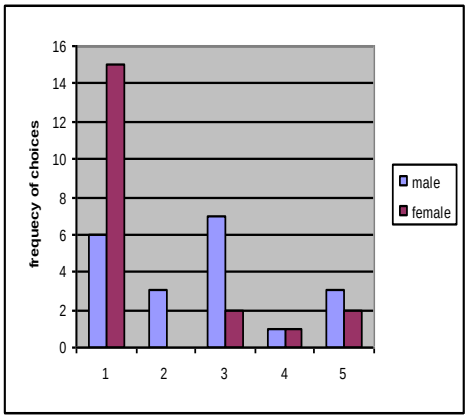


chart_4



Chrt_5

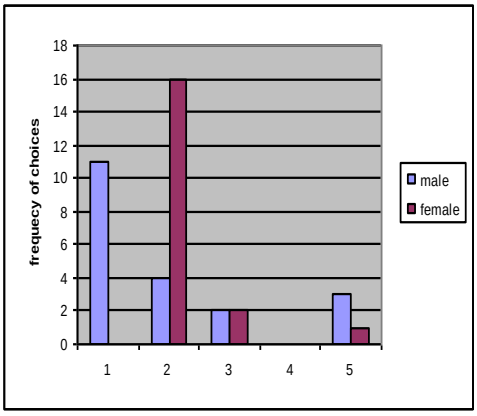


chart_6

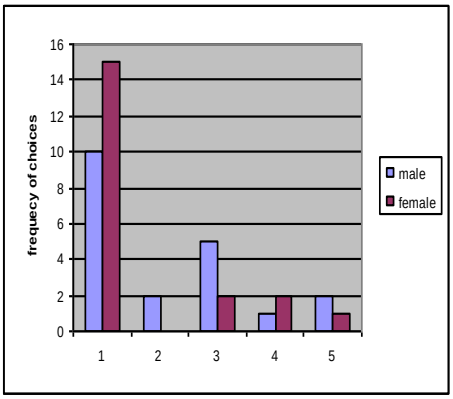


Chart_7

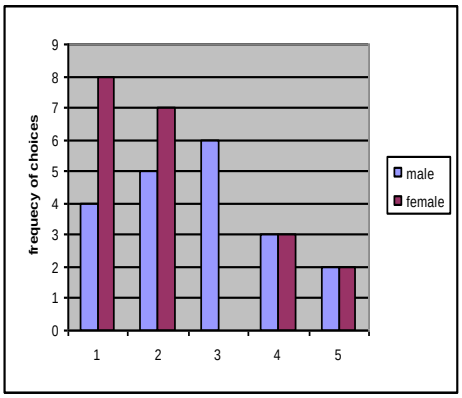


chart_8

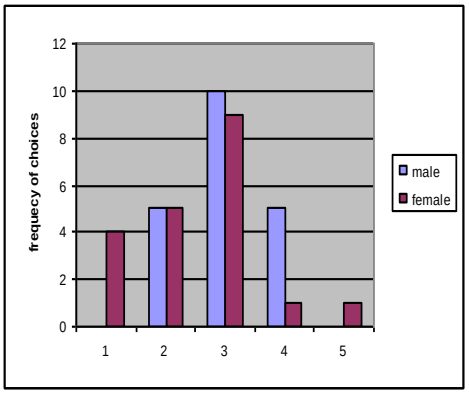


Chart_9

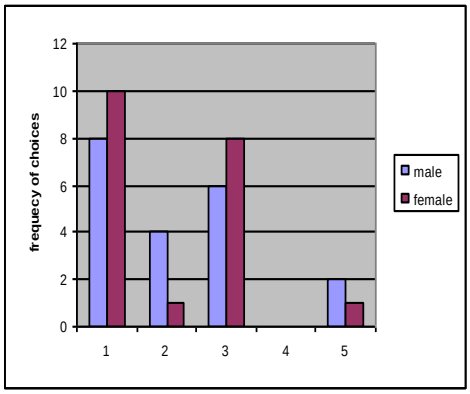


chart_10

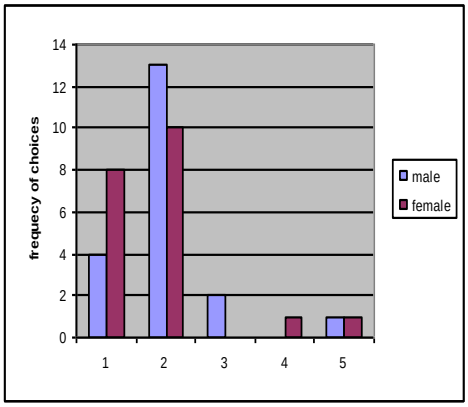


Chart_11

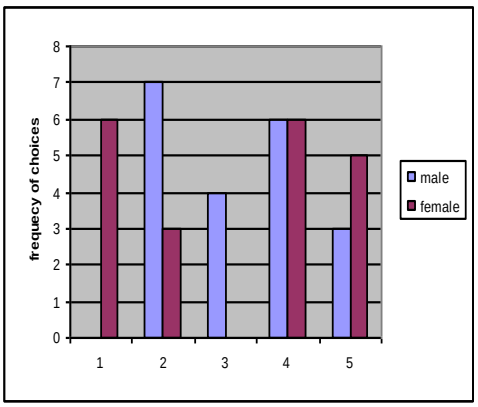


chart_12

APPENDIX.2: QUESTIONNAIRE

به نام خدا
سن( ) جنس( )

اگر شما در يكي از شرايط ذيل بوديد احتمال اينكه كدام يك از گزينه ها را انتخاب كنيد بيشتر است .
لطفا در صورتي كه گزينه اي ديگر را در نظر داريد آن را ذكر فرمائيد .

1.دوستي را پس از مدتي ملاقات مي كنيد:
( ) به سلام ( ) هي ببين كي اينجاست ( ) سلام خانم خانم ها /آقا ( ) سلام مشتاق ديدار
( ) .....

2.در همان موقعيت قبلي جمله دوي شما كدام خواهد بود ؟
( ) خيلي دلم برابت تنگ شده بود ( ) خيلي خوشحالم مي بينمت ( ) پارسال دوست ، امسال آشنا
( ) خانواد گرامي خوبن ( ).....

3.با يك دوست ملاقات مي كنيد:
( ) سلام حال شما ( ) روز {صبح ،...}بخير ، چه خبر ( ) سلام خوبي ( ) سلام ، اوضاع و احوال
( ) .....

4.هنگامي كه پدر يا مادرتان را ملاقات مي كنيد :
( ) سلام بابا/ مامان ، خوبي ( ) سلام آقا جون / مامان جون خوبين
( ) سلام حاج آقا / حاج خانم ،احوال شما ( ) روز {عصر ،...} بخير،احوال شريف
( ) .....

5.هنگامي كه خواهر يا برادرتان را مي بينيد :
( ) به ،سلام آقاداداش / آبجي خانم ( ) سلام خوبي ( ) ستاره خانم /علي آقا سلام خوبي
( ) روز {عصر ،...} بخير ( ) .....

6.ملاقات با بزرگتري كه آشناي شما است (به طور مثال عموي خود ...)
( ) سلام عمو جان ،خوبين ( ) سلام خان عمو ، خوبين شما ( ) سلام ،احوال شريف
( )روز {عصر ،...} بخير ،حالتون خوبه ( ) .....

7.جمله دوم شما كدام خواهد بود ؟
( ) خانم ،بچه ها خوبن ( ) خوش مي گذره ، همه خوبن ( ) وضع كاروكاسبي چطوره
( ) مشتاق ديدار ( ) .....

8.با بزرگتري كه غريبه است چگونه ملاقات مي كنيد؟(البته دفعه اول ملاقاتتان نباشد...)
( ) سلام آقاي /خانم ..... خسته نباشيد ( ) ببخشيد عرضي داشتم
( ) سلام ،ببخشيد مي تونم چند دقيقه از وقتتان را بگيرم ( ) روز {عصر ،...} بخير،خسته نباشيد
( ) .....

9. درصورتيكه دانسجو هستيد، چگونه با استاد خود سر صحبت را باز مي كنيد ؟
( ) سلام استاد ( ) ببخشيد استاد ( ) ببخشيد استادمي تونم وقتتان را بگيرم
( ) روز {عصر ،...} بخيراستاد ( ) .....

10.با كوچكتر خود (ازاعضاي فاميل) چگونه برخورد مي كنيد ؟
( ) سلام ستاره ،خوبي ( ) سلام كوچولو خوبي ( ) سلام عزيزم ( ) سلام ستاره خانم ،علي آقا گل
( ).....

11.با فردي غريبه (از جنس مخالف)بعد از آشنايي چگونه صحبت مي كنيد؟
( ) سلام ،خيلي خوشبختم ( ) سلام ، از ديدارتون خوشبختم ( ) روزتون {عصر ،...} بخير،خوشبختم
( ) روز {عصر ،...} بخير ( ) .....

12.با همكار خود چگونه صحبت مي كنيد؟
( ) سلام خوبين ( ) خسته نباشيد،حالتون خوبه ( ) سلام احوال شريف
( ) روز {عصر ،...} بخير،خوبين ( ) .....

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The Realization of Gardner's Multiple Intelligences (MI) Theory in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

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***Abstract*—Better understanding of individual cognitive factors that account for successful second language acquisition/learning is an important goal and of great interest for many researchers in the field of language study. Gardner's (1983) Multiple Intelligences Theory has proved that intelligence, as an individual cognitive factor, has a significant influence on the process of SLA and can account for the learners' variation in second language learning. The theory of Multiple Intelligences has caused some educators and language researchers to reassess classroom practices both in education in general and in many areas of language teaching and learning in specific. Before investigating the effect of this important factor, a comprehensive understanding of the term seems to be essential. Therefore, through a detailed literature review, this paper is an attempt to outline the concept of intelligence as well as the role of intelligence in major SLA approaches. Moreover, Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligences is outlined and its key features are discussed in detail through this paper. Finally, drawing on the role of Multiple Intelligences, this paper tries to elucidate the applications and implications of this theory in relation to second language teaching and learning. This should enable a clearer picture to emerge about the relative importance of intelligence among the constellation of factors associated with second language acquisition.**

***Index Terms*—intelligence, Multiple Intelligences Theory, SLA**

I. Introduction

Taking a look at the history of language teaching and learning, one can recognize that the 19th century has been highlighted with a significant shift of focus in language education from teaching to learning. This change created an explosion of research aimed at investigating learner characteristics and language acquisition. Learners were paid more attention as the key element in language teaching and learning, and as a result, a plethora of studies emerged focusing on language learners' different characteristics as well as examining the effect of these features on the ease and the speed of acquiring a second language.

According to Ellis (1985) second language (L2) learners are different. They learn with different speed and different results. There are many explanations for that issue. The general factors that influence second language learning are: age, aptitude and intelligence, cognitive style, attitudes, motivation and personality. In recent years, there has been a substantial amount of interest in individual differences among foreign language learners. Although there are many ways in which learners can vary, intelligence is often thought to be one of the most significant predictors of language learning success. According to Gardner's (1983) theory of "multiple intelligences", people vary in terms of eight types of intelligence, namely visual, verbal, mathematical, kinaesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic, and rhythmic intelligence. It has been said that each of these types of intelligence may have a bearing, not only on a student's ability to learn a foreign language, but also on the teacher's tendency to favour a given teaching method. Individuals differ from one another in their ability to understand complex ideas, to adapt effectively to the environment, to learn from experience, to engage in various forms of reasoning, to overcome obstacles by taking thought. Although these individual differences can be substantial, they are never entirely consistent: a given person's intellectual performance will vary on different occasions, in different domains, as judged by different criteria. Concepts of "intelligence" are attempts to clarify and organize this complex set of phenomena. In the area of second language learning as Spolsky (1989) states it is assumed that some people are gifted and they learn foreign languages with ease. It was observed that learners acquire a language with different results despite the fact that they are at the same age and are equally motivated. Intelligence is considered by many researchers as an important factor which can account for such differences. Accordingly, with regard to these points, this paper is an attempt to present a detailed picture of Gardner's multiple

intelligences (MI) theory as well as some important related issues including the role of intelligence in different SLA approaches and finally the applications and implications of multiple intelligences to English language teaching.

II. Definition and Characterization of Intelligence

Thanks to its important role in language learning, many researchers have proposed different definitions for intelligence. According to Moaafian (2008, cited in Hernandez et al., 2010) intelligence is a very general mental capability that, among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from experience. It is not merely book learning, a narrow academic skill, or test-taking smarts. Rather, it reflects a broader and deeper capability for comprehending our surroundings- "catching on", "making sense" of things, or "figuring out" what to do. Chastain (1988, p. 43) refers to the definition of intelligence proposed by Wagner and Sternberg (1985). They discuss three conceptions of intelligence and the implications for education. The first, *psychometric view* equates intelligence with mental capacity and accepts the position that by means of carefully prepared tests educators can measure that mental ability and use the results to rank learners according to their ability. The second, the *Piagetian view*, defines intelligence in terms of stages of development based on maturity, experiences in the physical environment, expressed in the social environment, and the individual self-regulatory processes. The third, the *information processing view*, focuses on the way the brain represents and processes information. The first two views have to do with the brain's capacity; the third deals with what the brain does during learning. Ellis (2008) points out that "intelligence, working memory, and language aptitude are clearly all closely linked. They all refer to cognitive capacities and the difference between their conceptualizations lies largely in how broad and how language-specific the terms are" (p. 649). Sternberg (1985, 2002) distinguishes three types of intelligence – analytical (the ability to analyze, compare, and evaluate), creative (the ability to produce novel solutions to problems), and practical (the capacity to adapt, to shape, and to select environments suited to one's abilities). Gardner (1983**,** p.81) defines "intelligence as the ability to solve problems or to create fashion products that are valued within one or more cultural settings". This definition challenged the traditional psychological view of intelligence as a single capacity that drives logical and mathematical thought. In the same direction, Gardner (1993) described intelligence as a bio-psychological potential that could be influenced by experience, culture, and motivational factors. Elsewhere, Gardner (2009, p. 323) defines intelligence as " a set of skills of problem-solving enabling the individual to resolve genuine problems or difficulties that he or she encounters…, to create an effective product, and … the potential for finding or creating problems – thereby laying the groundwork for the acquisition of new knowledge".

III. Multiple Intelligences (MI) Theory

The theory of multiple intelligences was proposed by Howard Gardner in 1983. Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences (MI) proposes a means to understanding the many ways in which human beings are intelligent; that is, how we process, learn, and remember information. Gardner (1983) states that while individuals are capable of processing information in at least seven different ways; each individual varies in the degree of skill possessed in each of these intelligences. He identifies seven categories of skills and abilities which he considers to be individual intelligences: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal and intrapersonal. He believes that these discrete abilities operate together in complex ways, and provide a much more comprehensive view of what constitutes human intelligence. Of course, later he added an eight and a ninth type to the list namely naturalistic and existential intelligences. Through the theory of multiple intelligences, we can seek to address students' diverse intelligences by creating individualized learning environments. The main focus of this theory is on the content and products of learning. An interesting aspect of this theory is that intelligences that are different can still be easily identified through common life experiences (Gardner, 1993). Educators are always concerned about what educational methods can benefit the learners the most. Gardner's (1993) Multiple Intelligences Theory is potentially one of them. Gardner claimed that educational methods should be created and adjusted to be more flexible for students who have different intellectual capacities, and should be redesigned and rearranged to use the multiple intelligences effectively so that those changes would benefit students, teachers and society. Multiple intelligence theory suggests that there is not just one concrete measure of intelligence and by implication a single way of teaching. Based on Gardner's theory, Chapman and Freeman (1996) draw three implications. Firstly, intelligence can be taught or at least enhanced through teaching. Secondly, intelligences are changing throughout life. Thirdly, the existence of different intelligences that different learners possess results in different learning styles and different needs.

According to Armstrong (2009, p. 27) whether intelligence can develop depends upon three main factors. (1) Biological endowment—including hereditary or genetic factors and insults or injuries to the brain before, during, and after birth. (2) Personal life history—including experiences with parents, teachers, peers, friends, and others who awaken intelligences, keep them from developing, or actively repress them. (3) Cultural and historical background—including the time and place in which you were born and raised and the nature and state of cultural or historical developments in different domains. We can see the interaction of these factors in the life of Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart.

What follows is a brief description of each type of Gardner's multiple intelligences theory provided mostly by Gardner (1983, 1993) and Champen and Freeman (1996). It should be noted that it is not assumed that each type of

intelligence is ever active in isolation. Gardner (1993) indeed suggests that during a learning episode it will be normal for a number of intelligences to be used together. In fact, he suggests that all intelligences are needed to function productively in society.

A. Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence

Gardner has described Linguistic intelligence as sensitivity to spoken and written language and the ability to use language to accomplish goals, as well as the ability to learn new languages. Linguistic intelligence is our ability to speak to each other in our daily conversation, or write a letter to someone, or perform any verbal activity. This intelligence includes the ability to manipulate the syntax or structure of language, the phonology or sounds of language, the semantics or meanings of language, and the pragmatic dimensions or practical uses of language. According to Gardner (1993), lawyers, public speakers, writers, and poets all possess high levels of linguistic intelligence. If students want to develop their linguistic intelligences while focusing on language learning, they can consider doing the following activities:

- Browse the library or bookstores regularly.
- Keep a diary.
- Play word game.
- Memorize a favorite song, poem, or story.
- Get together with friends and take turns to read the parts of a play.

B. Logical/Mathematical Intelligence

Gardner (1993) described logical/mathematical intelligence as the ability to study problems, to carry out mathematical operations logically and analytically, and to conduct scientific investigations. Gardner identified mathematicians, logicians, and scientists as persons who would possess high levels of this hypothesized intelligence. The kinds of processes used in the service of logical-mathematical intelligence include categorization, classification, inference, generalization, calculation, and hypothesis testing. People who prefer to use their logical-mathematical intelligence usually do well on standardized comprehension/written language tests. They like to solve abstract problems and often do so by trial and error. If students want to develop their logical/mathematical intelligence with particular focus on language learning, they can consider doing the following:

- Watch television shows about science.
- Visit the local science museum.
- Sequence events into story line.
- Carry and use technology calculators and games.
- Read about famous scientists and their discoveries, or detectives' stories.

C. Spatial/Visual Intelligence

This intelligence involves sensitivity to color, line, shape, form, space, and the relationships that exist between these elements. Spatial intelligence is the ability to comprehend mental models, manipulate and model them spatially and draw them in detail. People who prefer to use this kind of intelligence would rather draw a paragraph than write a paragraph. If students want to develop their spatial intelligences while focusing on language learning, they can consider doing the following activities:

- Work on Jigsaw puzzles involving language.
- Take a filmmaking class.
- Cut out favorite pictures from magazines and make a collage.
- Pay close attention to the television advertisement, films and videos they see.

D. Musical Intelligence

It is our ability to sing a song or chant to the tune of a radio melody. We often use this type of intelligence to alleviate stress, but musical intelligence may also make some students more attuned to accent and pitch in language study. People who are musically intelligent can usually hear music in their heads and learn song quickly. They like to play some musical instrument or spend hours listening to music on the radio or CDs. If students want to develop their musical intelligences within language learning, they can consider doing the following activities:

- Go to concerts with friends and families.
- Make a tape or CD of their favorite songs.
- Keep a record of all the music they hear during the day.
- Sing English songs in the shower.
- Listen to different kinds of music.

E. Bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence involves our ability to use the body to express feelings or desires. The Total Physical Response (TPR) approach to language teaching relies on the use of bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. People with this

intelligence often choose careers as athletes, dancers, actors, models, mimes and so on. If students want to develop their bodily-kinesthetic intelligence with particular focus on language learning they can choose doing the following activities:

- Play sports in their neighborhood.
- Enroll in dance, drama or poetry class.
- Mime or act out a story.
- Learn cooking, gardening, woodworking, or car mechanics.

F. Interpersonal Intelligence

Interpersonal intelligence is expressed in our human relationships where we cooperate with each other or agree or disagree with each other. Gardner stated that teachers, clinicians, salespeople, politicians, and religious leaders all use interpersonal intelligence. The trait of interpersonal intelligence is the most common intelligence foreign language teachers use. Kagan (2000) suggests that these skills can be activated by cooperative learning structures. If students want to develop their interpersonal intelligence with particular focus on language learning they can choose doing the following activities:

- Join some clubs at school or in their neighborhood.
- Have a party or invite one or two people they do not know very well.
- Interact with at least one person (out of class) each day.
- Be a people watcher. Go to a busy place where English is likely to be used and spend time watching people interact with one another.

G. Intrapersonal Intelligence

Intrapersonal intelligence, as conceptualized by Gardner, includes the awareness of one's own desires, fears, and abilities, and also using this information to make sound life decisions. Intrapersonal intelligence allows us to be independent, appreciate time alone, and be self-reflective. Intrapersonal intelligence, as described by Gardner, is also somewhat related to metacognition in general and to the ability to self-monitor in particular. That is, the individuals with high intrapersonal ability should be aware of what they know as well as what they do not know. People with this kind of intelligence often become therapists, writers, and religious leaders. If students want to develop their intrapersonal intelligence with particular focus on language learning they can choose doing the following activities:

- Think about their goals and their hopes for future.
- Attend religious services.
- Record their thoughts and feelings in a daily journal.
- Engage in activities that make them feel more confident about themselves.
- List strengths of their language learning and areas in which they need assistance.

H. Naturalistic Intelligence

Gardner (1999) described a naturalist as one who is able to recognize and classify objects. According to Gardner, hunters, farmers, and gardeners would have high levels of naturalistic intelligence, as would artists, poets, and social scientists, who are also adept at pattern-recognition. As described above, a central element of Gardner's naturalistic intelligence is the capacity to categorize objects according to salient similarities and differences among them. This ability is critically involved in the generation of meaningful taxonomies of both living and non-living objects.

People who use this intelligence often are always concerned with observing, classifying, and understanding the parts of the physical environment as well as showing understanding of natural phenomena. If students want to develop their naturalistic intelligence with particular focus on language learning they can consider doing the following:

- Be involved in a hobby that includes nature such as watching a bird.
- Enjoy studying environment, nature, plants and animals.
- Read books and magazines or watch television shows or movies that feature nature.
- Talk about favorite pets or preferred natural places to their classmates or friends.

I. Existential Intelligence

Gardner (1999) considered existential intelligence as the intelligence of understanding in a large context or big picture. It is the capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why we die, what my role is in the world. This intelligence seeks connections to real world and allows learners to see their place in the big picture and to observe their roles in the classroom, society and the world or the universe. Existential intelligence includes aesthetic, philosophy, and religion and emphasizes the classical values of beauty, truth and goodness. Those with a strong existential intelligence have the ability to summarize and synthesize ideas from across a broad unit of study.

IV. Multiple Intelligences Domains

According to McKenzie (2002) multiple intelligences consist of three domains: the analytical, introspective and interactive domains. These three domains serve as an organizer for understanding the fluid relationship of the

intelligences and how the intelligences work with one another. Teachers can plan lessons and units which effectively address all of the intelligences in the classroom. Figure 1. below presents the three domains.

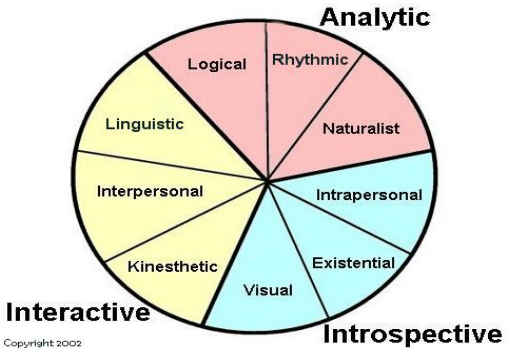

Figure 1. Multiple Intelligences Domains

What follows is a presentation of each domain and its sub-branches in details.

A. The Analytical Domain

According to McKenzie (2002), the analytic domain consists of the logical, musical and naturalist intelligences. These are the intelligences that promote analysis of knowledge that is presented to the learner. These three intelligences are considered analytic because they promote the processes of analyzing and incorporating data into existing schema, even though they may have other components. The analytical intelligences are by their nature heuristic processes.

B. The Interactive Domain

McKenzie (2002) indicates that the interactive domain consists of the linguistic, interpersonal and kinesthetic intelligences. These are the intelligences that learners typically employ to express themselves and explore their environment. These three intelligences are regarded as interactive because they typically invite and encourage interaction to achieve understanding. Even if a student completes a task individually, s/he must consider others through the way s/he writes, creates, constructs and makes conclusion. The interactive intelligences are by their nature social processes (McKenzie, 2002).

C. The Introspective Domain

The introspective domain consists of existential, intrapersonal, and visual intelligences. These are the intelligences that have a distinctly affective component to them. These intelligences are characterized as introspective because they require a looking inward by the learner, an emotive connection to their own experiences and beliefs in order to make sense of new learning. The introspective intelligences are by their nature affective processes (McKenzie, 2002).

These domain classification indicates that intelligence consists of different constructs supporting the idea of Gardner and his colleagues that there are different types of intelligences.

D. SLA Approaches to Intelligence

As it was mentioned earlier, during the history of language teaching and learning, many approaches to SLA have been proposed each one looking at the phenomenon of language learning from a different perspective. One of the important issues which have drawn the attention of many theories is intelligence. Due to the importance of intelligence as a significant individual characteristic which affect the process of SLA, different theories have given a different definition as well as a different role to this factor.

With regard to this point, the approach of *behaviorism* throws out any and all concept of consciousness, awareness, thought, will, etc., because the behaviorists believe that if it "can't be seen in a test tube" or "quantified" in some way then it doesn't exist. This is absurd because each of us knows fully well that we are conscious, have thoughts, act on will and are aware. The theories and practices of behaviorism are anti-mind and anti-spiritual. This denial and suppression of man's mind is the actual reason for much of what is wrong in modern societies. When the mind is denied so is everything that emanates from it , including ideas, thought, reason, hope, creativity, imagination, will, intention, awareness, consciousness, responsibility, attention, and morality. They attribute particular importance to “verbal behavior”, because speech enable behaviorist theory to deal with such mentalistic concepts as “thinking” which is reinterpreted as subvocal verbalization (Watson, 1919, cited in Stern 1983, p. 293). They discard the "being" part of the "human being", keeping only the "human" or animal part. The term by itself displays the concept that we are each a combination of two notions: the physical, human, or animal part, and the invisible mind, being or spiritual part. The things such as creativity, reason, intelligence, understanding, communication, and responsibility come solely from the mind. Their methods are used to change the behavior only by imitation and reinforcement. Behavior should be altered by appealing to reason, intelligence, and one's observational abilities, with the result of personally making decisions, setting goals, and using intention to control one's self-determined actions (i.e. behavior). This depends on open communication between thinking beings.

The other psychology of learning is *Cognitivism*. Cognitivists believe in the "single intelligence" based upon the unilinear construct of "general intelligence"; that intelligence is a true, heritable, biologically-based mental faculty that can be studied by measuring a person's reaction to cognitive tasks. Cognitivists who believe in information processing view of intelligence imagine that language aptitude is due to intelligence in general and argue that students with high intelligence learn faster and better and also their language skills are generally superior to those of less gifted children.

Genetic researches have also shown the potential complexity of the human genetic landscape. According to "*generalist genes hypothesis*" proposed by Plomin et al. (2007, cited in Dornyei, 2009**,** p. 193), one of the most important recent findings from quantitative genetic research has been the observation that the same set of genes is largely responsible for genetic influence across a broad area of academic abilities. It was found that most genes associated with a particular learning ability (e.g. reading) would also be associated with other learning abilities such as mathematics, and even between relatively distant domains such as English and mathematics. Moreover, some genes associated with learning abilities and disabilities in general appear to have a broader impact, encompassing other cognitive abilities such as memory and spatial ability. Brody (2005, p. 121) points out that although the heritability of general intelligence implies genetic links, not many of the specific genes responsible for this intelligence factor have been identified, and neither has it been established how heritable dispositions interact with the social structures that influence social outcomes.

Another approach to the study of language learning is *Socioculturalism.* It believes in Triarchic theory of intelligence proposed by Sternberg (1985) that provides a more comprehensive description of intellectual competence than traditional differential or cognitive theories. This theory argues about three aspects of intelligence Analytic, Creative, and Practical intelligence. It is not against the validity of "g" factor; instead, the theory posits that general intelligence is part of analytic intelligence, and only by considering all three aspects of intelligence can the full range of intellectual functioning be fully understood. More recently, the triarchic theory has been updated and renamed the Theory of Successful Intelligence by Sternberg (2002). The three aspects of intelligence are referred to as processing skills.

Constructivism and developmental approach to the study of intelligence also believe in the impact of intelligence on learning a language. According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, intelligence is the basic and main mechanism of ensuring equilibrium in the relations between the person and the environment. This is achieved through the actions of the developing person on the world. Piaget (1972) described four main periods or stages in the development towards completely equilibrated thought and problem solving. In terms of Ausubel's meaningful learning model, high intelligence would no doubt imply a very efficient process of storing items that are particularly useful in building conceptual hierarchies and systematically pruning those that are not useful. But in relating intelligence to second language learning, is it simply that an intelligent person will be able to learn a second language more successfully because of greater general intelligence? In the section below, the role and the effect of intelligence in SLA will be discussed in more details.

V. Intelligence and SLA

Based on traditional definition, intelligence may have little to do with one's success as a second language learner. People with a wide range of IQs have proven to be successful in acquiring a second language. Traditionally, schools have emphasized the development of logical intelligence and linguistic intelligence (mainly reading and writing). While many students function well in this environment, there are those who do not (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 346). Dornyei (2009, p. 60) argues that when intelligence tests were first introduced at the beginning of the 20th century, nobody really knew what they were measuring except that they worked because they were effective in separating bright and slow children in schools. Distinguishing three types of intelligence – analytical (the ability to analyze, compare, and evaluate), creative (the ability to produce novel solutions to problems), and practical (the capacity to adapt, to shape, and to select environments suited to one abilities) intelligence, Sternberg (2002), argues that intelligence tests have generally targeted analytic and, to a lesser extent, creative intelligence because teaching methods have typically emphasized these.

Gardner (1983) attached other important attributes to the notion of intelligence that could be crucial to second language success. He proposed a controversial theory of intelligence. Gardner's theory of MI belongs to the group of instructional philosophies that focus on the differences between learners and the need to recognize learner differences in teaching. He also addresses the question whether traditional IQ tests are truly scientific. Gardner argues that traditional definition of intelligence in psychometrics (IQ tests) does not sufficiently describe the wide variety of cognitive abilities humans display. He argues that psychometric tests address only linguistic and logical plus some aspects of spatial intelligence. He argues that students will be better served by a broader vision of education, wherein teachers use different methodologies, exercises and activities to teach all students, not just those who excel at linguistic and logical intelligence.

The application of the theory of multiple intelligences varies widely. It runs the gamut from a teacher who, when confronted with a student having difficulties, uses a different approach to teach the material, to an entire school using MI as a framework. When humanism started to have a decisive impact on education in the 1960s, the conventional, authoritative teacher-centered instruction gave way to the learner-centered mode of instruction. Educators began paying more attention to the impact of affective factors such as feelings, emotions, anxiety, frustration, motivation, and

confidence on the process of learning (Lin, 2000). There has also been a maturing of some innovative English Language Teaching approaches, methods, and techniques over the last 20 years. Every English Language Teaching method or technique with its specific emphasis has been developed to meet students' different needs or interest. These approaches can be linked to Gardner's (1993) intention of developing or using different kinds of intelligences. The Silent Way, for example, emphasizes the development of students' inner thinking (intrapersonal intelligence). Total Physical Response, however, emphasizes language learning through physical action (bodily/kinesthetic intelligence). Suggestopedia uses drama and visual aids as keys to unlock a student's learning potential; in this approach music plays the greatest role in facilitating learning (musical intelligence). Both the Communicative Approach and Cooperative Learning seem to place its greatest emphasis upon the importance of interpersonal relationship (interpersonal intelligence) to language learning. Yet specific activities can involve students in each of the other intelligences as well. Similarly, Whole Language learning has at its core the cultivation of linguistic intelligence. It is suggested here that MI theory can provide a way for all teachers to reflect upon their best teaching methods, and to figure out the reason why some methods they use work well for some students but not for others. It also may help teachers expand their current teaching repertoire to include a broader range of techniques, materials, and methods for reaching an ever wider and more various range of learners, since it may be that some students have not responded well in the past because their preferred intelligences were not being stimulated by the teaching approach used (Armstrong, 2000; Lin, 2000).

As it is seen, the MI theory has an important role in education, in general, and in language teaching and learning, in specific. The principles of multiple intelligences offered by Gardner are: (1) Emphasis on the development of certain intelligences; (2) Utilizing of all intelligences in developing different teaching methods; (3) Based on the concept of multiple intelligences, instructors should review lesson plans and ensure they have variety, fairness and richness; (4) Provide students with the opportunity to choose learning activities and assessment methods; (5) Provide students with the opportunity to use the dominant intelligences to develop the weaker intelligences; (6) Use the intelligences to fully comprehend broad subjects (Gardner, 1983). Furthermore, the importance of the multiple intelligences in education has been counted: (1) Highlighting uniqueness of each student; (2) Bring out the students' dominant intelligences; (3) Dominant intelligence helps learning; (4) Variety of learning experiences; (5) Multiple intelligences teaching; (6) Variety of assessment methods; (7) Variety of means of expression (Hoerr, 2000).

On the other hand, some other researchers have concentrated on the problems with this theory. For instance, Troub (1998, cited in Brody, 2010) notes that Gardner's system has not been accepted by most academics in intelligence or teaching. Many psychologists (i.e. Klein, 1988**,** p. 106) feel that a differentiation of the concept of intelligence is not supported by empirical evidence, but many educationalists support the practical value of the approaches suggested by the theory.

Also, Sternberg (1988, p. 42, cited in Brody, 2010) calls MI model "a theory of talents, not one of intelligences", arguing that Gardner is not expanding the definition of the word "intelligence", rather, he denies the existence of intelligence as traditionally understood and instead uses the word "intelligence" whenever other people have traditionally used words like "ability".

Another criticism of Gardner's theory is that it is fundamentally ambiguous because it has three paradoxes: (1) there are several relatively independent, coherent content-specific cognitive modules, called intelligences, (2) these intelligences interact, operating on one another's contents, and (3) each intelligence consists of sub-intelligences that can operate independently. This ambiguity leads to a kind of ambiguity that makes it difficult, perhaps impossible, to either prove or deny MI theory; in Popperian terms, it is unfalsifiable (Klein, 1988, p. 105).

In another effort, Goleman (1995, p. 291, cited in Brown, 2000, p. 101) proposes emotional theory and explains about the bias of traditional definitions and tests of general intelligence, puts emotion at the highest level up a hierarchy of human abilities and argues that "the emotional mind is far quicker than the rational mind".

VI. Concluding Remarks

As mentioned earlier, individual cognitive and affective factors like aptitude, introversion/extroversion, field-independent/field-dependent, motivation, empathy, anxiety, self-confidence, self-regulation, inhibition, and many others have an important influence on the speed and ease of second language learning and this is why some people are more successful language learners while others are not. In the same direction, one of the important individual factors which was discussed in detail through this literature is intelligence. It is proper to regard intelligence as the correct term to characterize the innate, genetically endowed ability. Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences theory consisting of at least seven categories is shown to be significant in relation to both language teaching and learning. According to Smith (2001) as a theoretical construct the theory of Multiple Intelligences suggests an explanation for intelligence which embraces human diversity and emphasizes the importance of the cultural contexts within which intelligence operates. At the cognitive level, Multiple Intelligences theory develops a framework which assists in explaining individual variations in adult second language learning proficiency. Despite the fact that there are many different definitions of intelligence and its effect on second language learning, we can conclude that there is clear evidence on the relationship between intelligence as a cognitive factor and second language acquisition. Mitchell and Myles (2004) state "second language students who are above average of formal measures of intelligence or general academic attainment tend to do well in second language learning, at least in formal classroom settings" (p. 25). Gardner's theory of multiple

intelligences, as it was shown, is very closely related to language teaching and has certain applications for teachers. With regard to classroom instruction, teachers should provide conditions that encourage students to use all kinds of intelligence. Although some students might prefer to use just certain types, teachers should recognize and teach to a broader range of talents and skills that depend on a variety of intelligences. Since teachers themselves might have preferences for certain intelligences, one important implication of MI theory is for teachers to start identifying their own intelligence profiles so that they can determine their best or preferred teaching strategies taking into account human differences. After identifying their own intelligence preferences and the impact this may have on their teaching, the second implication is to profile the students. Christison (1998) found that the more awareness the learners have of their intelligence profile, the more they are able to utilize this knowledge in their future learning. Teachers can also take advantage of exercises, activities, techniques and materials that help provoke their students' intelligences and thus encouraging them to make use of different intelligences in the process of learning. Another implication of MI theory for teachers is that by paying attention to all kinds of intelligence, teachers can try to design a syllabus taking advantage of a variety of games, stories, music, images as well as different tools and materials intended to mix all intelligences. This, in turn, is useful for teachers in that they can awaken all kinds of intelligences in their students. Also, it helps strengthen the creativity in teachers in that it frees teachers from relying just on textbooks and encourage them to design a syllabus appropriate at the level of their students.

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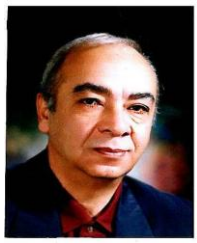

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Empirical Study on the Effects of Noticing in EFL*

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***Abstract*—Following an initial investigation (Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, & Fearnow, 1999), this study aims to test the noticing function of output, produced by Swain (1993, 1995, 1998). Participants were divided into two experimental groups and one control group. The first experimental group was given opportunities for output, the second experimental group engaged in comprehension-based activities, and the control group performed nothing during this phase. The results of this study indicate no unique effects of output compared with answering the true-or-false comprehension questions. A closer examination of the data collected from an interview, which is aimed to find out the participants' attentional focus during the treatment, further suggests that retelling as a form of output does not always succeed in drawing the learners' attention to the target form, but to other aspects such as vocabulary; phrases in the input material.**

***Index Terms*—output, noticing function, EFL**

I. Introduction

Focus-on-form treatment, has received some theoretical support from SLA literatures. A general finding by the researchers (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990; and Truscott, 1998) indicates that attention is necessary for learning to take place. That is to say people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to. .

Schmidt (1990, 1995) and Schmidt have proposed the Noticing Hypothesis. Schmidt and Frota (1986, p. 311) offer a "notice the gap principle" which is aimed to state " a second language learner will begin to acquire the target like form if and only if it is present in comprehended in input and `noticed' in the normal sense of the word, that is consciously". Schmidt claims that noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning (as cited in Izumi & Bigelow, 2000). Gass (1988) also asserts that noticing is the first stage of language acquisition, and Sharwood Smith (1981) and Rutherford (1987) advocate that noticing a feature in the input is an essential first step in language processing.

Noticing, according to Schmidt, requires focal attention and awareness on the part of the learner, and subliminal learning cannot account for SLA processes (as cited in Izumi & Bigelow, 2000). Intake, according to Schmidt, is that part of the input that the learner notices. It means that input indicates perceived information whereas intake indicates the information which is noticed by the learner. Based on this distinction, he proposes that intake, or noticing linguistic forms, is critical to subsequent processing of the forms.

Noticing is of considerable theoretical importance because it accounts for which features in the input are attended to and so become intake (information stored in temporary memory which may or may not be subsequently accommodated in the interlanguage system). Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggest that for noticed input, to become intake, learners have to carry out a comparison of what they have observed in the input and what they themselves are typically producing on the basis of their current interlanguage system. They refer to this as "noticing the gap", and argue that this too is a conscious process.

The present study investigates the potentially facilitative effects of internal attention drawing device-output-on the acquisition of past hypothetical conditional in English by second language learners. Of the four functions of output specified in the output hypothesis, the present study focuses on the noticing function. The most important reason of our focus on the noticing function of output is that this function of output has significant theoretical and pedagogical implications. In theory, the noticing function of output is closely related to the issue of noticing in SLA; in pedagogy, although learner's output is a prevalent feature of many language teaching practices, yet, to be exact, whether and how it helps with language learning has often been assumed rather than vigorously tested and investigated. Therefore more empirical investigation in this area is urgently needed.

II. The Present Study

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Research Hypothesis

This study is a partial replication of Izumi et al.'s (1999) study. However, his participants are two college-level academic writing classes with different first language backgrounds, whereas our participants are first-year college students in China. In Izumi et al's (1999) study, target form is not explicitly explained in any form in the input material, whereas in the present study, the target form imbedded in the input is given prominence by using measures such as bolding or underlining, and also explicitly explained in written form. Izumi is interested in whether output would promote noticing of linguistic form as well as whether output resulted in the improved performance on the target form. We, however, design two experimental groups differing with regard to treatments, and aim to decide which treatment does better in noticing the target form and consequently is more conducive to SLA.

Two research hypotheses in this paper are generated as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Output in the form of retelling will promote noticing of formal elements in the target language input.

Hypothesis 2: Experimental Group 1, which is required to retell a passage, will perform better in noticing the target grammatical form contained in the input than Experimental Group 2, which does not produce output but instead answers true-or-false comprehension questions.

III. Methodology

1. Target Form

The past hypothetical conditional in English is the target form for this study (e.g., You wouldn't have caught cold if you had put on more clothes.). Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) note that conditional sentences in general, and hypothetical or counterfactual conditionals often cause problems for many ESL learners. Conditional sentences consist of two clauses: an if-clause and a main clause. The structure is quite complex because mastery of this structure requires a good grasp of the English tense system and the modal auxiliaries. This is the reason to choose this target form in the present study. Besides, all the participants have demonstrated in the pretest that they have gaps when they use the target form. So it suggests that this form is not completely new to them, but all of them still have problems using the form accurately.

Some examples of the multiple choices that are produced by the participants in the pretest are as follows:

(1) If you D- a peep hole in your door you would have seen who was standing
outside and kept the door shut.
A. have B. have been having C. had had D. have had
(2) I was too busy yesterday, otherwise I B to see you.
A. would come B. would have come C. come D. came
(3) If I B rubbed gloves on I would have been electrocuted.
A. had not had B. have not had
C had not been having D. have not been having

Such emergence of the knowledge of target form may indicate a certain readiness to learn the form, because many of the participants already attempt to use it in a meaningful way.

2. Participants

Participants for the study (N=117) were recruited from among students enrolled in the ESL programs at a university in China. The selection of the participants was determined on the basis of a test of the past hypothetical conditional in English. This test also served as the pretest for the participating subjects. 117 participants took the pretest, and 92 satisfied the teachability requirements. This requirement, framed as the Teachability Hypothesis by Pienemann (1989), holds that teachers must be familiar with the order and sequence of acquisition that learners in general manifest and with the developmental stage that individual learners have reached.

In this study, 90 participants agreed to participate in the study and completed the following treatments and the two posttests. Participants were assigned to two experimental groups (EG1, N1=30; EG2, N2=30) and a control group (CC; N3=30), using a random assignment procedure. Experimental groups completed all the treatments and posttests and the control group only received the treatment of input, reading the text without any task and the final posttests.

3. Testing instrument

Multiple-choice recognition test: In both the pretest and posttests, multiple-choice recognition test in the written form was used. The test consisted of 10 target items and 10 distractors in a multiple-choice format. Five of the target items began with an if-clause, and five with a main clause. A blank targeting a target form is left either in the if-clause or in the main clause.

Retrospective interview: In order to find out the participants' attentional focus during the treatment, an interview was administered immediately after the delayed posttest. 5 participants were selected randomly from each experimental group to receive the interview.

4. Procedure

Experimental Sequence

TABLE 1

Day1: Pretest (30 minutes)
Day3: Phase 1: Receiving explicit written form of input (10 minutes)
Phase 2:
EGl: Reading the text embedded with the target form, and retelling the text (30 minutes)
EG2: Reading the text embedded with the target form, and answering true-or-false comprehension questions (30 minutes)
CG: Reading the text embedded with the target form, but performing nothing (30 minutes)
Immediate Posttest (30 minutes)
Day 16: Delayed Posttest (30 minutes)
Interview (60 minutes)

The experimental schedule of the .study is as follows. First, the researcher visited each class and administered the pretest. On the second day, those participants whose scores in the pretest satisfied the requirement were chosen for the study. During this day, EG1 were requested to come to the computer laboratory outside of class hours in order to familiarize themselves with the machine of the lab room, because EG1 were expected to do the retelling task in the following treatment, and they needed to know how to operate the recording system.

On the third day, two phase tasks were completed. EG1 were led to the lab room, and EG2 and CG were in another two separate rooms. Two researchers were allocated in each room to supervise the whole process of the experimental study.

In phase 1, all the participants in the three rooms were given a sheet of input material, containing the use of grammatical structure of past hypothetical conditional in English, with some examples below each annotation of grammatical rule. This input knowledge was not be explained by the researcher, but conveyed explicitly by the handout in which the target structure was enhanced by bolding or underlining. Participants could pay attention to whatever words, phrases, or grammar points they would like, and researchers did not give them any instructions or inform them of any of the following treatments. It took approximately 10 minutes for participants to study the input material, and then the input sheets were taken away by the researcher.

In the phase 2 task, all the participants were given a short passage in which approximately 40% of the sentences contained the past hypothetical conditional form.

For EGl, participants were informed in advance that they would have only a limited amount of time-about 15 minutes to read the text, and about 15 minutes to retell the passage. During the first 15 minutes, they could take notes or underline whatever they believed necessary, and then the passage was taken away by the researcher. After that, EGl were told to perform the retelling task and at the same time they needed to record what they said using the tape recorder in the lab room within 15 minutes.

For EG2, half an hour was given to complete to whole phase. All the participants were asked to read the same passage as EGl's, and they could underline or make any marks on the parts they felt important or necessary for answering the true-or-false comprehension questions. Then EG2 answered those questions written below the passage. When they did the true-or-false comprehension questions, they could refer to the reading material.

For CG, they had 30 minutes to read the same passage, and they could underline whatever part they believed important, but they had no other task. During the phase 2 of the study, participants of 2EGs and CG were required not to have any discussions about the reading material.

This study used retelling as the output treatment, similar to the text-reconstruction task used in the studies of Izumi and Bigelow (2000) and Izumi et al. (1999). There is one significant reason for using the retelling task, that is, retelling task by its very nature has the potential for promoting comparisons between the IL output and the TL input. It is essentially a meaning-based pedagogical activity that allows the participants to devote their attention to the target form. So it is a very important task in light of the notion of focus on form, in which integration of form and meaning is emphasized. In particular, the advantage of the retelling task lies in its control over the content and form that the participants produce. Maximizing the equivalence between participants' output and the target input should promote direct comparisons between their IL output and the TL input forms.

After the treatment period, the researchers administered the immediate posttest. The mean length of the immediate of posttest was about half an hour. After the immediate posttest was completed, the delayed posttest was performed 2 weeks later: It still took approximately 30 minutes, and then we randomly selected and interviewed 5 participants from each of the two EGs to obtain retrospective data '(see Appendix 6) on the cognitive processes engaged in different treatments. The interview took about an hour.

In order to control the outside exposure to the target form, the teachers of the participating classes were requested not to teach past hypothetical conditional during the experimental period, in particular during the period between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest. All teachers accepted and followed this request. Participants were asked not to discuss the treatment activities with other people.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The answer to each target item was scored as either correct or incorrect, and the 10 distractors were eliminated when we counted the scores. After scoring the pretest and immediate as well as delayed posttests, gain scores were calculated

for each participant from the two posttests in order to examine how much improvement had been made on the target form. In the results section that follows, the test scores and the statistical results are reported.

Statistical analysis was carried out with the aid of Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS 11.0). Because there was only one variable (different treatment) in the study, the data were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

FIGURE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE SCORE OF PRETEST
Descriptions

Score

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Internal for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					LowerBound	Upper Bound		
1.00	30	3.9333	1.25762	.22961	3.4637	4.4029	2.00	6.00
2.00	30	3.9667	1.47352	.26903	3.4164	4.5169	2.00	6.00
3.00	30	3.9000	1.21343	.22154	3.4469	4.3531	2.00	6.00
Total	90	3.9333	1.30513	.13757	3.6600	4.2067	2.00	6.00

Figure 1 shows the descriptive scores of the pretest, and it is obvious that the three groups demonstrated almost the same result in this pretest.

FIGURE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE SCORES OF THE IMMEDIATE POSTTEST
Descriptives

Score

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Internal for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					LowerBound	Upper Bound		
1.00	30	7.5000	1.35824	.24798	6.9928	8.0072	4.00	10.00
2.00	30	6.3333	2.21800	.40495	5.5051	7.1615	2.00	10.00
3.00	30	5.2333	2.26949	.41435	4.3859	6.0808	2.00	10.00
Total	90	6.3556	2.17912	.22970	5.8991	6.8120	2.00	10.00

Figure 2 displays the means & standard deviations for each group's immediate posttest (raw scores of the multiple-choice recognition test). It shows that in the multiple-choice recognition test, EGl (mean=7.5000) performed better than EG2 (mean=6.3333), and EG2 gained better result than CG (mean--5.2333).

Comparing the mean score of each group between pretest and immediate posttest, we find that, for EG1, the mean score of pretest is 3.9333 and that of immediate posttest is 7.5000; for EG2, the mean score of pretest is 3.9667 and that of immediate posttest is 6.3333; for CQ the mean score of pretest is 3.9000 and that of immediate posttest is 5.2333. The comparison of mean score indicates that for the multiple-choice recognition test, the gain of EGl is larger than either the EG2 or CG: The gain of EG2 is larger than that of the CG

FIGURE 3:
COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUPS ON THE IMMEDIATE TEST
ANOVA

Score

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	77.089	2	38.544	9.705	.000
Within Groups	345.533	87	3.972		
Total	422.622	89			

To make statistical comparisons between groups, the data from the immediate posttest are submitted to one-way ANOVA with treatment as the between-groups factor. For the multiple-choice recognition test, the ANOVA indicated that F=9.705, and p value is .000 to three decimal spaces, less than .05 or. 01, and thus the mean score of the three groups in the immediate posttest is significantly different between groups.

FIGURE 4:
POST HOC TEST
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Score

LSD

(I)实验方法	(J)实验方法	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std Error	Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	1.1667*	.51456	.026	.1439	2.1894
	3.00	2.2667*	.51456	.000	1.2439	3.2894
2.00	1.00	-1.1667*	.51456	.026	-2.1894	-.1439
	3.00	1.1000*	.51456	.035	.0772	2.1228
3.00	1.00	-2.2667*	.51456	.000	-3.2894	-1.2439
	2.00	-1.1000*	.51456	.035	-2.1228	-.0772

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

Figure 4 shows the data analysis of the immediate posttest using Post Hoc Tests which is to test for differences

between all possible pairs of means. The mean score in the immediate posttest between EG1 and CG is significantly different. (p=0.000<0.01). The mean scores between EG2 and EGl; EG2 and CG also differ from each other, but p is 0.026 and 0.035 respectively, less than 0.05, but not less than 0.01.

FIGURE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE SCORE FOR DELAYED POSTTEST
Descriptives

Score

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Internal for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					LowerBound	Upper Bound		
1.00	30	6.9667	1.29943	.23724	6.4815	7.4519	5.00	10.00
2.00	30	6.7667	1.07265	.19584	6.3661	7.1672	5.00	9.00
3.00	30	5.5000	1.25258	.22869	5.0323	5.9677	3.00	9.00
Total	90	6.4111	1.36484	.14387	6.1253	6.6970	3.00	10.00

Figure 5 displays the means and deviations for each group's delayed posttest. Two EGs seem to manifest almost the same performance (mean score of EG1 is 6.9667, and that of EG2 is 6.7667), but they still did better than CG (mean=5.5000). The mean score of EG1 in the delayed posttest decreases compared to the score of the immediate posttest (mean=7.5000), however the mean score of EG2 and CG increases more or less in the delayed posttest, since the mean score of EG2 and CG in the immediate posttest is 6.3333 and 5.2333 respectively.

FIGURE 6:
COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUPS ON THE DELAYED POSTTEST
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups Within Groups Total	37.956 127.833 165.789	2 87 89	18.978 1.469	12.916	.000

Likewise, to make statistical comparisons between groups, the data from the delayed posttest are submitted to one-way ANOVA, with treatment as the between groups factor. For this test, the ANOVA indicates that F=12.916, and p value is still, .000 to three decimal spaces, less than .05 or: 0l, and thus the mean scores of delayed posttest are significantly different between groups.

FIGURE 7:
POST HOE TESTS
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Score

(I)实验方法	(J)实验方法	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std Error	Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	.2000	.31298	.799	.5463	.9463
	3.00	1.4667*	.31298	.000	.7204	2.2130
2.00	1.00	-.2000	.31298	.799	-.9463	.5463
	3.00	1.2667*	.31298	.035	.5204	2.0130
3.00	1.00	-1.4667*	.31298	.000	-2.2130	-.7204
	2.00	-1.2667*	.31298	.000	-2.0130	-.5204

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

Figure 7 shows the investigation of the Post Hoc Tests, which is more precise to test the differences between all possible pairs of group for means. From the above, there is no significant difference between EG1 and EG2 because the p value is .799, more than .05. It means in the delayed posttest, EGl did not perform much better than EG2. However, both the EGs still outperformed CQ which we can see from figure 7 (.000<.05 or .0l). Figure 7 still places EGI and EG2 in the same subset, whose means are not significantly different .from each other. CG is in a different subset, indicating that its mean does differ significantly from the means of the two EGs.

Finally, the overall results of the retrospective interview are briefly reported here. To the first question, "what did you pay attention to most when you read the input material containing the past hypothetical conditional in English", we found that 56% of participants paid attention to the bolding part of the input sheet; 20% of the participants paid attention to the examples of the input knowledge, and 24% of participants focused on the unfamiliar words and phrases of the input.

To the second question of whether the participants of 2EGs noticed the past hypothetical conditional during reading the material, we found that 80% of the participants in EGI paid attention to the target form while only 60% participants in EG2 noticed that target form embedded in the reading material because they said that when they did the true-or-false questions, it seemed that only some of the answers had some concern with the target form.

To the question about their perception of difficulty during EG1's production attempts, 60% of the participants reported that they noticed that their retelling was somewhat different from the target form, but they were unable to reproduce it because of some unfamiliar words, phrases or working memory capability. And 20% of EGI participants reported that they had difficulty in remembering the meaning or vocabulary, and 60% of EGl had difficulty in

remembering the target form.

To the question that in the immediate posttest, how you chose the answers-by paying attention to the input material (explicit input sheet and reading passage) or by paying attention to retelling the passage (for EG1) / answering the true-or-false comprehension questions (for EG2), 60% participants of EGl reported that they benefited a lot from the retelling task and 80% of the participants of EG2 reported that the input material did help a lot when they completed the immediate posttest.

To the last question, 20% of the EGl participants and 20% EG2 could not decide whether their choices in the delayed posttest resulted from the input material or the following treatment, because the time interval was too long between the two posttests. 60% of the EG1 still believed that retelling task helped a lot to promote noticing of the target form and 40% of the EG2 participants reported that the input material impressed them deeply when doing the delayed posttest.

V. Discussion and Conclusion

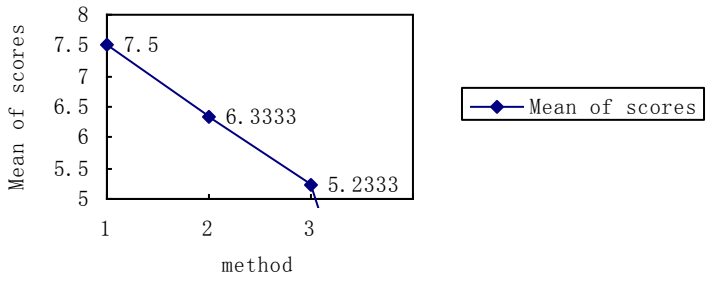

Figure8: Means plot of the three groups in the immediate posttest

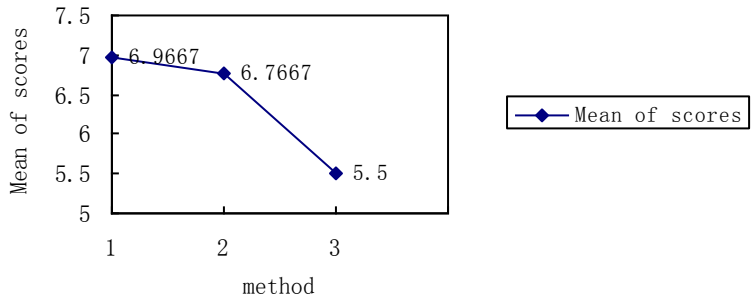

Figure 9 Means plot of three groups in the delayed posttest

To summarize the findings of this study in terms of the two research hypotheses, our results confirmed Hypothesis 1, which predicted the output in the form of retelling would promote the noticing of the formal elements in the target form input. From Figure 4, we see that EGI which received the output treatment performed significantly better than both EG2 and CG which received non-output treatment in the immediate posttest. In the delayed posttest, EGI still did better than CG in noticing the past hypothetical conditional in English.

However, this study only partially supported Hypothesis 2, which predicted that EG1 would perform better than EG2 in the noticing of the past hypothetical conditional. From Chapter 4, we know that in the immediate posttest, the mean score between EG1 and CG was significantly different. ($p=0.000<0.01$), and the mean score of EG1 was significantly higher than that of EG2. It might indicate that EG1 performed much better than EG2 in noticing the target form (see figure 8). However, in the delayed posttest, the two EGs seemed to manifest almost the same performance (see figure 9). There was no significant difference in mean score between these two EGs (see figure 7), which was contrary to our initial expectation.

These two results of the study suggested that retelling task as an output treatment for the EGI did not necessarily trigger the noticing of the target form better than answering true-or-false comprehension questions treatment delivered to the EG2, because there was no significant difference found between the two groups in the delayed posttest, in spite of significant difference in the immediate posttest. Therefore, it cannot be said that retelling as an output is necessarily better at promoting noticing of the target form than answering true-or-false comprehension questions.

Several possible reasons could be considered to account for the results. One was that the treatment period was too short for its effect to manifest itself. In Izumi (2002) study, the output group was given five tasks, containing a total of 46 instances of the target form embedded in them, over a two-week period. In contrast, the present study used two tasks,

with 8 instances of the target form imbedded in the explicit input material and the reading passage, which were given to the participants in less than 3 days. So the duration and the amount of the target form items imbedded in the explicit input material and the reading passage may have contributed to the differences in the results.

In addition, whether the retelling task provided alone could bring about measurable noticing and learning is still an empirical question that needs testing. From the interview, we know that retelling task that targets a specific grammatical structure may promote noticing of the gap, because retelling task maximizes the similarities between the participants' production and the target language model. However, retelling task may often lead different participants to pay attention to different aspects of the reading materiel, such as vocabulary, discourse markers, grammar forms, rhetorical organization, and propositional contents. In other words, if the participants are to complete retelling tasks, they almost need to pay attention to all the aspects of the material. So noticing of the target form may not be a first priority when they do the retelling task.

The true-or-false comprehension task, on the other hand, may have primed the EG2 participants to pay closer attention to the target form. In the language testing literature, comprehension questions have been found to serve as an additional knowledge source that develops the test takers' mental model or meaning construction (Gordon & Hanauer, 1995). The true-or-false comprehension question format used in this study, with its relatively narrow focus and limited options for answering, might have inadvertently caused the EG2 participants to pay greater attention to the target form. For example; to decide whether the statement "At last the farmer planted the tree in a wood. He didn't plant it near the road because he was afraid that strangers would steal the apples " was true or false, the participants had to know that the following sentence from the passage was counterfactural: "If I had planted the tree near the road, strangers would have stolen the apples ". Working with statements such as this one might have promoted more careful attention to and processing of the conditional form in the reading material. Further studies addressing the noticing and learning issues, however, need to be especially careful to prevent inadvertent priming of the comparison group from obscuring possible between-group differences.

Although, compared to answering the true-or-false comprehension questions, the unique effects of the output in the form of retelling in promoting noticing of the target form were not confirmed in the delayed posttest of this study, it is reasonable to assume that producing output might have enhanced the learners' awareness of the inadequacies in their interlanguage performance. In fact, in the immediate posttest, EG1 participants had showed significant improvement on noticing of the target form. However, EG1 were under the heavy cognitive demand of remembering and retelling the given passage accurately in the phase 2 task. It is likely that many of the EGI participants could store the target form in their short-term memory, so EGI performed better and showed significant gain on noticing of the target form in the immediate posttest. However, after a period of time, the high memory load demanded by the retelling tasks was probably too taxing for these EGI partioipants to conduct careful analysis of the target form, so in the delayed posttest, EG1 failed to show greater gain in noticing of the target form than EG2. To some extent,, the retelling requirement of this treatment may have blocked further processing of the target form. If this explanation turned out to be a valid one, it would point to the importance of considering, not only how task facilitates noticing of the form, but also how further processing of the form would be encouraged.

So EGI need to be under relatively low cognitive demand-to retell a relatively simple passage without complicated sentences, unfamiliar words or phrases, but with target forms embedded in it. This is aimed to prevent participants from deviating their attention to other aspects of the passage. If so, it is quite easy for participants to decide which form or which part they need to pay much attention to or notice.

As for true-or-false comprehension questions, in traditional sense, they are not based on form, so learner may just make guesses about the reading material based on the semantic clues to answer the questions even though they encounter the target form that they are not quite clear about. However, in this study, some of the true-or-false comprehension questions were devised as form-based rather than meaning-based, and out of our expectation, these questions have promoted participants of EG2 to pay much attention to the grammatical structure. Therefore, the EG2's performance in the two posttests in this study have revealed that true-or-false comprehension questions, if devised appropriately (i.e., with a focus on form), can also contribute to promoting learners' noticing of the target form.

In addition, one result was also out of our expectation. From figure 1, figure 2 and figure 5, we see that there was gradually an increasing trend in the mean score of CG. This might have just justified, to some extent, the effect of input enhancement on noticing the target form because the treatments that CG received were just studying the explicit input material with the target structure enhanced with bolding and underlining, and then reading a passage. Therefore, input enhancement might still play a role in drawing learners' attention to the target form.

Therefore from the results of this study, it suggests that output does have significant impact on L2 learning, but does not always succeed in drawing the learners' attention to the target grammatical form. Therefore, before conducting an experimental study, researchers and teachers need to make enough preparation and get to know about how to adequately control for learners' otherwise scattered attention if the aim of the research or teaching is to draw learners' attention to a specific form and help them to acquire it.

As for the second research hypothesis, in the present study, only retelling task for EGlwas employed as the output treatment, and we expected that retelling task would prompt more noticing of the target form than answering true-or-false comprehension questions. However, certain factors concerning the retelling task and answering

true-or-false comprehension questions were not well controlled, so some unexpected experimental results emerged.

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Translation of Ellipsis as a Stylistic Feature: Hemingway's *The Old Man and the Sea* and Its Persian Translations

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***Abstract*—Ellipsis, as a cohesive device in a text, has to be considered as an index of style in a literary text, hence a challenge for the literary translator who is supposed to render faithfully the style as the author's unique voice and the text's identity. This article aims at investigating the strategies adopted by Persian translators to render the elliptical patterns of Hemingway's masterpiece *The Old Man and the Sea*. It also tries to examine the effectiveness of using such strategies regarding the linguistic features of the target language. The model for analyzing the instances of ellipsis is that of the 8 main categories of frequent elliptical patterns as defined by Quirk et al (1985). Considering that English and Persian function quite similarly in most of these categories, it seems that the strategy of literal translation would be fairly efficacious in rendering this stylistic feature; also, expansion would help in cases where the two languages differ. The results showed that keeping the original style as closely as possible a few loyal translations have negotiated the two linguistic systems in terms of elliptical patterns. However, most Persian translators, inattentive to the style of the text have tended to interpret the pattern and expand the text, or simply delete the elliptical element whereby depriving the target reader from enjoying the author's genuine art.**

Index Terms*—ellipsis, literary translation, style, stylistics, *The Old Man and the Sea

I. Introduction

"The study of translation is assuming a high profile, and what is remarkable is that this is happening not only in the traditional centers of the west, but world-wide" (Hatim, 2001, p. 9). In recent decades translations have proliferated in Iran. Literary translations account for a large part of this proliferation.

Karim Emami (1993), an Iranian translator and translation scholar, considers the act of translation as passing through a slippery narrow pass. Could one, he asks, walk a tightrope without any hazards? (p.33). Thus, a sophisticated translator, as the messenger, is supposed to explore the vast domain of ST, experience the unknown and find the safest way back home.

The literary translator has to face the double challenge of both rendering the content and form. Due to the fact that style is the very soul of an author's expression, understanding it and trying to render it as closely as possible is imperative in literary translation. But how style-conscious should a literary translator be? Fidelity is often cited as the measure of a successful translation. Weshler (1998), for instance, states that "fidelity is the most basic ethical term in translation" (p. 58). The necessity of fidelity to the style of a writer is of course taken for granted. But it is more preached about than practiced, as we are going to exemplify in the case of Persian translations of Hemingway.

Ernest Hemingway frequently uses elliptical patterns in his stories as an important feature of his style. His powerful style-forming mastery of the art of modern narration is evidenced in *The Old Man and the Sea* (Carey, 1973). Of his own style, he says that it is more suggestive than direct. The reader either has to use his imagination or lose the most subtle part of his thought (p. 55).

II. Background of the Study

Literature and translation, two old companions, have been the subjects of numerous studies. As Habib puts it, "it has become indisputably clear that the study of humanities in general is no longer a luxury but a necessity, vital to our very survival as an enlightened civilization" (p. 1). Literature plays a vital role in negotiation among civilizations that can be reborn through the complicated process known as translation. In the words of Landers (2001), "a myriad of fine pieces of literature appearing in hundreds of languages is of the best argument for doing literary translations" (p. 5). Literary translation, particularly, plays a vital role in creating a rapprochement among cultures. Also it is a means of enriching

literatures and cultures. In a complex work of literature, decisions made by the translator may unfold those of the author in the original work. This means that the translator hazards deviating from TL norms. Jones (2000) sees the translator as an ambassador who mediates between nations, representing the interests of his or her own country, but in a consonant manner with the understanding and outlook of the host country.

Literary translation has mostly presupposed a certain notion of `literariness' within which it has been able to mark off its boundaries and to distinguish its sanctions, methods and approaches to its subject. In this regard, textual constituents tie together to make a dynamic environment that can change over time. However, with divergent interpretations of an individual text, the resonance of the original and its translated versions are never totally congruent and as a result, the notion of exact translation seems to be a debatable one. "Since no two languages are identical, either in the meanings given to corresponding symbols or in the ways in which such symbols are arranged in phrases and sentences, it stands to reason that there can be no absolute correspondence between two languages. Hence, there can be no fully exact translation" (Nida, cited in Venuti, 2004, p. 153). All in all, characterized by the openness and the complexity of man's experiences, a work of literature finds its identity through the mixture of form and content that needs to be highlighted during the process of translating and recreating a literary counterpart in TL.

Nabokov (cited in Venuti, 2000) believes that "the person, who desires to turn a literary masterpiece into another language, has only one duty to perform, and this is to reproduce with absolute exactitude the whole text and nothing but the text" (p. 121).

As language serves as a medium of communication as well as a means of shaping one's thoughts, style is viewed as the correspondence between thought and expression. Paired with the content the style of a work is essential and elemental. As Toolan (1990) puts it, "a general principle is asserted, namely that surface forms are systematically and predictably relatable to underlying abstract semantic contents" (p. 7). Style, then, is not superfluous decoration but rather a vehicle of meaning. As such, the art of the author manifests itself in communicating the richness of viewpoints, feelings and impressions that are not necessarily directly expressed. The challenge in literary translation is simply the choice among various means of rendering the original in a way as to exhibit these aspects through the target version. In this connection, Benjamin (cited in Venuti, 2004) contends that "A real translation is transparent; it does not cover the original, does not black its light, but allows the pure language, as though reinforced by its own medium to shine upon the original all the more carefully" (p. 81).

Hemingway's fiction is famous for its inimitable style. As Adams (1939) puts it, "no American writer of his generation has been more talked about than Ernest Hemingway. None has exerted a comparable influence upon still younger writers, none has raised higher hopes or caused greater misgivings regarding his future" (p. 87). Hemingway received the Nobel Prize for "his powerful style-forming mastery of the art of modern narration, evidenced in *the Old Man and the Sea*" (Carey, 1973: 8). Bloom (1987) considers him as "an elegant poet, who mourns the self, who celebrates the self (rather less effectively), and who suffers divisions in the self" (p. 3). His effect on literature of his own era and after is indisputable. Discussing *The Old Man and the Sea*, Carey (1973) quotes Hemingway on fiction: "A writer's style should be direct and personal, his imagery rich and earthy, and, his words simple and vigorous. The greatest writers have the gift of brilliant brevity, are hard workers, diligent scholars and competent stylists" (p. 56).

Ellipsis is a means of creating this 'brilliant brevity.' This study is about the translation of ellipsis as a stylistic feature; interestingly, even the above quotation from Hemingway on the art of fiction is itself elliptical which betokens the importance of this feature or device in his prose style.

Halliday & Hassan (1976) interpret ellipsis as "the form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing" (p. 88). Stressing the fact that language does not function in isolation, but rather as a text, in an actual situation of use, they state that although unsaid, ellipsis is referred to cases in which there is a structural gap that can be completed by reference to a related structure in the immediate, usually preceding context, (p. 142). Dividing reduction to two categories of pro-forms and ellipsis, Quirk et al (1985) assert that "such preferences for reduction is not merely a preference for economy; it can also contribute to clarity, by reducing items which are shared as given information, so that will be focused on fresh materials or new information" (p. 860). They further add that the fundamental principle to distinguish ellipsis from other kinds of omission is emphasis on recoverability of the absent parts whose meaning is implied by the textual environment. In a comparative study on the analysis of elliptical sentences in English and Persian, Hashemian Jazi (1989) shows that elliptical structures of any type (i.e. nominal, verbal and clausal) and sub-types are almost similar between the two languages, the main contrast being different occurrence of frequencies in sub-types and some expressions which have no equivalents in the other language.

Research Questions:

Based on what was stated above, the present study sought to find answers to the following questions:

1. How attentive have the Persian translators of *The Old Man and the Sea* been to the stylistic features of the original text?

2. What strategies have been adopted by these Persian translators in transferring similar and dissimilar elliptical elements between the two languages?

III. Methodology

1. Materials

To elucidate Hemingway's elliptically simple style, one of his masterpieces, the noble-prizing-winning The Old Man *and the Sea* was selected, since it displays the genuine style of the author, is one of the works on which Hemingway's reputation hinges, and is translated into many languages. 5 available Persian translations of this novella were selected to be analyzed stylistically. They are as follows:

"*Mard-e Pir va Daryā.*" by Morteza Yahyavi (1962), "*Pir-e Mard va Dar yā*" by Nazi Azima (1972), "*Pir-e Mard va Dar yā*" by Najaf Darya-Bandari (1984), "*Pir-e Mard va Dar yā*" by Sudabeh Asha (1994), and "*Pir-e Mard va Dar yā*" by Mohammad Taghi Faramarzi (2006).

2. Model

The theoretical framework of the present study is mostly based on the model postulated by Quirk et al (1985) illustrating various types of ellipsis – as something left unsaid, but understood (Widdowson, 1978, p. 211). As a supplement to this model, merely one of the cases offered in Halliday and Hassan's (1976) discussion of ellipsis is also included.

3. Procedure

In the present study, the data is descriptively analyzed. First, the English and Persian elliptical structures of the source and target texts are identified and sorted out according to the Model presented by Quirk et al (1985) in order to discover similarities and differences between the two languages. Next, one randomly selected example representing one of 7 main categories is brought forth to check how the elliptical patterns are dealt with in the Persian translations. The aim was to identify the employed strategies by the translators and their efficacy as well as to identify the potential problems related to translation of ellipsis as a feature of style. It has to be noted that in the process of text and data selection different moderator variables such as, length, style, difficulty of texts, etc. are controlled.

IV. Discussion and Data Analysis

The whole text of *The Old Man and the Sea* was meticulously read and instances of ellipsis were identified. The instances were analyzed according to the model suggested by Quirk et al (1985), supplemented by Halliday and Hassan's. Accordingly, 8 main groups of frequently-recurring elliptical patterns were presented. Following is a discussion of some of the most typical examples of each category of ellipsis. It should be mentioned that, predictably, sometimes a sentence's elliptical structure cuts across a number of these categories of ellipsis. Following are the categories and the relevant examples.

1. Anaphoric ellipsis

As the manifestation of textual ellipsis, anaphora can recover the elliptical structure.

(1: 1). "I shouldn't have gone out so far, fish" he said. "Neither for you nor for me. I'm sorry fish." (p. 121)

This example is recoverable according to the features of the anaphoric ellipsis, i.e. the antecedent normally has 'precedence' over the ellipsis construction, by taking an earlier or a higher position in the sentence (Quirk, 1985: p. 895).

"I should have gone so far" is the elliptically inflected part of the underlined sentence that regarding the first sentence is not mentioned in order to highlight the sole presence of the two main characters of the story, the fish and the old man, alone on that vast sea. "The old man has a feeling of brotherhood with all the creatures of nature….there is also a oneness in nature between the man and the great fish" (Carey, 1973: p. 48).

Darya-Bandari has gone beyond the limitations of the sentence and not only translated the omitted part, but also disclosed one of the possible interpretations of the sentence.

متاسفم که زیاد دور رفتم. زندگی هر دو تمان رو خراب کردم.(p. 208)

The suggested image in the target equivalent is not totally compatible with the original one. This sentence might be the translator's conclusion about the speaker's intentions while addressing the fish and as a matter of fact, limiting the borders and layers of meaning, the Persian equivalent does not let the text to be open enough to be explored by the target reader. (Expansion)

As mentioned before, the omitted elements could be recovered according to the first sentence, not the following one. Unaware of the author's style as well as the grammatical structures, Azima has wrongly taken the last sentence, i.e. "I'm sorry." as the coordinated sentence.

ماهی، نباید اینهمه دور میرفتم. هم به خاطر تو و هم به خاطر خودم متاسفم.(p. 92)

She has mixed the second and the third sentences and whereby marred the image of the loneliness of the characters.

نمی بایست این همه از ساحل دور میشدیم ماهی. نه برای تو و نه برای خودم.(p. 201)

The above sentence is Faramarzi's. Literally viewed, the translation renders the sense and the sound and proves its loyalty to the original.

Making Darya-Bandari's mistake, Yahyavi has rendered the source text as

ماهی من نمیباسیتی این همه دور رفته باشم. این کار برای من و تو هر دو خوب نبود.(p. 155)

This is one of the possible meanings of the speaker's quotation, imposing the same limitations on the target reader.

Asha has been pretty successful in her translation:

نمی بایست این همه از ساحل دور میشدم ماهی. هم به خاطر خودم و هم به خاطر تو.(p. 182)

However "Neither …nor…" is represented as "هم" which is not as strong as its English counterpart in terms of negativity. It should be stated that in the original text these words add to the negative, portentous mood.

2. Coordination

As one of the main sub-categories of special ellipsis, coordinate clauses are linked by words such as "and", "but", and "or" (Quirk et al, 1985: p. 910).

(2:1). "He no longer dreamed of storm, or of women, or of great occurrences, or of great fish, nor fights, nor contest of strength, nor of his wife." (p. 27)

Young (1975) notes that "Hemingway's style is remarkably uncomplicated. Events are described clearly and in the order in which they occurred; the author doesn't change the order or examine the events" (p. 109). In this example, the relatively short sentence exhibits an uncanny directness by stringing together paratactic items, each creating a certain image, through ellipsis. "He dreamed" is the ellipted unit of the underlined parts that is recoverable according to the coordinated sentence. Hence, just images such as women, great occurrences, etc. are mentioned. Considering the order of paratactic phrases in the sentence and the occurrence of ellipsis, Darya-Bandari has translated the sentence literally as,

(p. 116)را، و نه زورآزمایی را و نه خواب همسرش را. دیگر نه خواب طوفان را میدید و نه خواب زن را، و نه رویدادهای بزرگ

That is the first part includes the verb "خواب دیدن" (to dream) and the following parts are elliptically translated. The translation sounds ideal because it is attentive to both form and content.

Azima has ignored the order and the occurrence of ellipsis and translated all the parts, even the initial clause which does not contain ellipsis, elliptically.

(p. 36)مدتها بود که دیگر خواب طوفان، زنان، ماجراجوییها، ماهیهای بزرگ، جنگ و جدالها، زورآزماییها و زنش را نمیدید.

Although violating the frequency of the occurrence of ellipsis, Faramarzi has translated this part elliptically. The first four paratactic phrases as well as images are mixed into one.

(p. 123)همسرش را. نه ماهیهای بزرگ، نه زد و خوردها، زورآزماییها و نه او نه دیگر توفانها، زنها، پیشامدهای بزرگ را در خواب دید،

This is Yahyavi's translation:

(p. 45) او دیگر مدتها بود که خواب طوفان، زن، حوادث بزرگ، ماهی عظیم و حتی زنش را هم نمیدید.

Inattentive to the style, the translator has just rendered the meaning literally and of course not completely, since "nor fight" is not translated.

Like Azima, Asha has ignored the negation elements of the source text as well as the order of the occurrence of ellipsis.

(p. 30)مدتها بود که دیگر،طوفانها، زنها، حوادث بزرگ و ماهیهای بزرگ، جدال ها و زورآزماییها و همسرش را در خواب نمیدید.

3. Elliptical clauses:

Ellipsis of the clauses is included as a subcategory of functional ellipsis, including ellipsis of the predicate, ellipsis of Wh-clauses, ellipsis of to-infinitive clauses, and ellipsis of an entire clause.

(3: 1). "That's very kind of you;" the old man said." should we eat?" **"I've been asking you to,"** the boy said. (p. 22)

Considering the full form of underlined sentence as "I've been asking you to eat", this example represents the ellipsis of to-infinitive clause. Translation of "to" as the representative of the omitted can be a real challenge for Persian translators.

(p. 111)پسر به نرمی گفت: " من که گفتم بخوریم."

In his translation, Darya-Bandari has added the word "نرمی"(softly) which reflects the friendly tone of the speaker. However, the style of the author has been distorted to some extent and the ellipted form, is present in the target sentence. In fact, the translator has expanded the structure.

Recognizing the skipped element of the source structure, Azima has rendered it into Persian as

(p. 33)این را که من خودم ازت پرسیدم.

In order to make the sentence sound more naturally, she has changed the part into an object pronoun. Although trying to substitute the ellipsis by the pronoun, she has expanded the sentence by the use of not only the pronoun, but also"خودم" (myself).

(Faramarzi, p. 119)پسرک گفت: "من از تو خواهش می کردم که غذا بخوریم."

In Faramarzi's translation the ellipted clause has been translated non-elliptically.

Yahyavi's language is closer to the ordinary language of the boy and the old man but his technique in substituting the ellipsis by a pronoun is somewhat the same.

(Yahyavi, p. 38)پسرک با محبت جواب داد: من هم همین را می خواستم.

(Asha, p. 22)پسرک با ملایمت گفت: " این را که من از تو پرسیدم."

Asha's translation is quite similar to Azima's (apart from the literal translation of the verb "ask").

Generally, all the translators have decided to expand the structure unnecessarily.

4. Noun Phrase

Ellipsis of noun phrase as the subcategory of functional ellipsis ,"exept in coordinate noun phrases, result from the final ellipsis" (Quirk etal, 1985, p. 900). It shares the common features with the nominal ellipsis in Halliday and Hassan's model (1976).

(4: 1). "May I get the sardines? I know where I can get four baits too."

…. **"One" the old man said.** His hope and his confidence had never gone….

"Two" the boy said.

"Two" the old man agreed.

… the boy said. "**but I bought these"** . (p.13)

Elliptical noun phrases include final ellipsis, i.e. postmodifiers (if any) and heads tend to be ellipted. "Sardines" is the ellipted noun phrase after "one", "two", and "these" in the marked sentences. While the elliptical sentence can be expressed through a word like "two" representing numeratives or the demonstrateives such as "these", Persian nominal group requires a word indicating the count unit of the common noun. These include "تا", "دانه", "عدد" for one, "تن", "نفر" for person, "جفت" for pair, "فروند" for one (plane), "دست" for clothes and etc. (Shariat, 2000). Morover, not only noun phrases but also the clauses are ellipted in the first and second marked sentences. the full form of the sentences are "buy one fresh sardine.", and "I'll buy two sardines".

Keeping this difference between the two languages in mind, Darya-Bandari has transferred the noun phrases elliptically.

پیر مرد گفت : " یکی. " پسر گفت: " دو تا" پیر مرد گفت " دو تا" ..."ولی اینارو خریده م."(p. 103)

His selection of "تا" in translation for the omitted noun phrases in the target language matches the standard structure of Persian. His strategy to render the mentioned parts has been literal translation in both the cases of noun phrases and clauses.

پیر مرد گفت : "فقط یکی. " پسر گفت: " دو تا"پیر مرد پذیرفت:"باشد ..."ولی خریدم." (p. 28)

Among these four sentences containing elliptical noun phrases, just two are transferred accuratly by Azima. Her strategy in translation of the third and the fourth sentences is deletion.

"ولی خریدمشان." پیرمرد گفت: " یکی کافی است." پسرک گفت: "دو تا میگیرم." پیرمرد گفت:" باشد. دو تا بگیر"(p. 113)

Faramrzi's translation has rendered all the ellipted elements in the noun phrase category This is compatible with Persian grammar but of course translating what is omitted in the original text is a violation of style.

پیرمرد گفت: " یکی فقط"پسر گفت: " دو تا" پیرمرد موافقت کرد.. ... "ولی اینها را خریده ام."(p. 28)

Yahyavi's translation is not quite loyal to the original, for although Persian sentences share the ellipsis with their source counterparts, the third sentence is not translated at all.

پسر گفت: " دو تا" پیرمرد پذیرفت: " دو تا"..."ولی خریدمشان." پیرمرد گفت : "فقط یکی."(p. 10)

Regarding the stated point about Darya-Bandari's translation, Asha has done her job pretty successfully.

5. Subject+ Operator

The ellipsis of subject operator contains subject + to be. The following example depicts the ellipsis of subject+ operator, i.e. "you were five" is the full manifestation and the subject "I" and the verb "were" are not present. As a result, "five" is the remaining element that, though making sense while rendered literally in Persian, needs to be accompanied by a count unit to sound more natural to the Persian readers. In addition, this example shares the characteristics of "elliptical response" as well.

(5: 1). "How old was I when you first took me in a boat?" **"Five** and you nearly were killed when I bought the fish….." (p.12)

The first three marked sentences confirm that their translators have done their task successfully and kept the form intact while meadiating between the source and target texts. Considering the related points and deleting the subject "تو" and the verb "بودی" (functioning as *fele- rabt* ('relative verb')in Persian grammar), Darya-Bandari, Azima, and Yahyavi have chosen "سال" for this part to make it more acceptable to the target readers. Apart from ellipsis, Yahyavi's tone and diction does not match that of the original text.

اولین بار که منو با قایقت بردی چند سالم بود؟ - پنج سال.(Darya Bandadri, p. 102)

اول باری که مرا سوار قایق کردی چند سالم بود؟ -پنج سال. (Azima, p, 27)

نخستین باری که مرا به قایق نشاندی من چند سال داشتم؟-پنج سال.(Yahyavi, p. 26)

Unlike the previous ones, Faramarzi and Asha have used expansion as their opted strategy in the following and hence, have passed over the ellipsis in its full form.

نخستین بار که در قایقت مرا به دریا بردی چند سال داشتم؟ -پنج ساله بودی.(faramarzi, p. 112)

اولین باری که منو با قایقت به دریا بردی چند سالم بود؟ -پنج سالت بود.(Asha, p. 8)

6. Substitution

This category accords with the patterns represented in the ellipsis of predication in finite clause, and of 'Do'as stranded operator. The comparative structure is the one comprising the potentiality of DO- support. Nevertheless, considering the point that insertion of the omitted predication after did will result in an unacceptable sentence, this case is not ellipsis, but quasi-ellipsis (Quirk, p. 905).

(6: 1). "Certainly his back cannot feel as badly **as mine does**." (p.58)

'Does' stands for 'can feel'. Persian grammar makes it almost impossible to match this kind of ellipsis. As a result, adopting almost the same method, all the translations offer one verb for two and hence, respond similarly to the ellipsis.

پشت او حتما به اندازه ی پشت من درد نمی کند.(Darya-Bandari, p. 145)

وضع پشتش به بدی پشت من نیست...(Azima, p. 54)

مسلما او نمی تواند درد را مثل من در پشتش احساس کند.(Faramarzi, p. 149)

مساما پشت او به خستگی و کوفتگی پشت من نیست.(Yahyavi, p. 81)

مسلما او نمی تواند مثل من درد را در پشت بدنش احساس کند.(Asha, p. 78)

7. Ellipsis of response

The selected ellipted responses can be portrayed based on the features of the following categorizations:

1) Ellipsis of the nonfinite part of the verb + its complemet

In this formula, mentioned as the subdivision of 'Ellipsis of the predication in finite clauses', the modal is present in the sentence while the other following componenets are absent.

(7: 1). "Do you believe the great DiMaggio would stay with a fish……? **I am sure he would."** (p. 75)

Although expressed through a modal such as 'would', this omission cannot be equated by the same form in the target language. To restate the matter differently, the typical Persian equivalent bears a grammatical shift, requiring the verb as the essential component in either the shortened or the full form of the sentence.

یقین دارم می ایستاد.(Darya-Bandari, p. 161)

Short and loyal to the form, the translated sentence by Darya-Bandari also manifests the essence of Persian with regard to such patterns. Thus, the predicate is dropped and the verb is inevitably translated.

"... حتم دارم می توانست."(Azima, p. 65)

اطمینان دارم که می نشیند.(Asha, p. 108)

Azima and Asha also employ the same strategy used by the first translator. Their word choices make the difference, though.

حتما او همین اندازه یا بیشتر به انتظار خواهد نشست.(Faramarzi, p. 165)

بعد جواب داد: "مسلما که می تواند...."(Yahyavi, p. 104)

Even though trying to represent the ellipted predicate, the last two translators have expanded the sentence by adding their interpretations.

2) Ellipsis of the predicate

It means that "only part of the clause to remain is the subject… occurs only in certain special constructions, such s comparative, coordinate, and response constructions" (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 906).

The following response can be an appropriate case since it deals with the ellipsis of the predicate:

(7:2). "Who gave it to you? -: Martin, the owner of the café" (p. 21)

'Martin who is the owner of the café gave it to me.' is the full form of this response. Congruous with the target forms, literal translation fits well and therefore is largely the opted procedure in the target translations.

" مارتین. صاحب کافه."(Darya-Bandari, p. 111)

" مارتین. صاحب کافه."(Yahyavi, p. 33)

" از مارتین. صاحب کافه."(Azima, p. 33)

"از" is an unnecessary word in this Persian translation resulting in lengthening the sentence.

مارتین صاحب آن -.(Faramarzi, p. 119)

" مارتین. صاحب کافه."(Asha, p. 20)

3) Ellipsis of direct response to WH- Questions

Due to the fact that Quirk's model lacks this relevant category the instances of which are found in the collected data, it is taken from Halliday and Hassan's. This is the simplest form of response to a WH- question, on which the appropriate nominal, adverbial or prepositional group act as the subject or complement.

(7:3). "What can I do now? he thought**. Nothing**. I must think of nothing and wait for the next ones." (p. 123)

This elliptical sentence that consists of just a single word very delicately mirrors the author's art in pithily expressing the main theme of the novel. After passing a long time wandering on the waves and facing various challenges, the old man's hands and boat are empty. In fact, 'nothing' is the only word that depicts his life after fighting the sharks and forfieting his only property, his brother fish. Using this key word in an ambigious way, Hemingway demonstrates his narrative powers. This ambigious ellipsis can refer either to"I can do nothing." as the answer for the mentioned question and function anaphorically, or to "I can think of nothing." and be the cataphoric ellipsis according with its following sentence. The easiest way to keep this ambiguity resulting from Hemingway's ellipical style is the strategy of literal translation allowing the target version to share the inherent features of the source one.

Employing the mentioned strategy, Darya-Bandari, Faramarzi, and Asha have translated this part as,

هیچ چیز.(Darya-Bandari, p. 204)

هیچ چیز.(Faramarzi, p. 202)

هیچ چیز.(Asha, p. 184)

Sharing the stylistic and semantic aspects of the source sentence, this literal translation has the same potential for the target reader to enjoy exploring different layers of the meaning.

به هیچ چیز.(Azima, p. 93)

While trying to retain the orginality of the sentence formally and rendering the ellipsis in the target sentence, Azima has narrowed down the range of meanings – an interesting case of the significant consequences of ignorance of style -- by adding the preposition "به" that can be a Persian equivalent for "about" in "think about nothing".

بعد به خودش گفت درباره ی هیچ چیز نباید فکر کرد.(Yahyavi, p. 157)

The last sentence is Yahyavi's translation that stylistically bears no similarity to the source sentence. The Persian sentence includes neither ellipsis nor ambiguity and the only rendered meaning is "I'd rather think about nothing".

8. Ellipsis of nonfinite and verbless clauses

(8: 1) "The sail was patched with flour sacks and**, furled;** it looked like the flag of permanent defeat." (p. 9)

Illustrating the nonfinite clause ellipsis, the marked section could be recovered as "while it was furled…' but highlighting the concrete images describing the old man's only fruit of life, and also intensifying the rhythmic effect of

the sentence, ellipsis figures as a supreme literary device here. There is a possibility of fidelity to the style through literal translation.

Literally rendered, the first equivalent for the elliptical component functions as an adjectival phrase and thus roughly matches the grammatical framework of the original text. On the contrary, the other two underlined equivalents expand the structure into a full sentence, especially the third one.

بادبان با تکه های گونی آرد وصله خورده بود و پیچیده، انگار که پرچم شکست دائم بود.(Darya-Bandari, p. 99)

بادبان با گونی آرد وصله شده بود و آنطور که بسته بود به پرچم شکستی ابدی می مانست.(Azima, p. 25)

بادبان را با گونی های آرد وصله کرده بود و هر گاه که آن را به دور دکل می پیچید به پرچم شگست همیشگی می مانست.(Faramarzi, p. 109)

Skipping the elliptical element, the following two translations are stylistically wide of the mark.

بادبان قایق او با گونی های کف اتاق وصله شده بود و مانند بیرقی که حکایت از یک شکست دائمی بکند به نظر می رسید.(Yahyavi, p. 21)

بادبان با گونی های آرد وصله شده بود و هر گاه به احتزاز در می آمد همانند پرچم شکستی ابدی بود.(Asha, p. 2)

V. Conclusion

Ellipsis, a fascinating linguistic possibility, involves leaving out certain linguistic elements and yet conveying the meaning; that is, the meaning of the elliptically dropped element is understood. Used as a device or component of style by a great writer, however, ellipsis intimates extra layers of meaning as well. As such, the treatment of this feature in translation offers an ample ground for research. The analysis of the selected examples of the translation of ellipsis in this study, from the Persian translations of a novel by Hemingway, a master of elliptical style, revealed that a great majority of the instances of elliptical patterns acted fairly similarly in both English and Persian. Thus, it seems that the potential Persian translators should not face too many problems in the attempt to keep the originality of the text. In some cases such as substitution, Persian differs from English due to differences in grammatical structures. It was concluded that where the translators have heeded the author's style they have mostly opted for literal translation in rendering ellipsis as a stylistic feature so as to let the reader experience the author's style as closely as possible. Some translators have expanded or deleted the elliptical element, hence deviating from the stylistic norms of the original. It seems that literal translation could be the most efficacious strategy for translating ellipsis as a feature of style in the case of English-into-Persian literary translation as it is exemplified in the translation of one of the most style-conscious of contemporary Persian literary translators, that is, Darya-Bandari.

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ESP Vocabulary Instruction: Investigating the Effect of Using a Game Oriented Teaching Method for Learners of English for Nursing

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***Abstract*—Among several important separate components which make especial English distinct from general English, vocabulary is a major part of all English for specific purpose (ESP) teaching courses. In addition to general and semi-technical vocabulary items, nursing genre contains the specific jargon to be learnt if the aim is to introduce the concepts to the students who attend the courses to become insiders to the genre. Medlin(2009) refers to nursing genre as a complex and crucial factor in future professional achievement. The present study attempts to investigate applying games in getting students of an ESP course of vocabulary involved in learning activities. To do so, 40 L2 learners majoring in nursing in Shahrekord Azad Universitywere randomly selected and assigned into two groups through Nelson Test (1976). During a 5 week treatment, the first group benefited from games, and traditional teaching methods were applied for the second group. To collect the data, two vocabulary tests were administered and a covariate analysis was conducted on the pretest-posttest vocabulary test scores. A questionnaire was also given to the learners which assessed their attitudes toward learning vocabulary. The obtained results revealed that students of the game oriented class had a fairly effective tendency and positive performance toward vocabulary games, greater than what was observed in the traditional group.**

***Index Terms*—ESP, vocabulary, game oriented teaching method**

I. Introduction

Learning a foreign language is closely related to vocabulary knowledge. According to Schmitt (2000), learning vocabulary is a complex and multidimensional issue. Therefore, there are different considerations for both L2 teachers and learners in this field. Vocabulary knowledge is an important consideration especially for those who need to learn it for specific purposes such as learners at college level. Besides, Blachowicz and Fisher (2005) maintain that words allow the learners to extend their understanding of the world around them and to access to completely new worlds. They argue that in addition to affecting reading performance, vocabulary knowledge affects a student's ability to participate fully in both social and academic classroom routines. They also believe that all students can benefit from vocabulary instruction, especially if that instruction is conducted according to their strength and needs.

Richards (2003) offers three important changes on language teaching: the traditional approaches (up to late 1960s), and a move toward classic communicative teaching (1970s to 1990s), and current communicative language teaching (CLT, 1990s to the present) respectively, which shifted L2 researchers' focus from traditional lesson formats toward using toward innovative tasks such as pair work activities, role plays and group work activities. These trends led to ESP movement in 1970s and 1980s. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) assert its practical domain driven by people who needed English for specific purposes such as reading academic textbooks or business objectives. Also, Dovey (2006) states specific courses preparing learners for their workplace with objectives distinct from other course plans.

Zengin, Erdogan, and Akalin (2007) point out that eighty-five percent of all information in science and engineering throughout the world is in English and this implies the significance of ESP in language teaching programs. In various versions and views of ESP course plans, vocabulary teaching programs are needed to expand learners' potential in extracting meaning and to develop the knowledge of the jargon of the genre. Since ESP in nursing courses largely consists of medical terminology and abbreviations, incorporating theses terms is an indispensable part of ESP course plans for nursing learners at college level. Also, according to Nettina (2006, p. 5)" the Nursing Process is a deliberate, problem-solving approach to meeting the health care and nursing needs of patients". Therefore, the essential question is how to make instruction effective by choosing a teaching procedure which can facilitate VL of ESP L2 learners.

Watts-Taffe and Truscott (2000) suggest that providing rich explanation to elaborate and contextualize word meanings, using nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, gestures, illustrations, and other visuals can support word

learning. Students usually only acquire new vocabulary through new words in their textbooks or those given by their teachers and classmates in the classroom. According to Blachowicz and Fisher (2005), limited knowledge of English vocabulary may affect the performance of English language learners in at least four ways: the development and maintenance of social relationships with other students, participation in academic learning routines, comprehension as a part of reading instruction, and comprehension as a part of content area instruction. By taking into account the importance of ESP vocabulary and the problems learners may encounter through their lack of knowledge in workplace settings, successful vocabulary programs are needed to expand the learners' level of knowledge.

Bosher and Smalkowski (2002) report a research on need analysis of nursing learners and stress the significance of providing the best way to maximize the learners' communicative ability through medical terminologies in real-life hospital situation. In a similar study, Medlin (2009) proves that providing an adjunct course for nursing learners requires assigning attention to complexities inherent in nursing curriculum development such as material development, essential terminology and decision making. Also, Yarmohammadi (2005**)** analyzed and evaluated a selected number of ESP textbooks in Iran, and offered some suggestions with regard to the ways ESP methodology and material production should proceed.

Likewise, in a CLT classroom, playing vocabulary games is one the activities which requires learners to actively interact with their classmates. According to the Wikipedia (2011), the games are defined as:

A game is structured playing, usually undertaken for enjoyment and sometimes used as an educational tool. Games are distinct from work, which is usually carried out for remuneration, and from art, which is more often an expression of aesthetic or ideological elements. However, the distinction is not clear-cut, and many games are also considered to be work (such as professional players of spectator sports/games) or art (such as jigsaw puzzles or games involving an artistic layout such as Mahjong, solitaire, or some video games.

In a CLT course of English teaching, playing vocabulary games which is used as an instructional tool is one alternative available for the course involving students in an active interaction with their fellow classmates. Lewis (1999) states that through games children experiment, discover, and interact with their environment. Therefore, games give learners the opportunity to practice language in a variety of language areas, such as spelling, grammar and vocabulary. Tyson (2000) suggests that a game should involve "friendly" competition, keep all of the students involved and interested, and give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material. This is confirmed by Krashen and Terrell's (1983) comments that "All human beings can acquire additional languages, but they must have the desire or the need to acquire the language, and the opportunity to use the language they study for real communicative purposes" (p. 17).

Nguyen and Nga (2003) report a research that learners stated that they liked the relaxed atmosphere, the competitiveness, and the motivation brought to the class by the games and they could learn the material quickly in a non-stressful environment. Learners liked game-oriented activities and were greatly motivated. According to August and Collins (2005), rich instruction for ELL students includes the same components relevant to native language speakers, definitional, contextual, and usage information, with the addition of further elaboration. Many experienced textbook and methodology manual writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational value.

On the other hand, traditional activities get students involved in a boring process of memorization of long vocabulary lists, derivations, repetition of words, translation, fill-in-the-blank exercises, etc. Scrivener (2009, p. 241) states that the long list of words and their translation seems to defy memory and even when we can recall the word we want, it doesn't seem to fit comfortably into our sentences. He believes that the action of noting down a list of lexical items makes no guarantee that remembering will take place. Therefore, from a pedagogical point of view, there is a need for research that helps to identify the proper activities that provide optimal opportunities for L2 VL.

Taken together, incorporation of VL in ESP courses is an important part of EFL curriculum planning. There are difficulties in L2 courses which can be a daunting task to successful L2 learning. Therefore, solving these problems helps both EFL and ESP teachers and learners. This study might be a step to solve the problems of many Iranian EFL learners and teachers in ESP courses to learn field related items. Furthermore, the results of the study could probably affect Iranian teachers, syllabus designers, and learners' perspectives to implement the games more effectively in EFL curricula. This study was conducted to answer the following research questions:

1) Are game-based methods more effective than the traditional ones in L2 ESP vocabulary teaching?

2) Do games reduce frustration and difficulty in ESP language teaching?

II. Methodology

A. Participants

A sample of 40 female ESP students was randomly chosen from 60 senior students majoring in nursing field in Shahrekord Azad University. Through the Nelson Test (Fowler & Coe, 1976), they were divided into two groups of 20 learners: one game and one traditional group. This procedure ensured us of the existence of a fair degree of homogeneity.

B. Materials

Three instruments were utilized in this study. The first one was a Nelson Language Proficiency test which was used as a standardized measure to check the homogeneity of subjects in terms of language proficiency. The second instrument was an 18 item multiple-choice and 12 matching item test of medical and semi-medical vocabulary, which was developed by the researchers. Two major steps were used to standardize the test. In the first step, the test was administrated to a pilot group of 15 learners. In the second step, the revised test was administrated to another pilot group of 15. Item difficulty and item discrimination of each test items were estimated. The final test was used as the assessment tool in the pretest and the posttest phase of the study. The reliability of the tests was investigated by the use of Cronbach's alpha formula through SPSS. Also, the validity of the vocabulary tests was investigated by the expert judgments (see appendix A).

A standard language learning attitude questionnaire was another instrument being applied to both groups as a post-test to evaluate the learners' attitude toward learning ESP lexical items. The questionnaire consisted of 10 items focusing on the learners' attitude toward learning ESP. The reliability index of the questionnaire was investigated by the use of Cronbach' Alpha formula (about .81), which was satisfactory for the purpose of the study (see appendix B).

C. Procedure

Having selected homogeneous learners, and having pre-tested nursing students for ensuring lexical homogeneity, we divided them into two classes of learners. Both the game and traditional groups enrolled in an obligatory ESP course specific for nursing learners for five sessions of treatment (two hours a day, once a week). Both groups were instructed by the same teacher, who was a full time EFL teacher with experiences in teaching ESP in nursing and other various fields. During the whole course, 75 medical words, each session 15 terms, were taught through methods of activities which were different for each of the two classes. Whenever possible, in both groups code switching to Persian was applied to facilitate learners' understanding. The textbook utilized for both classes was *Birmingham Medical Terminology*, the items for the treatment were chosen from the beginning five chapters; surgery, blood and immunity, respiration, digestion and urinary system.

As for the traditional group the syllabus for the instructional activities focused on learning roots and affixes relevant to each organ and then learning new lexical items comprising theses affixes. The teacher was the sole speaker most of the time and the students' tasks were to listen and to take notes. The rest of the class time was devoted to asking the learners to list the new terms and memorize them in a specific time limit. Then, some exercises were offered to the learners which focused basically on fill in the blank, matching exercises and identifying the comprising elements of the new items. To help them master learning the new words, they were needed to write new words on particular cards along with their equivalents in Persian (flash cards). The learners' assignment at home consisted of memorizing the new terms; finding the underlying meaning of some new ones and finding other medical terms relevant to the topic of the chapter.

The treatment for the game group, involved teaching the new medical terms in each chapter through the use of three types of games. In each session, 10 technical words were chosen to be presented and learnt in class; affixes, roots, or medical terms were introduced with their definitions in English so that the students would try to make guesses and remember the words intended to be learnt. The rest of the class time was devoted to manipulating 3 main games to practice and review the materials.

- Relay Word Building: In each session, to review the previously taught terms, the class was divided into two teams. Each team was given a sheet of paper and pencils. Either or both of the affixes or roots were written on the board and the students were asked to write the correct item in a specific time limit. A group with more items in less time was considered to be the winner. (see appendix D).
- Crossword Puzzles: In this game, the class was divided into two teams with about ten members. Each team received a crossword puzzle containing English definitions of affixes, roots or medical terms. The students were encouraged to solve the puzzle within a specific time limit. These puzzles consisted of some horizontal and some vertical blanks. Each puzzle focused on one organ of the body. An initial, middle, or final key letter was given which could help the students to figure out or guess at the word in question. The two team's competition to solve the puzzle accurately and quickly was considered to be the goal of the game (see appendix E).
- Guessing Game: The class was divided into four teams. Each team received a card containing definitions of medical terms in English. The next group had to ask up to 10 questions and attempt to discover the term in question. Receiving yes/no answers would be the only guidance available. The teacher's interference was minimal and the members of the team would have to try to convey the definition to the other group and help them discover the term. The process continued until one team defeated the others and was selected as the champion (see appendix F).

III. Results and Discussion

The data were collected and analyzed by SPSS software, and the findings were reported. The number of participants was (n = 20) the same in two groups. As Table 1 demonstrates the pretest mean scores of the two groups were not much different from each other before the treatment. The pretest mean score of the first group (Game) was 14.80; and in the second group (Traditional), the pretest mean score was 14.08. But the posttest mean score indicated a greater difference after the treatment. The greater posttest mean score belonged to the game group (M =16.65), and it was 14.42 for the traditional group.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GAMES AND TRADITIONAL GROUPS

		Pretest		Posttest	
Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Game	20	14.80	1.88	16.65	1.79
Traditional	20	14.08	2.12	14.42	2.17

In order to address the first research question, it was important to make sure that all groups had normal distribution. A Levene's test of equality of error variance in SPSS was applied in order to demonstrate the normality of the groups.

TABLE 2.
TEST OF EQUALITY OF VARIANCE

Test	F	df	Sig.
Levene	.45	1 , 38	.51

According to table 2, the significance value was (p = 0.51). Therefore, the assumption of the equality of variance is not rejected at 0.05. As a result, according to the Levene's test, the two groups had normal distribution.

In order to see the effect of the first method of instruction (i.e., game) on L2 VL scores the analysis of covariance was conducted.

TABLE 3.
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ON THE POST-TEST SCORES FOR THE EFFECT OF THE METHOD

Source	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	eta Square
Game	1	42.93	10.79	0.002	.23

As Table 3 demonstrates, the effect of the treatment was significant on the posttest scores: F = 10.79, p = 0.002 (*p. < 0.05). This result indicates that there was a significant difference in the game group. That is, two method of instruction did not have the same effect on the posttest scores.

Also, to answer the second research question, a Levene's test of equality of error variance was used.

TABLE 4.
TEST OF EQUALITY OF VARIANCE

Test	*F*	df	Sig.
Levene	1.50	1 , 38	0.10

As Table 4 displays, the significant value of this test is p = 0.10, therefore, the assumption of the equality of variance is not rejected at 0.05. Beside, in order to see the effect of applying games on learner's motivation, the mean scores were reported.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRETEST-POSTTEST FOR THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION

variable		Pretest		Posttest	
Test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Game	20	16.40	5.60	28.50	5.19
Traditional	20	16.25	4.87	15.70	4.77

As Table 5 reveals, the mean score of the first group (i.e., game) is greater than the second group (i.e., traditional), M = 28.50, therefore, the findings support the idea that ESP vocabulary teaching through game affects the interest and motivation of L2 learners in a positive way.

IV. Conclusions

Teaching new L2 words is one of the most important issues for L2 teachers, and syllabus designers. Since L2 learners need a large number of L2 new words, the use of different kinds of activities and games might increase the interest and motivation of L2 learners to learn L2 new words better. Therefore, there are various considerations for both L2 teachers and learners in this field to promote the vocabulary knowledge of L2 learners. Successful communication in occupational environment is due to considerable attention being placed on ESP. In this respect, game pedagogy can be really effective in teaching ESP terms to EFL learners.

This study investigated the role of games in enhancing ESP vocabulary to EFL learners. Meanwhile, Sifakis (2003) points out the role of teachers to satisfy students' needs and enhance their self-confidence and motivation towards English learning. According to the results in table 1 in pretest mean scores of the two groups were not much different from each other before the treatment. But the posttest mean score indicated a greater difference after the treatment.

Table 4 demonstrates, the mean score of the first group (i.e. game) is greater than the second group (i.e. traditional), therefore, the findings support the idea that VL through game affect the interest and motivation of L2 learners in a positive way. So, the results of the present study are, in part, in line with Nguyen and Nga (2003) research. They carried out a study on the effect of game to teaching general language skills. The results obtained by theses researchers indicated a significant improvement in learners' language knowledge. They reported that the learners like the

atmosphere, friendly competition and the motivation brought by the games to the classroom. This promotes CLT approach which paves the way for successful teaching and learning and improves learners' "Communicative Competence" by putting them as part of the lessons themselves.

Higher motivation toward ESP was another outcome of the study especially for those who were not willing to learn. Considering the importance of ESP and frustration viewed in ESP classes, games provided a relaxed atmosphere for the learners. The learners were more willing to participate actively in class games and conquer their opponents. Their friendly competition helped them to work together and communicate via ESP terms.

Games had an important role in teaching or learning the new L2 words in ESP courses for the EFL participants of this study and were more effective than traditional procedure in promoting ESP VL at the college level. Considering English as a foreign language in Iran, most learners specially ESP ones encounter problems in learning technical terms in English. Therefore, providing effective games can reduce their anxiety toward learning and retaining new words.

In some games (guess game, and crossword puzzle) learners could learn how to produce and comprehend new ESP terms via their English knowledge and this leads to interactive classroom which Savignon (2002) has marked as an aid to language learning. He refers to games, tasks, juggling, and jazz as innovations in curriculum planning which provide communicative opportunities for learners.

Moreover, Previous studies performed on game and learning were mostly conducted on children (e.g., Lewis, 1999) and their objectives were mostly on general language ability while the focus of this study was on adults on ESP vocabulary leaning. Sometimes, adults worked harder to learn new terms and their previous skills in EGP and EAP permitted them to learn efficiently. In Fiorito's point of view (2005) ESP learners view their English training completing their education and this enables them to identify a real context for ESP vocabulary and structure.

Unfortunately, the findings demonstrated that some learners avoided participating in class games due to their individual differences. Considering theses differences before applying game procedure is obligatory while preparing the ultimate design for L2 teachers and syllabus designers.

To conclude, the results also can be effective for EFL teachers to make ESP classes fruitful and at the same time fun. In summary syllabus designer can provide programs to insert games in all EFL classes; EAP, EGP or other language related courses. However, planning the class to achieve final objectives is really important since playing games and controlling class time takes too much time and following the exact lesson plan might be neglected.

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APPENDIX A: SAMPLE TEST

A: Choose the correct answer:

1. Endocardium is …….. .
   a) Membrane inner surface of heart b) Inflammation of heart muscle
   c) Cutting inner valves of heart d) Enlargement of heart muscle
2. Mastectomy is ……. .
   a) surgical incision of breast b) displacement of the breast
   c) excision of breast d) rupture of breast
3. Maria is a ……at the hospital. Every Tuesday, she helps the doctors and nurses, but she doesn't get paid.
   a) manager b) volunteer c)businessperson d) pilot
4. Andy is much thinner now. He has lost a lot of …… .
   a) weight b) height c) length d) width
5. Hyperproteinemia is …….. .
   a) excessive protein in the blood b) deficiency of protein in the blood
   c) excessive protein and blood in an organ d) lack of protein in an organ
6. There is a/an …….. against some diseases for a short time only. You may still catch them if you are not very careful.
   a) immunity b) precaution c) treatment d) vaccination
7. Color – blind persons see objects as lighter or darker. They are also unable to ……. the shades.
   a) design b) deceive c) distinguish d) decay
8. Dentists strongly suggest brushing teeth using toothpaste to ..... them from decaying.
   a) defer b) protect c) waste d) correct
9. A kind of disease which is marked by strong contractions of the muscles of the throat and consequent inability to drink water. It is …… .
   a) cholera b) varicose c) cataract d) hydrophobia
10. Scientists believe that about half of the world's …….do not have enough to eat.
    a) information b) resources c) government d) population

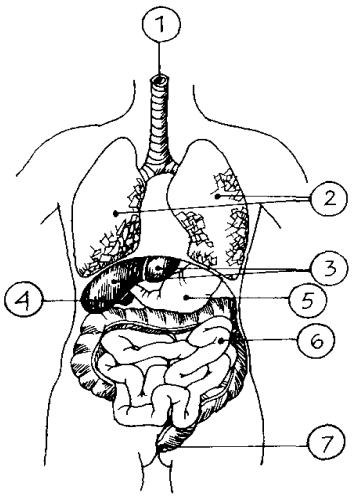
11. Another term for Gallbladder is …….. .
    a) cholelithiasis b) cholecystectomy
    c) cholecyst d) cholectasis

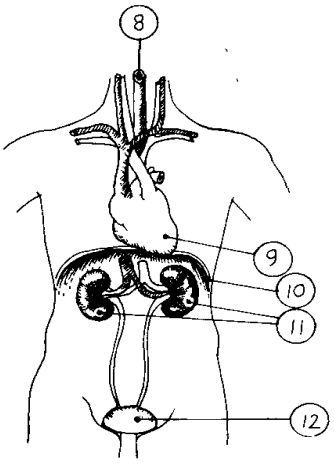
B: Choose the best synonym for the given words or definitions:

12. Specialists are trying to control the new disease; it may happen over a wide area.
    a) contagious b) widespread c) alimentary d) ventilated
13. Using needles has been proved to be a good way for chronic pain.
    a) slight b) not serious c) lasting a short time d) lasting a long time
14. I didn't know the Smiths are growing tomatoes in their small farm.
    a) raising b) grinding c) selling d) enjoying
15. What is the most important reason for the world hunger?
    a) possible b) common c) major d) second
16. Another **defense** against disease is the use of medicine or drugs.
    a) education b) production c) association d) protection
17. They didn't earn the same **amount** of money because they had different jobs.
    a) area b) quantity c) cost d) event
18. What is the best term for enlargement of the liver?
    a) cystocele b) cephalodynia c)neuropathy d)hepatomegaly

Write the number of each drawing next to the correct word.

diaphragm	.....
gall bladder	.....
rectum	.....
intestines (bowels)	.....
bladder	.....
windpipe (trachea)	.....
gullet (esophagus)	.....
liver	.....
heart	.....
lungs	.....
kidneys	.....
stomach	.....





APPENDIX B: ESP VOCABULARY LEARNING MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read the following questions about the effect of teaching academic English on your learning. Please use a check mark.

row		Completely agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Completely disagree
*	**During the five week ESP vocabulary learning I found that ……**					
1	Learning new medical items has gotten easier for me.					
2	The ESP educational course has been a pleasant continuum for me.					
3	I have achieved a significant progress in learning new lexical items.					
4	I have got a good feeling toward learning ESP vocabulary.					
5	I think that I can get better grades in learning ESP vocabulary.					
6	I have a good mastery of medical terms in hospital					
7	Learning medical vocabulary is not as frustrating and difficult as I believed.					
8	I would like to learn English.					
9	I feel that I can achieve high success with learning the new lexical items in my life.					
10	My ESP lexicon has grown significantly.					

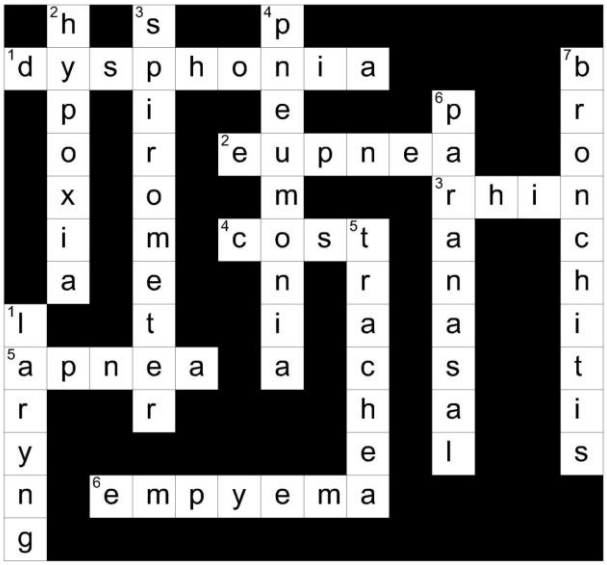
APPENDIX C: SAMPLE OF RELAY WORD BUILDING

Respiration

Root or Affix	Definition	Possible Examples Offered by Learners
pnea	Breathing	eupnea, dyspnea, hyperpnea, trachypnea,bradypnea, apnea,orthopenia
oxia	Level of oxygen	hypoxia, anoxia, oximetry, oximeter
phonia	voice	dysphonia, aphonia, egophonia,bronchophonia
rhin/o	Nose	rhinorrhea,rhinitis, rhinorrhagia, rhinoplasty, rhinostomy
laryng/o	Larynx	laryngoscope, laryngeal,laryngoscopy, laryngitis, laryngotracheal, laryngomalacia, laryngospasm
trache/o	Trachea	tracheostomy, trachea, trachomalacia, trachoma, laryngotracheal, trachypnea, tracheoesophageal
Pleura/o	Pertaining to the ribs	pleurodesis, pleuritis,pleural,pleurodynia
Pneum/o	Pertaining to the lungs	pneumonia, pneumothorax, pneumococcal , pneumonitis

APPENDIX D: SAMPLE OF CROSSWORD PUZZLE

Respiration



Horizontal →

1. Difficulty in speaking
2. Easy normal breathing
3. Nose
4. rib
5. Temporary cessation of breathing
6. Pus in pleural space

Vertical ↓

1. Larynx
2. Decreased oxygen in the tissue
3. Instrument for measuring breathing
4. Inflammation of lungs with consolidation
5. Air passage extending from larynx to bronchi
6. Near nose
7. Inflammation of bronchi

APPENDIX E: SAMPLE OF GUESSING GAME

Group A: (holding the card)
Group B: Is it an instrument?
Group A: yes
Group B: Is it used to crash stones in urinary system?
Group A: no
Group B: Is it used to examine urinary system?
Group A: yes
Group B: Is it cystostomy?
Group A: no
Group B: Is it cystoscope?
Group A: Yes, that's right!

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The Assessment of the Translation of *Chang Hen Ge* on the Basis of Textuality

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***Abstract*—This paper expounds the definition of a text and points out that translation is text oriented. Then it elaborates on the standards of textuality and it attaches importance to the application of textuality to the assessment of the translations of Chang Hen Ge. It can be seen that translation assessment made on the basis of textuality is more operational in translation practice.**

***Index Terms*—text, textuality translation, assessment**

As we know, the objects of translation are texts, the process of translating starts from a given text, the translator analyzes the text, and the final product of the process is a new text in the target language. And the analysis of texts is indispensable if a translation product is to be assessed.

I. What is a Text?

There might be diverse answers to this question.

A text, which a discourse consists of, is "a complete utterance", it is "anything from an isolated Ouch! to an entire poem, essay, conversation, lecture, or book"(Nida,1998,p.78). Here Nida equates text with discourse. Maybe this definition covers too much and it is beyond the limit of a text for it is more suitable for discourse.

A text is a semantic unit with its function and meaning and it is a process and product of man's communication under certain context (Chen, 1998) This definition is raised in terms of semantics. It tells us one of the main features of a text, that is, the semantic element of a text. But a sentence, the minimum part of language that expresses a complete thought (Hu, 1989), is also possible to be a semantic unit with certain function and meaning. As a result, confusion of these two is likely to be caused due to the overlapping part of a sentence and a text.

And still there is another definition according to Brown and Yule (1987, p.190) which says: "Text, we said, is the verbal record of a communicative event." Here text is defined in connection with communication, that is, pragmatics (the study of language in use and linguistic communication) is involved. This involvement exposes another important feature of a text to us, the pragmatic element of a text. But a text possesses something more.

And another definition which is impossible to be ignored is presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.2) who take the view that "A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning" and the primary determinant of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationship within and between the sentences, which creates texture. "A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. The texture is provided by the cohesive RELATION".

This definition also mentions another significant and distinctive feature of a text, that is, the "cohesive relationship within and between the sentences" of a text. Yet it is not sufficient to be used as a standard to justify a text because some sentences are cohesive in a passage, however, they can't form a good text.

According to Werlich (1976), a text is characterized by coherence and completion. He (2002) attaches great importance to the logicality of a text when analyzing text and maintains that logicality is the essence of the constitution of a text and the key to comprehend a text.

Beaugrande and Dressler (2002) hold the view that a text is a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative. Hence, non-communicative texts are treated as non-texts.

From the above discussion, some common important characteristics concerning a text can be attained. First, a text is communicative. Second, a text possesses textuality (or texture), a distinctive feature separating a text from a non-text. And third, the language form of a text can be either spoken or written. Thus, the definition presented by Beaugrande and Dressler will be adopted in this thesis for the reason that it reveals the function of a text and the essence of a text, i.e. textuality which plays a significant role in text analysis and in translation.

II. The Seven Standards of Textuality and Translation Assessment

Beaugrande and Dressler (2002) hold the view that for a 'linguistics of the text', at least three perspectives seemed vitally relevant: (a) the text itself as process and product with mainly 'linguistic' qualities; (b) the participants, usually the producer(s) and the receiver(s) of the text; and (c) the broader context of situation wherein the text and the participants are situated. To address these three perspectives, they came to recognize seven standards of textuality. For the text itself, cohesion subsumes the means for connecting units and patterns, e.g., by joining two sentences through pronominalisation from noun phrase ('old woman') to pronoun ('She') in sample; and coherence subsumes the means for connecting meanings and concepts, e.g., by describing 'eyes' and 'mouth' to portray 'ugliness'. For the participants, intentionality designates the condition that the text producer intends to perform an event as a text, e.g., to bewail the 'hardness' of one's own 'daughter'; and acceptability designates the condition that the text receiver accepts the event as a text, e.g., by confirming that same 'hardness' and making her 'dear mother' responsible. For the context of situation, informativity concerns the degrees to which the text or some of its aspects are unexpected, interesting, or stimulating, e.g., total amazement to see one's 'daughter' 'living and come back'; situationality concerns the connections between the text and the context of situation, e.g., a dramatic reunion where the mother melts with emotion and the daughter does not; and intertextuality concerns the connections between the current text and previously experienced texts, e.g., when the daughter picks up and expands the Topic of being 'hardened'.

These seven standards have been widely accepted, probably due to their practical usefulness in systematically exploring a text from multiple angles. They are not 'theoretical' in the sense of conventional 'linguistic theory' with its emphasis on entities like 'distinctive features' or 'deep structure'. Rather, they are intended to represent the practice-driven theories discourse participants sustain about texts, similar to the viewpoint of 'ethnomethodology'

Since the seven standards are for describing texts, and they can also be regarded as design criteria for evaluating texts. It is noticed that each of these may serve: how far the text is efficient in getting readily produced and received, effective in promoting intentions and goals, and appropriate to the context, the participants, and the situation, and the information as well.

And because of the fact that linguistic communication always appears in textual form, and modern linguistics is agreed upon the fact that the texts are primary form of linguistic manifestations. Texts show different conditions or origin, different structures, functions and they are designed for different recipients or target groups. They are produced for a large spectrum of communicative purposes. Translation, therefore, is a text-oriented event. The translator does not translate words or individual sentences (unless an isolated sentence has text status), but texts (Wilss, 2001). Consequently, to produce an equivalent target language text of a source language text means to render the message of the source language text on the basis of the textuality of a source language text. And more importantly, the seven standards can also be applicable when a translation is assessed which will be elaborated in the following part.

III. The Assessment of the Translation of Chang Hen Ge (《长恨歌》) on the Basis of Textuality

Chang Hen Ge, composed in 806 A.D. by Bai Juyi, an outstanding poet in ancient China, who lived during 772 and 846 in the middle years of the Tang Dynasty, is a famous poem vividly depicting the tragic love story between Emperor Xuanzong of the Tang Dynasty and his favorite imperial concubine Yang Yuhuan. The poet created an enthralling and moving story out of the historical figures and legends and represented the reality of life through the artistic images, which has touched numerous readers through the centuries. The outstanding feature of Chang Hen Ge in its artistic presentation is enhanced emotions, which are expressed from the satire on "The beauty-loving emperor, longed year after year, to find a great beauty without peer" to the sentiment and sympathy on "this eternal sorrow goes on and on for ever".

The Chinese poem comprises one hundred and twenty sentences (see Feng Qinghua, 2004, p.428-430). The translators Professor Xu Yuanchong (许渊冲) and Gladys Yang（杨宪益、戴乃迭）(From Feng Qinghua, 2004, p.430-440 for their translations) translated the poem in the form of poem, but they did it differently.

A. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Intentionality

Intentionality is concerned with the text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g. to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan, designates all the ways in which text producers utilize texts to pursue and fulfill their intentions in a wider sense.

Consequently, when a translation is assessed, one should consider whether the intention of the source text producer is manifested in the target text, just as the fact that a translator should take into consideration the text producer's attitude or intentions and make the greatest efforts to fulfill the producer's intentions so as to achieve a faithful target text.

It can be noted that the rough intention of author Bai Juyi of Chang Hen Ge is to use the literary form of poem (the popular form of his time) to reveal the regretful love between Emperor Xuan Zong and Yang Yuhuan, and to satirize and criticize Emperor Xuan Zong's indulgence in beauty and his negligence of management of his state. The two versions by Xu Yuanchong and Gladys Yang retain the literary form of the source text and the intention of source text, although Xu Yuanchong's version is in better harmony with the source text in terms of structure, stanza and rhyme.

So it can be stated that the two versions are qualified in terms of intentionality.

B. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Cohesion

Cohesion is a formal principle used in the assessment of a translation. A target text should be cohesive in form so as to make text easy for the receivers/recipients to follow and lay a foundation for the coherence of the text.

Cohesive ways include reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, lexical cohesion and certain punctuation marks which may be applied, either retain those of the source text or make additions according to the requirements of the formation of the target text, as the basis and guidance for translation.

And it is evident that reference, ellipsis, conjunction, lexical cohesion are mainly employed in the two versions by the translators.

Reference refers to forms which "instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right…make reference to something else for their interpretation."(Halliday, 1976, p.31) Personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and words used to express comparison can play the role of reference. In the versions personal pronouns “he” and “she” are most frequently used. “They” and “it” are also used several times. These words are added mainly in the target text to be the subjects of sentences for the fact that there exist no such pronouns in the source text but they have to appear in the sentences of the target text resulting from the difference in the formation of sentences in Chinese and English. And mostly the use of such personal pronouns in the two versions is proper except for one contradiction in Gladys Yang’s version in the following lines:

134. A priest from Linqiong came to Chang'an,
137. He sent a magician to make a careful search.
140. Though they searched the sky and nether regions,
142. Till he heard of a fairy mountain
149. When he knocked at the jade door

Here if “they” is changed by “he”, it would be more reasonable.

The use of ellipsis in the two versions is rare. When translating the stanza “在天愿作比翼鸟，在地愿为连理枝。”, both of the two groups of translators use ellipsis as in the following:

“In heaven we shall be birds
Flying side by side.
On earth flowering sprigs
On the same branch!”
Translated by Gladys Yang
"On high, we'd be two lovebirds flying wing to wing;
On earth, two trees with branches twined from spring to spring."
Translated by Xu Yuanchong

It is obvious that in the versions “we shall be” and “we'd be” are omitted because of the parallel structure of the source text sentences. And such use is completely acceptable.

As to the use of conjunctions, it is calculated that in Gladys Yang’s version, 31 conjunctions have been used. The proportion of conjunctions in the target text to the sentences in the source text is 25.8%. And 22 conjunctions are utilized in Xu Yuanchong’s version. The proportion is 18.3%. It can be said that Gladys Yang’s version is more explicit for target readers for its more use of conjunctions. And the use of conjunctions in the two versions undoubtedly enhances the coherence of the target text.

With regard to the use of lexical cohesion, which refers to the conveying of cohesive relationship by means of repetition, synonyms, antonyms, collocations and others, it can be noticed that repetition and synonyms are used in the two versions concerning Emperor Xuanzong of the Tang Dynasty and his favorite imperial concubine Yang Yuhuan, the two main characters in the poem. In Gladys Yang’s version, such expressions as “The Han emperor”, “the emperor”, “Emperor” and “he” are used repeatedly or interchangeably to refer to Emperor Xuanzong. And his favorite imperial concubine Yang Yuhuan is referred to as “a daughter of the Yang family”, “Taizhen”, “his first lady” and “she”. While in Xu Yuanchong’s version, Emperor Xuanzong is called “The beauty-loving monarch”, “the monarch”, “The Emperor”, “the broken hearted”, “her lord”, and “he”, and Yang Yuhuan “A maiden of the Yangs”, “the Lady Yang”,”The fair-faced Lady Yang”, “a queen”, “Ever True”, “the queen” and “she”.

Such expressions are generally acceptable except for two of them. One is the use of “The Han emperor” for Emperor Xuanzong, the other is the use of “queen” in referring to Yang Yuhuan. The first use may cause misunderstanding among English readers, and the second use is not accurate for the fact that Yang Yuhuan is not a queen. So it is advisable that these two expressions be replaced by other proper ones.

C. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Coherence

To make communication efficient, a text as a whole should be endowed with coherence. Baker (1992) holds the view that coherence is the network of conceptual relations which underlie the surface text.

The two versions are coherent respectively as target texts for both of them communicate the happy and regretful love story between Emperor Xuanzong of the Tang Dynasty and his favorite imperial concubine Yang Yuhuan. Yet if the

two versions are studied thoroughly in terms of explanatory coherence, which not only establishes continuity of senses but also justifies it (Baker, 1992), one may discover certain lines which are not coherent.

For instance, in Xu Yuanchong's version, there are such lines as in the following:

"57. Back, he found her pond and garden in the old place,
58.With lotus in the lake and willows by the hall."
"(57)归来池苑皆依旧，(58)太液芙蓉未央柳。"
"77. Moved by the monarch's yearning for the departed fair,
78. He was ordered to seek for her everywhere."
"(77)为感君王辗转思，(78)遂教方士殷勤觅。"
and "86. And dwelt so many fairies as graceful as flowers.
87. Among them was a queen whose name was Ever True;"
"(86)其中绰约多仙子。(87)中有一人字太真，"

It is apparent that there is no continuity of senses within every two lines in the above. That means these lines are not coherent completely. So there is some room for improvement in translating these lines.

D. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Acceptability

Acceptability emphasizes on the text receiver's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text having some use or relevance for the receiver, e.g. to acquire knowledge or provide co-operation in a plan (Beaugrande and Dressler, 2002).

It can be safely said that the two versions are acceptable for their fulfillment of intention of the text producer and the translators' Skopos, and the versions are cohesive and coherent wholly.

It seems that, as is mentioned above, there is still some room for improvement. If "The Han emperor" in Gladly Yang's version and "The beauty-loving monarch" in Xu Yuanchong's version are converted to Emperor Xuanzong, the use of "queen" in Xu Yuanchong's version to Yang Yuhuan, and the incoherent lines above are modified, both of the two versions may become more accurate and more acceptable.

E. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Informativity

As is mentioned in third part informativity is used to designate the extent to which a presentation is new or unexpected for the receivers. Beaugrande and Dressler (2002) have proposed a range of three orders of informativity, each sufficiently broad that human language users might be able to distinguish them during actual communication.

The occurrence of an option in the upper range of probability, i.e., perceptibly among the most likely candidates, would convey first-order informativity. First-order occurrences are rather trivial, that is, so well integrated into a system or setting that they receive very slight attention. First-order informativity would always be present in any text, whether or not higher orders are attained.

When translating a text, a translator can make the target text vary within the range of three orders of informativity in the light of text producer's intentions and the acceptability from the perspective of text receivers besides keeping the order of information of the source text. And a translator should also take into consideration the client's requirement or the Skopos of doing the task. These are the premises that a text is translated and assessed as well.

On the basis of this, the two versions have attained the goal of informativity, that is, they have provided the first-order occurrences of the source text. Of course, Xu Yuanchong's version is of higher order of informativity for its low frequency in use of conjunctions.

F. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Situationality

It is mentioned that the term situationality, is a general designation for the factors which render a text relevant to a current or recoverable situation of occurrence. And the key point is that whether a text is acceptable may depend not on the "correctness" of its "reference" to the "real world," but rather on its believability and relevance to the participants' outlook regarding the situation.

And it has been pointed out that a translator can put the idea into his/her translation practice, that is, to do translation by analyzing situations contained in the source text and reconstruct such situations in the target text. Therefore, when assessing a translation, one may focus on whether the situations are reconstructed successfully.

As to the translation of Chang Hen Ge, it is quite clear that there are four key situations in the long poem. The first situation (from sentence No.1 to No.30) describes Yang Yuhuan's being chosen by Emperor Xuanzong of the Tang Dynasty and his excessive love for her. The second situation (from sentence No.31 to No.50) covers Yang Yuhuan's death because of a revolt and the emperor's sorrow. The third situation (from sentence No.51 to No.74) depicts the Emperor's great miss of her. The last situation (from sentence No.75 to No.120) focuses on Yang Yuhuan's love for the Emperor in another world.

The translators of the two versions translated the poem line after line in accordance with the source text. And the four situations of the source text have been reconstructed in the target versions. In this sense, the two versions are successful translation product by the translators.

G. The Assessment of the Translations in Terms of Intertextuality

It is mentioned that every text is constructed as a mosaic of citations, every text is an absorption and transformation of other texts. Intertextuality is concerned with the ways in which the production and reception of a given text depend upon the participants' knowledge of other texts. This knowledge can be applied by a process describable in terms of mediation. It is indispensable for a translator to perform translation under the guidance of the theory of intertextuality, that is, to produce a successful target text on the basis of the translator's knowledge of the two categories of inter-textual referential system of other relevant texts.

Thus, when assessing a translation product, one should apply the theory of intertextuality.

When assessed in terms of intertextuality, the two versions are undoubtedly good poems. And some difference between versions lies in that Xu Yuanchong's version is in better harmony with the source text in terms of structure, stanza and rhyme. And Gladys Yang's version does not have strict rhyme in every stanza in comparison to the source text, but there is a balance in terms of cadence within every stanza.

IV. Conclusion

From the discussion above, it can be seen that the seven standards of textuality can not only be employed to distinguish texts from non-texts, but more importantly they are applicable in the assessment of translation products as well. To be exact, a translation product can be assessed in terms of cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality, which makes translation assessment more operational in translation practice.

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The Analysis of Job Related Stress on Teachers of Junior High Schools and High Schools of Kermanshah Province

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***Abstract*—This study has been designed with the purpose of analyzing factors causing job-stress and the amount of stress prevalence in teachers. In this research 150 teachers were selected according to a multi stage cluster sampling. This study used a 66 questioning scale called TSS scale (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978). Some correlational analyses and independent sample t-tests were used. Findings indicated that job-related stress of men and women do not differ significantly. No correlation was also observed between job- related stress and marital status, level of education. However, in the subscales of socioeconomic difficulties and restricted time issues there was a significant difference between single and married teachers on English language.**

***Index Terms*—stress, job satisfaction, marital status, level of education, employment condition, restricted time**

I. Introduction

Sometimes human life influenced by some factors gets into a psychological tension and this matter provides some solutions and methods for getting away from those tensions. Psychological pressure or "stress" is one of the key factors of threat in nowadays life (Mitchell, 2005). Stress is a collection of general reactions of human being to inner and outer incompatible and unpredictable factors so that whenever the human's adaptation to inner and outer factors are removed, stress will appear. (Rezaee, 2002) and Nowadays only a few people are not familiar with this definition because there are a lot of people who talk about the pressures of work and life. So we can say that tension is a part of a person's normal and everyday life. Furthermore evidence shows that problems resulting from stress generating events have increased in the 20th century especially in western advanced countries to the point where some commentators call our age the "age of stress" (Kyriacou, & Sutcliffe, 1978a).

Each person faces a big amount of stress sources in his/her life in a way that it influences him/her from different aspects. These factors can result from the environment for example different accidents, life events, death and war or they can stem from internal aspects and characterization such as contradictions, failures, shortages, privations, psychological pressures resulting from job conditions are stress generating and are the sub-sets of environmental factors and are related to the working side of a person's life (Rasooli, 2003).

The reflection and demonstrations of stress can appear in a person as lack of health, depression, anxiety, lack of competence, weak mentality, disliking work, constant absence, job dissatisfaction, not being punctual and complaining about the people in charge (Selye, 1993 cited in Mitchell, 2001). According to some vast international researches (Mitchell, 2001) on the field of stress and job satisfaction of teachers, the mutual relationship between these two subjects has been confirmed and the results show that high level stress provides dissatisfaction of jobs in people and this dissatisfaction plays a role in decreasing extra stress and functioning. Here there is the need to mention that job satisfaction on the one hand is a symmetrical result of factors such as individual specifications (necessity, affection, motivation) and on the other hand jobbing characteristics (type of job, job environment) (Kyriacou, 2001).

Therefore it seems that stress, with its high influence on a person's competence and functioning, also influences the amount of satisfaction. Teachers who are under the burden of teaching and training are not only like other people, exposed to stress factors but also it seems that this exposure is more in teachers because they face a job which is troublesome, difficult, has a high responsibility and a high amount of work and low amount of welfare facilities and it is natural that the intensity of pressure frequency generating from this job compared to other jobs is more and consequently this matter influences the amount of satisfaction they have towards their profession.

A. Statement of the Problem

The studies which have been done regarding stress generating factors have some complications because on one hand the concept of stress is viewed from both positive and negative point of view and on the other hand stress is also a mental phenomenon. Therefore, different views about stress have been proposed in order to be able to measure its various effects.

Generally, in different cultures different definitions of stress are given such as the definitions given in Lewis (1999). In addition, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) have defined stress as an answer to undesirable feelings such as failure, anxiety, aggression and depression that generate from the job of teaching. The relationship of these work related stress factors with mental health and job satisfaction will be investigated in this research.

This point should be mentioned that stressors exposed to a person from the area of education and training is not all negative factors (Dolati, 2002). The stress generating factors in education and training environments that have been collected in researches are: contradiction between colleagues, the condition of the working environment, students unsuitable behavior, lack or low motivation for studying in students, high amount of work in a low amount of time and low economic and social condition. (Kyriacou and Stcliffe, 1978). Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) believe that the behavioral gesture of a person, the focus of control and the method of opposing to stress are influential factors in the adjustment of the relationship between job satisfaction and stress and people who have an outside focus control, are faced with more stress.

Recently a great amount of concerns have been observed among those involving in educational affairs about mental health of teachers in Iran because high stress is harmful for their health and capabilities which in turn can affect their way of teaching, personal life, and most important of all the students; therefore, detecting stress generating factors among teachers and reducing and probably removing these factors are among the challenges of Ministry of education.

According to Kyriacou and Sutcliffe model of teacher stress (1978a) understanding stress, results from the teacher's inference, the course of which is as follows: 1. He is exposed to a request. 2. He cannot fulfill those requests or has problems in fulfilling them, and 3. Consequently, his psychological and physical health is threatened.

In this regard Habibi (2007) indicated that teachers were most satisfied with moral values, creativity, activity, variety and application of their abilities and were least satisfied with policies of educational system, development and job-safety. This study is in line with Rostami Nia (2000).

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) mention the following six factors as the main causes of stress: 1. Excessive load of work. 2. Lack of professional development. 3. Not having a good social position. 4. Inappropriate relations among colleagues. 4. Large number of students in class and their not having enough motivation for education 6. Low salary.

Stress of teachers threatens their psychological health, decreases their efficiency, causes job dissatisfaction among them and leads them to cancel their classes (Levinson, 1999).

Furthermore, stress can also have the consequence of negative attitudes towards job, students, colleagues and finally educational organization (Pisanti, Galliards and Razino, 2003). Therefore, teachers are exposed to stress and stress generating factors from different sources.

An overview of different studies concerning psychological stress indicates that feeling low social status, shortage of educational facilities, students misbehavior, mismatch between the volumes of course books and hours dedicated to covering the materials, lack of well-defined criteria for evaluating efficiency of teachers are among the stress generating sources for teachers (Newman & Beehr,1979; Shinn, Rosario, Morch & Chestnut, 1984).

B. Significance and Justification of the Study

According to what was mentioned above, a great amount of concern has come into existence among the commentators of education and learning because high levels of stress is harmful for their health and the output of their job and it can influence the way they teach, their personal life and most important of all the students. Thus, detecting job related stress factors and decreasing them is one of the main challenges of Ministry of education in Iran.

The Present study mainly has the purpose of detecting job related stress factors and investigating increase of stress among teachers of English language in junior high schools and high schools of Kermanshah province. No Studies have been done in this regard in Kermanshah province among teachers of English. By detecting the stress generating factors, there would be possibility of giving some recommendations for having a better mental health among teachers of English. After detecting the stress generating factors, the counseling center would be able to hold counseling sessions, educational and life skill workshops to familiarize teachers with ways of opposing stress.

II. Research Questions

1. Is there any significant difference between male and female teachers of English regarding stress amount in Kermanshah province?

2. Is there any statistically significant difference between single and married teachers of English concerning job-related stress in Kermanshah province?

3. Is there any significant difference between single and married teachers of English language for job-related stress in the fragment scale of socioeconomic difficulties in teachers of English language in Kermanshah province?

4. Is there any significant difference between single and married teachers of English language concerning job-related stress in the subscale of restricted time on them?

5. Is there any statistically significant correlation between employment conditions and job-related stress among teachers of English in Kermanshah province?

6. Is there any statistically significant correlation between single and married teachers of English language concerning job-related stress in the subscale of restricted time on them?

III. Method

A. Participants

The participants of this study have been teachers of English in junior high schools and high schools of Kermanshah in the educational year of 2008-2009. The participants have been selected according to multi stage cluster sampling. The population (Kermanshah province) was divided into three geographical areas, north and south as one area, centre and east each as one area. Due to the vastness of the Kermanshah province, it has been defined under three clusters and from each cluster a big and a famous city and from each big city 3 girls' schools and 3 boys' schools were chosen. The sample equals 150 people.

B. Instrumentation

To measure the amount of stress in teachers a questionnaire which included 66 questions called TSS scale, made by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) was used. Its Cranbach alpha coefficient validated by Habibi (2007) and the amount was 0.81.

C. Data Analysis

This is a causal-correlational and ex-post facto design study. Because there were two kinds of nominal and interval data, some independent sample t- tests and some correlation coefficient were computed.

IV. Results and Findings

To study the results, the numbers and figures relating to the research questions are given in the tables below. Regarding the first research question about the differences of stress amount in men and women teachers, the **t-** test has been used for independent samples. This test shows that there isn't any noticeable difference between men and women in terms of job stress.

TABLE1
T TEST FOR THE MEAN DIFFERENCE OF JOB RELATED STRESS OF MEN AND WOMEN

Gender	Mean	Standard deviation	Degree of freedom	t observed	P-value
Women	153/65	23/27	182	0.34	0.73
Men	154/78	21/80			

In table 2 the results relating to the independent t-test for the difference between single and married teachers and job stress, the case of the second research question has been given. The observed t score is 1.68 and it's only close to significant level. The results indicate that there is a difference between single and married teachers regarding job-related stress though nonsignificant, it is noticeable.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T – TEST TO COMPARE JOB RELATED STRESS OF SINGLE AND MARRIED TEACHERS

Marital status	Mean	Standard deviation	Degree of freedom	T observed	P- value
Single	151/67	21/75	180	1/68	0/09
Married	157/46	23/97			

Regarding the third research question, table 3 indicates that in the fragment scale of social-economic difficulties, the difference between single and married teachers is significant, in other words in the fragment scale of social-economic difficulties in terms of stress there is a significant difference between single and married teachers.

TABLE3
T TEST FOR THE MEAN DIFFERENCE OF JOB RELATED STRESS OF SINGLE AND MARRIED TEACHERS IN THE FRAGMENT SCALE OF SOCIOECONOMIC DIFFICULTIES

Marital status	Mean	Standard deviation	Degree of freedom	T	P
Single	47/51	8/39	185	2/61	0/010
Married	50/96	8/88			

Table 4 which is related to the fourth research question shows that on the small scale of restricted time on teachers causing stress, there is a difference between single and married teachers as regards to time related stress. Restricted time causes more stress in married teachers.

TABLE 4
T TEST FOR THE MEAN DIFFERENCE OF OVERALL WORK RELATED STRESS BETWEEN SINGLE AND MARRIED TEACHERS AND THE EFFECT OF RESTRICTED TIME ON THEM.

marital status	Mean	Divergent from norm	Degree of freedom	T	P-value
Single	18/83	3/45	185	2/85	0/005
Married	20/44	4/02			

Table 5 concerning research question number 5 indicates that there is no significant correlation between the degree of education and work related stress. The correlation is such that examination on a sub scale is made impossible.

TABLE 5
COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND WORK RELATED STRESS

	Job related stress	Education level	Level of significance
Education	0.007	1.000	0.92
job related stress	1.000	0.007	

The data in table 6 shows that there is no significant correlation between the conditions of employment and overall work related stress. Nonetheless, the examination of sub scales seems necessary. The test was carried out and the findings for the last research question showed that the conditions of employment had a negative correlation with sub scale stress related to student's behavioral problems. However if the conditions of employment improve, it would seem that stress related to student's behavioral problems increases.

TABLE 6
CORRELATION BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND JOB RELATED STRESS

	Job related stress	Employment conditions	Level of significance
Employment conditions	0.082	1.000	0.263
job related stress	1.000	0.082	

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was analyzing factors causing job-stress and the amount of stress prevalence in high schools and junior high schools teachers of English in Kermanshah province using a questionnaire called TSS scale. The researcher posed six research questions which led the research.

The analysis of research findings indicates that there is no significant difference in the level of work related stress between men and women teachers in Kermanshah; they experience the same level of stress. This is in disagreement with the findings of Booney, Miller, Humphreys, and Reynolds (1989) who believe that work related stress for men is much higher than that of women's work related stress. The difference in the outcome of these findings can be a result of them taking into account jobs as a whole entity and not just the individual job of teaching. From another point of view, different variables may have been used in the research; this could also be another reason for the discord between the two different outcomes. Another point to be mentioned is the fact that in the culture of this region, all domestic work rests on the shoulders of the women as opposed to western cultures where there is a greater sharing of general household work. As a result women's career coupled with the housework may bring about higher levels of work related stress; this in turn balances out the stress of men and women giving them the same level of work related stress.

The findings related to the second research question based on the difference between work related stress of single and married teachers show that as a whole there is not a significant difference between the two groups. But on the minor scales of socioeconomic based problems and time related stress the cases of the third and fourth research questions, there was a significant difference. Married teachers have a higher degree of job related stress based on socioeconomic problems compared with their single counterparts. In addition they also experience a higher level of stress caused by time issues compared to single teachers. Even though in past researches this was of lesser significance, this finding can be interpreted as such; the costly expenses of married life and the low income and benefits of teaching leads to a greater level of stress among married teachers. Providing for a standard sized family of two children and the expenses related to them can be very challenging, especially for a family in which only one parent is employed. This can be very hard for people in the teaching profession. Even if both parents are employed, there is always a substitute for financial difficulties that causes stress, in any way these affairs cause a higher level of job- related stress from a socioeconomic point of view in married teachers in relation to their single counterparts. Of course it shouldn't be forgotten that single teachers have problems of their own and it does not indicate a lack of socioeconomic stress for single teachers. In fact single teachers are in the crucial stage in which making a life for themselves, is in itself a financial burden.

Findings also show that the level of education has no relation to the amount of stress experienced by English teachers. Teachers with a range of different levels of education experience the same amounts of stress. For this point two reasons can be stated: First, on the basis of the variables that have been used in the research, it seems that the sources of stress for people with different levels of education are the same, thus the stress experienced by people from different educational backgrounds is the same. Second, on the contrary to the researcher's expectations, most of the English teachers had a high level diploma (54%), and the others came from a variety of educational backgrounds. It may be for this reason that the state of work related stress at different levels of education has not yet been clarified.

Another part of the findings showed that employment status of teachers have no significant correlation with their overall stress levels. This finding is contrary to our expectations. It would seem that teachers who don't have regular wages and a contract would experience higher levels of stress. It is not possible to say that regular employment from a socioeconomic standing for people who are in work or without work is the same, the reason must be found elsewhere.

limitations of the study

- The participants of the study were teachers of English in junior high schools and high schools of Kermanshah province and may not be generalizeable to other groups people.
- The sample was not homogeneous regarding level of education. Consequently, the results the results should be interpreted with caution.
- About 54% of participants had not specified their employment conditions and this might have affected the results.

Suggestions for further research

- It is recommended that teachers of other courses be included in the study so as to come up with better results.
- Each field has its own specific variables which may be considered as its stress generating factors. Therefore, it is recommended that these related variables be considered in other researches.

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Motivation and the Choice of Language Learning Strategies

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***Abstract*—The present study aims at investigating the relationship between intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and language learning strategyuse among Iranian EFL learners. Motivation is viewed within the framework of Self-determination Theory (SDT), in which intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation are not antagonistic, and extrinsic motivation is seen along a continuum. To this end, 72 participants filled in two questionnaires on motivation and language learning strategies. The results indicated that intrinsic motivation was significantly related to cognitive and metacognitive strategies. However, extrinsic modes of motivation, namely, *identified* and *external* types of motivation were not significantly related to the use of language learning strategies. Yet, *integrated* mode of extrinsic motivation was negatively associated with memory and affective language learning strategies, and *introjected* motivation was negatively associated with cognitive strategies. In addition, it turned out that Iranian learners were mainly intrinsically motivated towards learning English language, and used metacognitive strategies more frequently than other types of strategies.**

***Index Terms*—intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, language learning strategies**

I. Introduction

Language learning strategies are one of the cognitive variables that are highly associated with success and achievement. Chamot and O'malley (1990) defined language learning strategies as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (P.1). Similarly, Oxford (2003) pointed out that language learning strategies help the learners with "perception, reception, storage, retention, and retrieval" stages of language learning (P. 274). Not only are the choice and frequency of language learning strategies determining factors in success and higher achievement, but the capability to mix the strategies that are convenient to a certain situation is also of paramount importance. In this regard, Studies show more proficient learners not only use more and a wider range of language learning strategies, but also have the ability to mix different types of strategies in a harmonious manner to satisfy the needs of a certain task (Oxford, 2008). It might be interpreted that if learners are equipped with language learning strategies, then they will engage actively in the process of learning.

Like any other area of study, language learning strategies have also taken many directions each focusing on one certain aspect of this concept. Chamot (2004) has outlined five main directions in language learning strategy research: first, studies dealing with strategy identification that means determining the language learning strategies used by learners (Vossoughi & Ebrahimi, 2003; Nikoopour, Amini Farsani & Nasiri, 2011; Nikoopour, Amini Farsani & Kashefi Neishabouri, 2011); second, taxonomies or strategy classifications which have their agenda in putting single strategies among larger groups of strategies (Rubin, 1981; Oxford, 1990; O'malley & Chamot, 1990); third, investigating factors influencing the use of language learning strategies such as personality types, age, gender, years of language learning, learning styles, attitude, aptitude, motivation and language proficiency (Akbari &Talebinezhad, 2003; Chang, 2005; Sheikh Al Eslami & Khayer, 2006; Sobhaninezhad, 2006; Ziahosseini & Salehi, 2007; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Nikoopour & Amini Farsani, 2010; Rahimi, 2005); forth, the effect of context and culture on strategy use (Wharton, 2000; Oliveras-Cuhat, 2002), and finally, research studies dealing with strategy instruction (Oxford, 1990; Tabrizi, Nikoopour & Amini Farsani, 2010).

However, there is a split among scholars regarding the identification of language learning strategies among different learners. For example, Nikoopour, et al. (2011) found that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used, whereas memory strategies were the least frequently used. In the same vein, Hong-Name and Leavell (2006) as well as Vossoughi and Ebrahimi (2003) reported metacognitive strategies as the most frequently used and memory as well as affective strategies as the least frequently ones. Furthermore, Sadighi and Zarafshan (2006), Ziahosseini and Salehi (2007), Kavasoglu (2009) and Nikoopour, et al. (2011) showed that metacognitive strategies were most frequently used by learners. Oxford and Ehrman's (1995) study, on the other hand, revealed that compensation strategies were more preferred by learners, and Lan and Oxford (2003) concluded that Taiwanese elementary learners utilized compensation and affective strategies more than other types of strategy. These inconsistencies might be the result of some extraneous variables like *age*, *gender, level of proficiency*, and *motivation*.

Motivation as one of the sources contributing to individual differences has been widely examined with respect to its relationship with language learning strategies. Dornyei and Otto (1998) defined motivation as "the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out"(P.65). Dornyei (1998) emphasized the importance of motivation by saying that not only does motivation act as a trigger to initiate language learning and increase the chances to maintain the back breaking process of learning, but it can also compensate for some learners' deficiencies such as lack of aptitude. Unlike many theories on motivation that focus only on the amount of this variable, Self-determination Theory (SDT) is concerned with difference in type. Deci and Ryan (2000), classified motivation into intrinsic and extrinsic, and the latter into four categories based on the degree of autonomy and self-determination. Within the framework of SDT, *intrinsic motivation* is the most highly autonomous type of motivation that derives from one's inherent interest. *Extrinsic motivation* is viewed on a continuum and classified into four types of *integrated regulation* that is the most self-determined, self-regulated, internalized and less controlled type of extrinsic motivation, and justifies performing actions that are personally valued; *identified regulation* which stands for those forms of motivation in which learners have personally identified the value of certain actions; *introjected regulation* that characterizes learners' performing some sort of behaviour for avoiding a feeling of pressure or guilt and gaining self-esteem; and *external regulation* that is the most heteronomous forms of motivation that justifies learners' doing certain actions for satisfying external demands. Dornyei (2005) named SDT as one of the most influential theories in the field of motivation, some of whose aspects have been adopted by many researchers.

In a study done by Chang (2005), he found that Taiwanese learners were more externally and as a result, more extrinsically motivated towards learning English language. However, Ziahosseini and Salehi (2007) revealed that Iranian learners were more intrinsically motivated.

Studies on Motivation and Language Learning Strategies

As Benson and Gao (2008, p. 27) stated, since language learning strategies seem to be "malleable", there have been many studies focusing on the effect of other individual differences such as motivation on this variable (Chang, 2005; Sheikh Al Eslami & Khayer, 2006; Ziahosseini & Salehi, 2007; Yin, 2008). Benson and Gao (2008) classified individual differences into two categories: first, supposedly innate attributes like age, gender, aptitude as well as learning styles; and second, supposedly acquired attributes such as motivation and attitudes. With regard to the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies, Yang (1999) showed that high motivation and learners' beliefs resulted in the use of strategies, and this in turn, reformed learners' beliefs and elevated motivation. Moreover, strategy training, as McDonough (2005) stated, has positive effects on learners' motivation via increasing self-confidence or self-esteem. Wenden (1991) also suggested that strategic instruction fosters learners' autonomy, a factor that is very determining in reaching optimal motivation.

The logic behind using language learning strategies is due to so many factors such as the learner's age, career orientation, gender, attitude, aptitude and motivation (Oxford, 1986). Besides, the interaction of motivation and learning strategies is obvious in Rubin's representation of knowledge and beliefs in which he viewed knowledge and beliefs of having five components: task knowledge, self-knowledge, beliefs, background knowledge, and strategy knowledge. In this model, there is a reciprocal relationship between strategy knowledge and self-knowledge that consists of style and motivation (Rubin, 2005). Inspired by previous studies in this area, and due to the salient significance of these two variables on the learning process, the researchers try to provide reasonable answers to the following research questions:

1. Which categories of language learning strategies are used most frequently by Iranian EFL learners?
2. What is the commonest motivational orientation of Iranian EFL learners towards learning English language?
3. Is there any significant relationship between motivation and language learning strategies?

II. Method

Participants

Seventy two upper-intermediate EFL learners from intact classes in three institutes in Tehran, aging from 16 to 42 participated in the present study and filled in the items in demographic information part, motivation questionnaire and language learning strategy questionnaire. Among 72 students who participated in this study, 24 were male and 48 were female.

Instruments

For the purpose of the present study, 15 students attended the pilot study and filled in the Persian version of motivation questionnaire formulated by Chang (2005) based on Deci and Ryan's classification of motivational orientations. The motivation questionnaire consisted of five subscales; namely intrinsic, and extrinsic motivation (integrated, identified, introjected and external regulation), that explored students' motivational orientation on a continuum based on the degree of their autonomy and self-regulation. The reliability index for the questionnaire was reported as 0.82 based on Cronbach's Alpha.

The second instrument utilized throughout this study was a 50-item Persian version of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) that is highly reliable and the most frequently used measure of assessing language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). The reliability index based on Cronbach's Alpha for this questionnaire was reported to be 0.88. SILL contained six sub-categories; namely, memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

Procedure

The questionnaire on motivation was piloted with 15 students and revised in order to remove any potential ambiguities. After the completion of the pilot study, the questionnaires were administered to 72 upper-intermediate EFL students participating in general English courses held in three language institutes in Tehran. The researchers were present while students were filling in the questionnaires, giving them the opportunity to ask questions that might pop up in their minds. Subsequent to this stage, the data were fed into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences(SPSS), the 16th version, and Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for motivation and language learning strategy questionnaires to check for their reliability.

III. Results

Having done the data entry, the researchers went through data analyses. To be explicit enough, each research question is analyzed separately.

A. Analysis of the First Research Question

1. Which categories of language learning strategies are used most frequently by Iranian EFL learners?

In order to probe the first question of the study, the descriptive statistics for each subcategory of language learning strategies were calculated. The comparison of the means revealed that metacognitive strategies (M=3.91) were most frequently used by Iranian language learners, followed by social strategies (M=3.79), cognitive strategies (M=3.57), compensation strategies (M=3.49), memory strategies (M=3.45), and affective strategies (M=3.07) which were reported to be used the least.

Taking Oxford's (1990) key to understanding mean scores on SILL-based instruments into account: high use=4.5 to 5.0 (always or almost always used) and 3.5 to 4.4 (usually used), medium use=2.5 to 3.4 (sometimes used), Low use = 1.5 to 2.4 (usually not used) or 1.0–1.4 (never or almost never used), Iranian learners were high users with regard to metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies, and they were medium users in terms of memory, compensation and affective strategies.

TABLE 1.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY TYPES

Learning strategy types	Mean	Standard deviation
Memory strategies	3.45	.616
Cognitive strategies	3.57	.540
Compensation strategies	3.49	.523
Metacognitive strategies	3.91	.547
Affective strategies	3.07	.658
Social strategies	3.79	.741

B. Analysis of the Second Research Question

2. What is the commonest motivational orientation of Iranian learners towards learning English language?

Table 2 indicates the descriptive statistics for different motivational orientations. The results showed that Iranian learners were mainly intrinsically oriented (M=4.31) towards learning English language, i.e. they had inherent interest in learning the language. Integrated motivation (M=4.12), introjected motivation (M=3.64), identified motivation (M=3.16) and external motivation (M=1.87) stood in the lower ranks respectively. The low mean for external motivation indicated that they rarely learned English for satisfying their external demands.

TABLE 2.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS

Motivation types	Mean	Standard deviation
Intrinsic motivation	4.31	.467
Integrated motivation	4.12	1.00
Identified motivation	3.16	1.13
Introjected motivation	3.64	.970
External motivation	1.87	.695

C. Analysis of the Third Research Question

3. Is there any significant relationship between motivation and language learning strategies?

In order to find out the relationship between motivational orientations and language learning strategy types, Pearson Product-moment correlation was used. The result of this analysis was summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
CORRELATION BETWEEN MOTIVATION TYPES AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Intrinsic	.127	.248*	.067	.283*	.009	.126
Integrated	-.290*	-.082	-.002	-.004	-.380**	-.101
Identified	-.205	.030	-.091	.032	-.238	-.004
Introjected	-.130	-.246*	-.131	-.117	-.138	-.195
External	.063	-.067	.058	.001	.024	-.037

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) . **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As can be shown from the table 3, a positive relationship was found between *intrinsic* motivation and metacognitive (r=.283) as well as cognitive (r=.248) strategies. In addition, intrinsic motivation showed a relatively moderate relationship with memory (r=.127) and social (r=.126) strategies, and low correlation with compensation (r=.067) and affective (r=.009) strategies.

A negative and significant correlation was identified between *integrated* motivation and affective (r= -.380) as well as memory (r= -.290) strategies. The correlation between integrated motivation and other strategy categories was negative and relatively low. A medium to high negative correlation was found between *identified* motivation and affective (r= - .238) as well as memory (r= -.205) strategies. The relationship of this type of motivation with other strategy categories is low and mainly negative. Furthermore, *introjected* motivation negatively correlated with cognitive strategies (r= -.246). Not very significant correlation was found between introjected and other types of strategies. Finally, *external* motivation indicated very low and positive correlation with memory (r=.063), compensation (r= .058), affective (r=.024) and metacognitive (.001) strategies as well as low and negative correlation with cognitive (r= -.067) and social (r= -.037) strategies.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the current study demonstrated that metacognitive strategies (M=3.91) were most frequently used by Iranian language learners. These findings are consistent with the results of the studies by Vossoughi and Ebrahimi (2003), Sadighi and Zarafshan (2006), Hong-Name and Leavell (2006), Ziahosseini and Salehi (2007), Kavasoglu (2009) and Nikoopour, et al.(2011) where metacognitive strategies were most frequently used by learners. It shows that Iranian EFL learners mainly utilized strategies that were concerned with planning, organizing and evaluating the learning process. However, the results are inconsistent with the findings of Oxford and Ehrman's (1995) study in which compensation strategies were more preferred by adult learners, and Lan and Oxford's(2003) study in which they concluded that Taiwanese elementary learners utilized compensation and affective strategies more than other types of strategy. It might be interpreted that these inconsistencies might be due to some different factors, such as nationality, contexts of situation, gender, age, level of proficiency, attitude, and motivation.

As for other language learning strategies, Iranian EFL learners preferred to use other strategy subcategories as social (M=3.79), cognitive (M=3.57), compensation (M=3.49), as well as memory strategies (M=3.45). The high mean for social and cognitive strategies suggests that Iranian EFL learners have identified the significance of these two types of strategies, and they tried to facilitate the process of learning and communication using these strategies. Finally, affective strategies (M=3.07) were reported to be used the least, i.e. Iranian EFL learners did not frequently use strategies to deal with their own feeling while learning English. The same results have been reported by Vossoughi and Ebrahimi's (2003) study, where affective strategies owned the lowest mean or were used least frequently by American Persian and Persian learners. Hong-Name and Leavell (2006) came up with similar findings, i.e. affective and memory strategies were the least frequently used types of strategy. Similarly, Sadighi and Zarafshan's (2006) as well as Nikoopour, et al.'s (2011) studies revealed that memory strategies were the least preferred type of strategy by Iranian EFL university students. With the same token, Ziahosseini and Salehi (2007) reported similar results; they showed that the lowest frequency went to the affective strategies (M=2.46).

Having computed the mean for each of the motivational orientations, it turned out that Iranian EFL learners were mainly intrinsically oriented towards learning English language. The findings are inconsistent with the study done by Chang (2005) who found that Taiwanese learners were more externally and as a result, more extrinsically motivated towards learning English language. However, the results are consistent with the findings of the study by Ziahosseini and Salehi (2007) who revealed that Iranian learners were more intrinsically motivated. This shows that Iranian learners mainly had inherent interest in learning English, and this language was appealing to them. The results also implied that they chose to learn the language willingly since intrinsic motivation is the most highly autonomous type of motivation. In addition, the high mean for integrated (M=4.12), identified (M=3.16) and introjected motivation (M=3.64) compared to external motivation (M=1.87) disclosed that for Iranian EFL learners, learning English was personally valued. Moreover, it can be concluded that Iranian EFL learners have identified the value and importance of learning English. This is while some others try to learn language to gain self-esteem. Few learners committed learning English to satisfy external demands like getting rewards, course requirements or satisfying their parents' expectations.

Regarding the correlation analysis between motivation types and language learning strategy categories, the researchers found a positive and significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and metacognitive as well as cognitive strategies. It shows that learners who were inherently interested in learning English used strategies concerning planning, organizing and evaluating the learning process, as well as strategies dealing with "identification, grouping, retention and storage of language material, and the language use strategies of retrieval, rehearsal and comprehension or production of words, phrases and other elements of the L2"(Schmitt, 2002) more frequently than other types of strategies. This is also in line with Pintrich's(1999) statement that "The use of metacognitive strategies to control learning is closely linked to motivation and self-regulated learning (Benson & Gao, 2008, p. 90). Nevertheless, only medium to low correlation was found between intrinsic motivation and other types of strategies, namely memory, social, compensation and affective strategies. Similar results were found by Ziahosseini and Salehi's (2007) study where intrinsic motivation significantly correlated with metacognitive (r=.27) and cognitive strategies(r=.24) with the only difference that it also significantly correlated with memory strategies(r=.28).

Integrated motivation showed negative and significant correlation with affective and memory strategies. In addition, it had low and negative correlation with cognitive, metacognitive, compensation and social strategies. This revealed that integrated motivation is not significantly associated with the use of these language learning strategies. The same lack of association is also true for other extrinsic modes of motivation namely identified, introjected and external motivation. There was positive and low correlation between identified motivation and both cognitive as well as metacognitive strategies. Moreover, there is positive and low correlation between integrated motivation and memory, compensation, social and affective strategies, that evidences the lack of association between this type of motivation and language learning strategy use.

The results also showed that there was a negative and significant correlation between *introjected* motivation and cognitive type of strategies, which suggests that the more introjected-oriented learners are or the more tendency they have towards learning English language for avoiding a feeling of pressure or guilt and gaining self-esteem, the less cognitive strategies they use. The correlation between introjected motivation and other types of strategy is negative and low.

Finally, the least self-determined type of motivation or *external* motivation did not show any significant relationship with different categories of strategies. In fact, there were positive and low relationships between external motivation and memory, compensation, metacognitive and affective strategies, as well as negative and low correlation between external motivation and both cognitive and social strategies. The findings showed that different modes of extrinsic motivation were not mainly associated with the use of language learning strategies. The same result was reported by Ziahosseini and Salehi's (2007) study despite the fact that they viewed extrinsic motivation as one whole entity not placing it on a continuum. Nevertheless, Chang (2005) found positive and significant correlations between integrated motivation and cognitive strategies, introjected motivation and cognitive strategies, and identified motivation and all types of language learning strategies. Yet, like what was found in this study, a negative correlation was reported between external motivation and cognitive strategies in the study by Chang (2005). A possible explanation for the findings may be that those students who studied English language for the sake of language itself and had inherent interest in learning the language made more use of language learning strategies, while those learners who had some extrinsic reasons for learning the language rarely used language learning strategies even if they chose to learn English willingly.

V. Pedagogical Implications

Pedagogically speaking, the fact that Iranian EFL learners were mainly intrinsically motivated towards learning English implies that they had one necessary but not sufficient criterion for an optimal learning. Therefore, this advantage can be utilized by the teachers, and they can guide students to the right direction by equipping them with some working tools like language learning strategies.

In addition, results revealed that Iranian EFL learners were high users concerning metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies, and they were medium users in terms of memory, compensation and affective strategies. Due to positive and

significant correlation of metacognitive and cognitive strategies with intrinsic motivation, teachers are suggested to focus more on instructing these two types of strategies that have great influence on intrinsic motivation.

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On the Study of Synesthesia and Synesthetic Metaphor*

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***Abstract*—This paper aims to introduce a brief review on the study of synesthesia from two different perspectives. By presenting these different findings from various approaches, more information about the nature of synesthesia can be learnt.**

***Index Terms*—synesthesia, synesthetic metaphor, conventional metaphor theory, conceptual metaphor theory**

I. Introduction

Etymologically speaking, the word "synesthesia" or "synaesthesia" comes directly from the Greek words "syn", which means "together", and "aesthesis", which means "perception" or "sensation".

Synesthesia has a long research history. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, synesthesia enjoyed a flurry of scientific study, mostly descriptive. By the mid-twentieth century, however, synesthesia had fallen off scientists' radar, a casualty of the behaviorism movement (Carpenter, 2001). In the 1990s, and especially since the turn of the century, there has been a renaissance of research on synesthesia, with many outstanding researchers publishing their data in books and journals (e.g., Baron-Cohen, 1996; Baron-Cohen and Harrison, 1997; Cytowic, 1997; Harrison, 2001; Shen, 1997; Yu, 2003).

Generally speaking, there are two paths to the study pertaining to synesthesia (Day, 1996). The first, which makes use of scientific approaches, mainly investigates the phenomenon of real co-sensation. For example, one may experience that high vowel sounds can cause the sensation of bright colors, e.g., the higher the pitch of the music he/she hears, the brighter the visual image he/she feels. The second, which follows from theories of metaphor, chiefly describes the milder forms of intersensory associations and connections revealed through language (i.e. synesthetic metaphor).

Though there exists difference between the two paths, they are by no means irrelevant. On the contrary, they are closely related. In particular, the first approach can provide scientific bases for the relevant linguistic research.

II. An Analysis of Synesthesia from a Scientific Perspective

A. The Existence of Synesthesia

Scientists have been convinced of the existence of synesthesia and cite evidence in support (Baron-Cohen, 1996):

a. The impressive test-retest reliability in the consistency of colours triggered by different words (in the case of "coloured hearing").

b. The similarity of reports from different cultures and different times across the century.

c. The consistency of sex ratio (it is overwhelmingly a female condition).

d. The familial pattern to the condition.

e. The neuroimaging data showing different cortical blood flow patterns in women with synesthesia in comparison to women without the condition.

B. Phenomenology of Synesthesia

Cytowic (1997), a major researcher on synesthesia, finds that synesthesia is the involuntary physical experience of a cross-modal association, because the stimulation of one sensory modality causes a perception in one or more different senses. Based on various case studies, Cytowic (1997) puts forward five diagnostic features of synesthesia.

a. Synesthesia is involuntary and unsuppressable but elicited by a stimulus that is usually identified without difficulty.

b. Synesthesia is projected. It is perceived externally in peri-personal space, the limb-axis space immediately surrounding the body.

c. Synesthetic perceptions are stable and durable. For example, if someone experiences the color red when viewing the digit "3", he/she always experiences exactly that color. Experiments to test the consistency of synesthetic experience found that after a period of one year, 92.3% of reported synesthetic responses were identical with those given a year earlier. Furthermore, synesthetic experiences are genetic and unelaborated. Synesthetes (i.e. individuals who experience real co-sensation) may experience colors, simple shapes, or feel rough or smooth textures, and while these may be

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highly specific, they do not go beyond base perceptions.

d. Synesthesia is memorable. Memories of synesthetes are often excellent.

e. Synesthesia is emotional. The experience is usually accompanied by a sense of certitude (the "this is it" feeling) and a conviction that what synesthetes perceive is real and valid.

C. Neurological Research on Synesthesia

Over the past 200 years a number of hypotheses have been put forward to explain the cause of synesthesia. Current theories, however, in some way recognise the findings of recent neurological studies that suggest the possibility that the executive areas of the human brain, primarily in the frontal lobes, manifest a high degree of sensory integration. Among these current theories, the Cross-Modal Transfer hypothesis and the Neonatal Synaesthesia hypothesis are most influential.

The Cross-Modal Transfer hypothesis (Lyons, 2001) is now a widely accepted explanation for the occurrence of synesthesia although it was radical when it was first proposed. It supports the view that detection of intersensory equivalence is present from birth, and that perceptual development is characterized by gradual differentiation.

The Neonatal Synaesthesia hypothesis builds on the Cross-Modal Transfer evidence, but suggests that early in infancy, probably up to about 4 months of age, all human babies experience sensory input in an undifferentiated way. Sounds trigger auditory, visual as well as tactile experiences all at once. Following this early initial phase of normal synesthesia, the different sensory modalities become increasingly modular. Adult synesthesia, has been suggested to be as a result of a breakdown in the process of modularization, such that during infancy the modularization process was not completed (Lyons, 2001). This view implies that if not now, then at some time in the past, people have all experienced synesthetic perception.

D. Psychological Research on Synesthesia

During the past decades, psychologists have conducted fruitful research on synesthesia (e.g., Baron-Cohen and Harrison 1997; Cytowic 1989; Harrison 2001; Marks 1978). Psychologists believe synesthesia is a normal cognitive functioning and regard it as the product of a mental association of sense-data. According to the psychological experiments, the correspondences of sense-data are consistent. Furthermore, the results of normal subjects resemble those of synesthetes, which can suggest that the phenomenon of real co-sensation and synesthetic metaphor are only gradually different.

E. The Importance of Scientific Research on Synesthesia

The findings from various scientific domains on synesthesia play an important role for people to study the major concern of the dissertation (i.e. synesthetic metaphor). The reasons are as follows:

Firstly, the scientific evidence which proves the existence of synesthesia and the five diagnostic features of synesthesia proposed by Cytowic (1997) suggest that synesthesia is both physiologically and psychologically real, which is the prerequisite for the study of synesthetic metaphor.

Secondly, neurological studies bring out the possibility of sensory integration in the front lobes of the brain, which may provide neurological basis for synesthetic metaphor.

Finally, research from psychology brings forward an important finding that the phenomenon of real co-sensation and synesthetic metaphor are only gradually different. Therefore, a psychological analysis of synesthesia will be helpful for people to appreciate the depth and extent of human metaphorical capacity.

To sum up, the research of synesthesia in science can shed important light on the study of synesthetic metaphor in linguistics. In the first place, it proves that synesthesia is physiologically and psychologically real, that is, synesthesia does exist. In the next place, it provides us with an important fact that synesthetic metaphors, though linguistically shaped, may have some neurological and psychological underpinnings, which will facilitate the readings of synesthetic metaphor.

III. An Analysis of Synesthesia from a Linguistic Perspective

Different from the phenomenon of real co-sensation, synesthetic metaphor involves the transfer of attributes of one sensory domain to another sensory domain. For example, in the phrase "a cold light", people talk about a visual concept (light) in terms of the word (cold) that belongs to the touch domain.

Everyday language is rife with synesthetic metaphors. In English, people have expressions like "noisy colour", "cold words", "sweet face", "soft green".

Synesthetic metaphors are ubiquitous in literary works as well:

And like music on the waters

Is thy *sweet voice* to me.

(George Gordon Byron *There Be None of Beauty's Daughters*)

In the above example, the phrase "sweet voice" makes the whole sentence vivid and creative. What is special about it is that words for taste (sweet) is used to describe hearing (voice). In other words, it is the usage of synesthetic metaphor that gives the sentences a sense of originality.

Due to the novelty and creativity of synesthetic metaphor, many researchers tend to analyze the phenomenon. As a type of metaphor, synesthetic metaphor can be approached from the perspective of conventional metaphor theory or conceptual metaphor theory.

A. Perspective of Conventional Metaphor Theory

Conventional metaphor theory regards metaphors as "figures of speech, i.e. as more or less ornamental devices used in rhetorical style" (Ungerer and Schmid, 1996, p.114). Metaphorical language, according to its claim, is a matter of deviation from the norm instead of a part of ordinary conventional language.

Influenced by the theory, some Chinese scholars such as Yan W. & Zhihong Z. (1998) and Hongying D (2000) are devoted to the discussion of synesthetic metaphor from the rhetoric point of view. They believe that synesthetic metaphor has an important ornamental function in literary works. What's more, synesthetic metaphor can also be combined with other figures of speech such as simile, oxymoron, transferred epithet to evoke multiple experiences.

The traditional metaphor theory puts its emphasis on the ornamental function of synesthetic transfer. However, when it is applied to account for the structure of synesthetic metaphor, it doesn't work.

In his *Synaesthesia and Synaesthetic Metaphors*, Day (1996) states that synesthetic metaphor can not be accounted by traditional semantic metaphor theories due to its novelty of cross-modal associations. To clarify his viewpoint, he takes the comparison theory for example.

The comparison theory tends to regard metaphor as a form of elliptical simile (Goatly, 1997). In other words, metaphor interpretation is usually accomplished by turning each expression into a complex simile-like form. For instance, to say "King Richard was a lion" is really to say "King Richard was like a lion".

The comparison theory works quite well with current syntactic theories (Day, 1996). However, when it is applied to explain synesthetic metaphor, it does not hold water. The problem of the comparison model is its claim that the underlying simile form with the "like" is always retrievable and that it always has the same semantic or pragmatic meaning as the form with the suppression or deletion. The claim, in fact, is workable in interpreting sentence such as "King Richard was (like or similar to) a lion". Nevertheless, when the model is used to account for a sentence containing synesthetic metaphor, it poses too much of a problem. For example, if the sentence "The violin gave a sour sound" ("sour sound" is a synesthetic metaphor) is expanded, it will change into "The violin gave a sound like or similar to the sourness of 'something'". Relevant to "a sour sound", though Webster gives some definition to be interpreted as metaphorical such as "hostile", "unpleasant", "sullen", readers are at a loss as to retrieving the underlying form, and thus, the metaphor is still unresolved.

B. Perspective of Conceptual Metaphor Theory

Since traditional semantic metaphor theory is inefficient in interpreting synesthetic metaphor owing to its own limitation, the study of synesthetic metaphor should be carried out in a broader background.

With the rising of the second trend of the cognitive science in the early 1970s, the study of metaphor has extended its scope to cognitive linguistics. Along this movement, a new paradigm in metaphor research was introduced by Lakoff and Johnson in their epoch-making book *Metaphors We Live By* (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). Their main viewpoint, which is later known as "conceptual metaphor theory", holds that metaphor is ubiquitous in everyday language and thought. Rather than mere poetic or rhetorical embellishment, metaphor is a major and fundamental part of people's ordinary way of conceptualizing the world.

Compared with the traditional perspective, the conceptual metaphor theory is revolutionary. In fact, the conceptual metaphor theory is a very good candidate to fully interpret the synesthetic metaphor because it can provide wider context than other metaphor theories as described in the following table (Table 2.1) proposed by Leezenberg (2001).

TABLE 2.1:
A CLASSIFICATION SCHEME OF METAPHOR THEORIES (LEEZENBERG 2001: 11)

Basis of interpretation / Level	**Referentialist** ('comparison')	**Descriptivist** ('interaction')	**Conceptualist**
(Syntax)	Chomsky	Bickerton	Reinhartse
Semantics	Mooij; Henle	Black I; Beardsley; Stern; Goodman	Lakoff & Johnson
Pragmatics	Grice	Black II; Searle; Martinich	Levinson; Sperber & Wilson
Outside linguistics proper	Davidson		Lakoff & Johnson

This table, in fact, is a classification of metaphor theories made by Leezenberg (2001). Compared with previous classifications (e.g., Black, 1962; Mooij, 1976), Leezenberg puts metaphor theories in a relatively wider context. Hence, it can give people a clearer picture to see metaphor theories. More importantly, this classification scheme includes most (if not all) of the major metaphor theories. Leezenberg classifies metaphor theories from two perspectives: (1) at what level is a metaphor accounted for? Is the metaphorical interpretation within linguistics or just outside linguistic theory? If a metaphor is accounted for within linguistic theory, then the levels are syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. If not, it is then outside linguistic proper; (2) through what means does a hearer determine the metaphorical interpretation, for

instance, in virtue of the descriptive information associated with the expressions used, or in virtue of the concepts or mental representation that are expressed by the words. Thus, a hearer can understand a metaphor in virtue of the properties that the referents of the metaphor have in common; this is called "comparison view". Leezenberg believes that such views are generally "referentialist", because they crucially involve the referents of the expressions used. From another perspective, the hearer can understand metaphor via the meaning of linguistic expressions, that is, the descriptive information. This comes to "interaction views", which Leezenberg classifies as "descriptivist" since these approaches take metaphorical interpretation to be guided by the descriptive information. And finally, quite different from the above two perspectives, one may hold that metaphorical meaning arises neither from resemblances between objects nor from descriptive information, but rather from cognitive mechanism such as the ability to see one thing as another, or as reasoning in analogies. Such approaches Leezenberg refers to as "conceptualist views" because they assign an important role to the interpreter's mental or conceptual capacities.

The philosophical basis of conceptual metaphor theory is described as "embodied realism" in *Philosophy in the Flesh* (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999). According to Lakoff (1993), embodied realism arises from the most fundamental empirical results, which provide several types of empirical evidence for the embodied meaning. This extensive evidence for the experientialist view suggests that "experience is the result of embodied sensorimotor and cognitive structures that generate meaning in and through our ongoing interactions with our changing environments. Experience is always an *interactive* process, involving neural and physiological constraints from the organism as well as characteristic affordances from the environment and other people for creatures with our types of bodies and brains" (Johnson and Lakoff, 2002, p. 248). Therefore, meaning arises, not just from the internal structures of the organism, nor only from the outside world, but rather from an interaction between the organism and environment.

In *Metaphors We Live By*, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. According to them, conceptual metaphor is a system of metaphor that lies behind much of everyday language and forms everyday conceptual system, including most abstract concepts. Metaphor, in essence, is "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.5).

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), the working mechanism of conceptual metaphors lies in the fact that conceptual metaphors are mappings across different conceptual domains, involving projections from a source domain to a target domain. They claim that:

a. Metaphorical mapping is uni-directional and asymmetric, that is, from the more concrete to the more abstract.

b. Metaphorical mapping is partial, not total, namely, the structure of the source domain is only partly projected to the structure of the target domain.

c. Metaphorical mapping is not random and arbitrary, but grounded in the body and everyday experience in the physical and cultural world.

d. Metaphorical mapping is systematic across different conceptual domains.

Being influenced by the conceptual metaphor theory, some researchers tend to study synesthetic metaphor from a different point.

1. Day's study on English literature

A comprehensive study was conducted by Day (1996) on the use of synesthetic metaphors in English literature. Day's data was collected from both printed texts and electronic texts, the latter of which came from sources that include the World Library's *Greatest Books Collection* (1991) CD-ROM (Dos format), the Oxford Text Archive, and Project Gutenberg. The time-range covers books from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* written in 1387; Shakespeare; 19th century novelists such as Melville; and currently popular novels such as those by Michael Crichton.

By analyzing the percentages of concurrency of each synesthetic metaphor in English, Day (1996) concluded that synesthetic metaphors are both to some extent neurological and to some extent the logical default conclusions of the physical world around us and the logical imperatives of human biology as a whole.

2. Shen's interpretation of cognitive constraints on synesthetic metaphors

Shen (1997) elaborates cognitive constraints on different poetic figures, including synesthetic metaphor. He claims that cognitive constraints provide an explanatory machanism that accounts for regularities characterizing poetic language over and above context (e.g., a specific text, poet, school, or period). Those regularities found in poetic language, according to him, "conform to *cognitive* rather than linguistic or contextual constraints, i.e., constraints which are derived from our cognitive system and its organizing principles" (Shen, 1997, p.35). In particular, he explains the issue of the direction of synesthetic mapping. He notices that synesthetic poetic metaphors seem to be highly selective with respect to their directionality of mapping.

Shen (1997) analyzes synesthetic metaphors drawn from modern Hebrew poetry which introduces a set of poets that belong to a totally different cultural environment and to a different period (the twentieth rather than the nineteenth century). The corpus analyzed consists of 130 instances of poetic synesthesia, taken from the writing of 20 modern Hebrew poets who were active during the first eighty years of the last century. The poets selected represent four distinct historical periods in the evolution of Hebrew poetry.

After the analysis, Shen finds that the routes of synesthetic transfers in Hebrew corpus tend to map hierarchically from lower senses to higher senses. He proposes that the above tendency of synesthetic transfer follows from the general cognitive constraint which suggests that "a mapping from more 'accessible' or 'basic' concepts onto a 'less

accessible' or 'less basic' ones seems more natural, and is preferred over the opposite mapping" (Shen, 1997, p.51).

3. Yu's study on Chinese novels and short stories

Yu (2003) analyzes examples of synesthetic metaphors extracted from the Chinese novels and stories written by Mo Yan, a preeminent contemporary Chinese novelist famous for his innovation with language. The images Mo Yan has shaped with words are graphic and constitute the "literariness" by which his works are distinguished. Yu divides the sense of sight into two subcategories: color and dimension. By analyzing his data, Yu (2003) finds eleven kinds of cross-modal mapping in all. Among them, eight kinds of mapping are upward transfers as listed below (the formula of "A→B" reads words of "A" domain transfer to "B" domain):

a. TOUCH→SMELL
b. TOUCH→SOUND
c. TOUCH→COLOR
d. TASTE→SOUND
e. DIMENSION→SOUND
f. DIMENSION→COLOR
g. COLOR→SOUND
h. SOUND→COLOR

Yu (2003) concludes the use of Mo Yan's synesthetic metaphors, although very novel and unusual, largely conforms to some general tendencies found in both ordinary and poetic language by previous empirical studies (Ullmann 1964, Williams 1976). The finding supports the claim that human meaning and understanding are embodied, constrained by the kind of body we have and how it functions.

IV. Summary

There are mainly two approaches to the research concerning synesthesia. The first one concentrates on the study of synesthesia from a scientific perspective, which offers neurological and psychological bases for people to explore synesthetic metaphor. The second approach focuses on the study of synesthesia from a linguistic perspective, especially, from metaphor theories. Though apparently different, the first approach can contribute to the study of synesthetic metaphor in linguistics.

Though known for its originality, synesthetic metaphor, traditionally, is regarded as an ornamental device used in rhetorical style. However, due to its novelty of cross-modal associations, synesthetic metaphor can not be explained by traditional metaphor theories.

Different from the traditional ones, the conceptual metaphor theory proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) provides more links and wider linguistic context for interpreting metaphors. In light of the theory, some researchers' study (Yu 2003, Day 1996 and Shen 1997) suggest that synesthetic metaphor are embodied. The directionality of mapping in synesthetic metaphor is not random, but rather follows a general pattern, that is, from the more concrete to the more abstract. This tendency indicates that synesthetic metaphor, similar to other metaphors, also embodies metaphorically cognitive and thinking process. At the same time, the fact that synesthetic transfers in both poetic and everyday language share the same directionality of mapping shows that synesthetic metaphors, either conventional or novel, are all grounded in our bodily and cultural experiences in the world.

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